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FOUNDATIONS OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE

THE EDUCATION OF ADULT PRISONERS

with a new preface by

HENRY BURNS Jr., Ph.D.

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THE EDUCATION OF ADULT PRISONERS

A SURVEY AND A PROGRAM

by

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ASSISTANT DIRECTOR, U. S. BUREAU OF PRISONS

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TO

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EDUCATION IN ITS BROADEST SENSE

WAS THE KEYSTONE

NOTES

[1]American Correctional Association, *Manual of Correctional Standards*, Prepared by Committee for Revision of 1959 Manual (Washington: American Correctional Association, 1966), p. xix.

[2]U. S. President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, *Task Force Report: Corrections* (Washington: United States Government Printing Office, 1967), p. 54.

[3]U. S. Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations, *State-Local Relations in the Criminal Justice System* (Washington: United States Government Printing Office, 1971), p. 238.

[4]Philadelphia (Pa.) *Evening Bulletin*, December 8, 1971, p. 13.

PREFACE

In the spring of 1927, on recommendation of the American Association for Adult Education, a grant of funds was made by the Carnegie Corporation to the National Society of Penal Information, Inc., for a study of educational and library work in American prisons and reformatories for adults, and for the formulation of a program which might be adopted as a standard for penal institutions. The writer was engaged by the Society, of which he is a director, to make the study. During the period from November, 1927, to August, 1928, he visited all the prisons and reformatories for men and women (state, federal, Army and Navy) in the United States, with three exceptions. The majority of the prisons he had visited at least once before. In the South enough road camps and prison farms were visited, in addition to the central prisons, to give a fair picture of each state prison system as a whole. The total number of institutions of major importance visited was about 110. The educational work in the penal institutions of the country was found to be so limited that the writer soon realized that the major part of his task was not to record what was being done, but to formulate a workable program, indicating what might be done with adequate financial support and competent personnel.

Before the survey was undertaken, an advisory committee consisting of persons concerned with various phases of penology or the education of adults was organized. The membership of this committee was as follows: Warden Stanley Ashe of the Western Pennsylvania Penitentiary;

Miss Sarah Askew, then Chairman of the American Library Association Committee on Institutional Libraries; Prof. Harry Elmer Barnes of Smith College; Honorable Sanford Bates, then Commissioner of Correction in Massachusetts, now Director of the United States Bureau of Prisons; Mr. Matthew S. Dudgeon, Librarian of the Milwaukee Public Library; Mr. L. A. Emerson, Director of the Essex County Vocational School in New Jersey; Mr. George C. Erskine, Superintendent of the Connecticut Reformatory for Men; Prof. J. L. Gillin of the University of Wisconsin; Mrs. Jessie Hodder, Superintendent of the Massachusetts Reformatory for Women; Dr. George W. Kirchwey, Professor of Criminology at the New York School of Social Work; Mrs. Blanche LaDu, Chairman of the State Board of Control of Minnesota; President Clarence C. Little of the University of Michigan; Prof. Hervey F. Mallory, Director of Extension Division, University of Chicago; Mr. Everett Dean Martin, Director of the People's Institute, New York City; Dr. Howard W. Odum, Professor of Sociology and Director of the Institute for Research in Social Science, University of North Carolina; Prof. Leon J. Richardson, Director of Extension Division, University of California; President Kenneth C. M. Sills of Bowdoin College; Dr. David Snedden of Teachers College, Columbia University; and the following representatives of organizations: Mr. Morse A. Cartwright, Director of the American Association for Adult Education; Mr. George P. Hambrecht, Director of the Wisconsin Board of Vocational Education, representing the American Vocational Association; Mr. Spencer Miller, Jr., Secretary of the Workers Education Bureau of America; and Prof. Leon J. Richardson of the National University Extension Association.

On completion of the visits to institutions, it proved impossible for the writer to concentrate immediately on the preparation of this book. This was partly because of his appointment to an administrative position in the federal penal service which made exacting demands on his time and energy. The preparation of the book has taken nearly two years. It is probable that the delay has been beneficial, for it afforded time for investigation in fields of education which are barely touched at present in our penal institutions, and for consultation with a large number of educational and penal authorities. It is deeply regretted, however, that the pressure of time during the last few months, when the manuscript was nearing completion, made it impossible to submit the subject matter to the members of the Advisory Committee. The writer cannot therefore claim to have the endorsement of the members of this committee on the ideas set forth in the book, although practically all the members were consulted personally in the course of the survey and gave advice and suggestions which assisted the writer in the formulation of his basic educational philosophy and the determination of effective procedure.

It would be possible, within the compass of a brief volume, to record what is now being done in penal institutions, how existing educational work can be made more effective without any substantial increase in appropriations, and how the present low aim can be achieved a little more successfully. The writer does not believe this to be worth doing. He has consciously and deliberately set an aim higher than any penal institution can achieve with present appropriations and present personnel. The attempt has been made to formulate a complete and well-rounded program of education such as no penal institution can put in effect until it receives more substantial support from legislators and administrative officials. Without trained personnel this program can never be put in effect; in this respect it does

not differ from all other educational work. The fact that the aim set is high and that the program outlined is difficult to accomplish does not, however, afford a valid excuse for the failure of penal officials to attempt to improve their educational work. In all fields of education, theory is in advance of practice. If it were possible for all penal institutions in the next decade to establish in its entirety the program outlined in these pages, we should have learned in that time so much that is new concerning the education of adults that our aim would have to be set still higher and our program modified or expanded still farther.

This book has many faults. Some are due to the paucity of available data on the subject and the lack of valid practice with which to test one's theories. Of some types of educational work advocated in these pages it is impossible to say that experience shows they will succeed, for they have not been tried in any penal institution. Other types of work have been tried to a limited extent only, and under unfavorable conditions. One can but add his knowledge of prisoners and penal institutions to his knowledge of standard educational theory and practice in the hope that two and two will make four.

Throughout the book, the major emphasis has been placed on prisons rather than on reformatories for men and women; the latter have been made the subjects of special chapters. As a matter of fact, whatever has been written applies with almost equal force to both types of institution. With certain obvious adaptations necessitated by the nature of the institution rather than by the nature of the prisoner, the program outlined is designed for both prisons and reformatories. The word "prison," as used here, may be taken as a shorter form of the term "penal institution" rather than as referring to prisons and penitentiaries as distinct from reformatories for adults. In jails

and other short-term institutions the educational problem is so complicated by the constant turnover in the inmate population that the book as a whole cannot be considered as applying, without substantial modification, to these institutions. It will be noted, finally, that various ideas are repeated in a number of chapters. These repetitions are deliberate, for it is assumed that many of the chapters will be read singly by those who are interested in only one or two phases of the problem and who will not read the entire book.

In the appendices an effort has been made to suggest concrete and practical aids for the institutional educator and librarian. The writer regrets that it is not possible conscientiously to give a longer list of textbooks, for requests are constantly being made for the titles of texts suitable for use with adults. One could compile a long list of books as satisfactory as the majority of those now being used in penal institutions. That there are few really satisfactory elementary texts for adults is well recognized. The list suggested is the result of a careful examination of a large number of texts and, however limited and unsatisfactory it may prove to be, it represents the application of a rigid standard of selection. In the other appendices much material has been included which is easily obtained from various sources; it is recognized that institutional officials desire definite information rather than advice as to sources.

The writer has many debts of gratitude to acknowledge, to both individuals and organizations: to the Carnegie Corporation; to the American Association for Adult Education, and especially to its executive secretary, Mr. Morse A. Cartwright; to his fellow directors and the executive secretary of the National Society of Penal Information; to the members of the advisory committee listed above; to the many penal officials, educational directors and chaplains

who have given him advice and assistance; to his colleagues, Mr. Earle M. Stigers, Educational Director at Atlanta, Mr. Allen L. Shank, Educational Director at Chillicothe, Mr. Roland Mulhauser, Librarian at Chillicothe, and especially to Mr. John Chancellor, Supervising Librarian of the United States Bureau of Prisons, whose painstaking and intelligent assistance proved invaluable; to Mr. Frank Cushman and Mrs. Anna L. Burdick of the Federal Board for Vocational Education; to Mr. L. R. Alderman and Mr. M. M. Proffitt of the United States Bureau of Education; to Mrs. John Chancellor for secretarial work of a high order; to Miss Helene Booth of the National Society of Penal Information for expert supervision of the details of publishing; and to his wife, Gertrude Albion MacCormick, the imprint of whose clear mind is stamped as an indelible water-mark on these pages.

AUSTIN H. MACCORMICK

Washington, D. C.
December, 1930.

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Human Development

Preface to the Reprint Edition of

The Education of Adult Prisoners: A Survey and a Program

To paraphrase Mark Twain, there has probably been more said about educating prisoners and less done about it than anything else in the United States. Indeed, since the founding of this country there have been many who talked and wrote about the subject. But Austin Harbutt MacCormick attempted to do something about inmate education. After a long and difficult study, he proposed a program for educating adult prisoners. That is what this book is about.

It is an understatement to say the author is widely known in corrections. His has been a 'name' in the field for decades. Austin H. MacCormick was Assistant Director of the United States Bureau of Prisons at the time he wrote *The Education of Adult Prisoners: a Survey and a Program.* Afterwards he was Commissioner of the New York City Department of Corrections, a professor in the University of California's School of Criminology at Berkeley, and Director of the Osborne Association. He has served as consultant at one time or another to most state correctional agencies in the United States. Indeed, his name is legendary. The cumulative impact that Austin MacCormick has had on nationwide corrections is incalculable. Numerous awards and other recognition have been accorded him, the most recent of which was from the President of the United States. In March 1971 he received a commendation from President Nixon "in recognition of exceptional service to others."

Supported by a grant of funds from the Carnegie Corporation to the National Society of Penal Information, MacCormick surveyed

what was being done to educate adult prisoners in the United States. Between November 1927 and August 1928, he visited all but three of the prisons and reformatories for men and women in the United States. Military prisons and all federal and state institutions were included. In most cases he had visited each at least once before. Road camps and prison farms were visited to the extent necessary to get an accurate picture. This book resulted from his survey and was published in 1931.

Mr. MacCormick deals first with the philosophy of prison education. Then he covers the aims of education in content areas and education for resocialization. The emphasis is on a need to individualize. After assessing the situation in prison education on a national scale. the author points up its weaknesses and strengths. He covers problems in teaching for basic literacy and those involved in teaching English, history, and government. He even suggests that there is a place for an education program in the county jail. Finally, he deals at length with vocational education and its role in prison education.

Education available to prisoners was found to be so limited that the author decided his primary task was not to record what was being done, but to formulate a workable program outlining what might be done. Thus he aimed higher than any penal institution could achieve under personnel and budget restrictions of the day. Notably, he warned that "without trained personnel this program can never be put in effect."

MacCormick claims that educational work in American penal institutions was poor chiefly because of its low priority and lack of financial support. He said the practical problem institutions faced then was not being able to finance the establishment of an adequate teaching staff. Lacking funds, but being pressured to provide education for prisoners, officials relied on inmates as teachers. Thus unsupervised, inmates constituted the educational staffs of many prisons then. Most often the author found "inexpert direction, starvation-ration appropriations, and grade school teaching of little more than the three R's." In most instances inmates looked upon education as merely another form of the dull penal routine.

The reader is reminded quite frequently that education for prison inmates is not "that single formula," because MacCormick maintains no such formula exists. His proposed philosophy of education for prisoners considers the individual prison inmate primarily as an adult in need of education rather than a criminal in need of reform. The aim is to provide prisoners, as individuals, with a variety of types of educational opportunities. This means that every prisoner ought to have the opportunity to take part in fundamental academic, vocational, health, cultural, and social education. All these areas should be arranged so that the individual prisoner can take whatever instruction his time, interest, and ability permit.

Prisoners are frequently viewed as being essentially alike. The resulting tendency is to provide program content and method appropriate to the "criminal type." MacCormick continually reminds the reader that the target is not "the prisoner" but the individual. He protests that the concern for a composite "prisoner" is misplaced. On the contrary, primary concern should be for the group composed of individuals who have but one thing in common — they have been convicted of crime. And this common factor does not eradicate the differences so that one can generalize and say "this is the education the prisoner needs." Prisoners are still individuals.

The author urges breaking away from the organization and content of public schools, and gives first priority to the eradication of illiteracy. But he maintains that achievemement of the minimum of literacy should merge without a break into the next step. The staff should then try to interest illiterate inmates who become literate to continue their education beyond the mere rudiments. However, he warns that compulsion ought to be used sparingly — even with illiterates. If any inmate does not respond to the first appeal to attend school, he must not be abandoned. The best advertisement for the prison school is the prisoner who has learned something and has also accomplished something else by having attended.

MacCormick contends that a limited enrollment in all areas, and especially in vocational trades, is acceptable if individuals are being effectively taught. He demands the elimination of obsolete vocational trades and recommends that every consideration be given to individual needs and capabilities. Along this line is the suggestion that vocational guidance be correlated carefully with placement and follow-up after release. Throughout the section on vocational training, there is the warning to base subject matter on actual occupational standards. Also, he cautions that the inmate needs to participate in practical work on a productive and useful basis in order to gain the most from the training.

With regard to social education, the author has rather strong feelings. In general, he asserts that prisoners are non-social and tend to look out for "number one" and accept their relation to the social order rather passively. To attempt socializing the prisoner, he proposes an inmate-community organization, based upon each prisoner having a responsibility to the whole instituion population. He insists this is consistent with sound educational, penal, and social philosophy. But he cautions the weak warden not to undertake such a program. In this system education becomes a community enterprise, with the real needs and interests apparent, because each individual is able to exercise an influence on the education program. Education thus succeeds because the prisoners themselves are pushing the idea. Here, as is true throughout the book, the author speaks from experience because he had seen such programs operate successfully.

Finally, MacCormick cites the need for cultural education — to prepare prisoners for a satisfactory and wholesome use of leisure time. This requires that their minds as well as their hands be provided with something to do, and involves whetting their appetites for the enjoyment of the finer things of life.

Unfortunately, this book has been largely ignored by those responsible for educating prisoners. Included in this category would have to be prison administrators and those actually responsible for the educational process in prisons. Many people in correctional education do not know the book exists. In a recently published volume covering resources for correctional educators, MacCormick's work is not even cited in the bibliography. And this particular resource book — with a 1971 copyright — is written by a self-styled expert in correctional education. Thus the impact which *The Education of Adult Prisoners: A Survey and a Program* has had upon correctional education these past forty years is minimal at best. This does not, however, detract from the book's quality and importance. On the contrary, it reflects on the quality of corrections in general, for there is widespread agreement that corrections in this country has been a dismal failure. Administrators boast of programs which are actually merely mythic. They exist on paper or as the figment of someone's active imagination.

Indeed, a great deal of inconsistency can be found between what actually exists and that which lives in name only. For example, the American Correctional Association's *Manual of Correctional Standards* states: "American prisons distinguish themselves from those in most other nations in their extensive investments in education and training."[1] That sounds good. But, is it true? To get an idea of how close to the truth that statement may be, look at the findings of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice. The Commission found "in all but a few states . . . academic instruction is provided mainly by inmate teachers."[2] The commission report emphasizes that the inmate serving as teacher is ill prepared for such a difficult task. Additionally the Commission found that in the few instances where civilians serve as teachers in correctional institutions, many are cast-offs from the public school systems. They, like the inmates, are primarily interested in putting in their time with a minimum of effort.

Therefore the deficiency in programs of education for prisoners still exists. The Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations in a late 1971 report noted that most adult inmates lack a high school education. This commission also complained that inmates are being used as teachers and course materials are of inferior quality or in many instances are not even available. Accordingly, this group suggested more and better programs designed to help prepare offenders to meet the rising academic standards of our society.[3]

Perhaps the Chief Justice of the United States, Warren E. Burger, analyzed the situation most succinctly: In December 1971 he said that education is perhaps the greatest failure of the American penal system. He stated that "the figures on literacy alone are enough to make one wish that every sentence imposed could include a provision that would grant release when the prisoner has learned to read and write, to do simple arithmetic, and then to develop some basic skill that is salable in the market-place of the outside world . . . ."[4]

Forty years have passed since Austin MacCormick studied the prison education programs and suggested improvements. Those in the field of prison education today could learn something from this work, for few — if any — institutions have reached the goals he established over forty years ago.

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CHAPTER I

The Aim and Philosophy of Education for Prisoners

EDUCATION is not that single formula for the solution of crime for which society is so restlessly and so fruitlessly seeking—fruitlessly because no single formula exists. When the solution for crime is found, if ever, the search will have led into every field of human knowledge, not alone into the social sciences and not alone into the terrain of any one agency, such as education.

Some of us are so eager to reduce social problems to the comparative exactitude of the natural sciences that we are forever trying to make up a table of social atomic weights and to learn the formulæ that eventually, we hope, will establish a sort of social chemistry. We state glibly that the combination of two atoms of slums and one atom of education will produce a man who will move to Fourth Avenue and sell drygoods or even to Fifth Avenue and do nothing. The formula is so neat that we like to look at it even though as a result of the experiment the test tube so often shows a muddy precipitate impossible of classification. Education is not the universal solvent, although it is an excellent catalyzer.

In the *Journal of Adult Education* Glenn Frank once said: "The mere tools of education are no guaranty of character. A man may carry a kit of burglar's tools and a doctor's degree at the same time." In an unusually direct article in the *Survey* an inmate of the Wisconsin prison, for several

years a student of courses provided by the University of Wisconsin Extension Division, wrote: "I know from experience that there is nothing which will redeem them faster than education. . . . For the physically and mentally fit in prison, education is the real hope."

Somewhere between the statements of the prisoner and the president lies the crux of the matter for those interested both in prisons and in education: that the tools of education, while no guaranty of character, are a powerful aid in forming or transforming it; that education of prisoners offers one of the very real hopes for their rehabilitation.

It is true that a man may carry a burglar's kit and a doctor's degree at the same time. It is also true that he may carry a plumber's kit and a doctor's degree. But he seldom does. There is, moreover, a vast difference between the man who turns to crime when he is educated and the man who turns to education when he is a criminal. It is always possible that education may open up to the successful burglar fields more attractive and more secure than burglary, if less lucrative. A certain prisoner is one of the best artisans the writer ever met. His skill at making and repairing fine ship models is so great that collectors send valuable models for repair to the prison where he is confined. If he ever turns from safe-cracking, at which he is also proficient, it will perhaps be because he is slowly and unconsciously educating himself by attention to his craftsmanship and by reading into which model-making has led him.

Thomas Mott Osborne used to say with regard to medical programs for prisoners that if he had to choose between a sick and a well burglar he would choose the former as less dangerous to society. This did not, however, prevent his trying to make every prisoner as nearly sound physically as possible, in the hope that a sense of physical well-being and freedom from the handicaps of ill health might be factors

in turning him toward an honest occupation. The same principle holds true with regard to education. If a man is to remain a criminal, it is perhaps better for society that he remain as ignorant and inexpert as possible. A very intelligent counterfeiter in a federal prison complained rather whimsically that the prison library barred books on metallurgy, and that it was impossible for him to keep up in his profession. There is probably no gain in teaching architecture to a porch-climber if he is to remain a second-story man all his life. The confidence man who has always had to deal with small fry may find that fifteen minutes a day with a five-foot shelf gives him a gloss that will dazzle the holder of second mortgages. But, after all, a five-foot shelf fits neatly into a cell and has a place there.

To what extent lack of education is a cause of crime and to what extent merely an accompanying circumstance we do not know. How much effect education has on character we do not know: whether or not it has the power to create a moral desire or merely to stimulate a desire already existent and to give it something to feed on. We do know, however, that men and women in prison are as a rule undereducated and, however high or modest our hopes for the result, we should remove that deficiency as we should remove adenoids. If we believe in the beneficial effect of education on man in general we must believe in it for this particular group, which differs less than the layman thinks from the ordinary run of humanity. If on no other grounds than a general resolve to offer educational opportunities to undereducated persons wherever they may be found, we recognize that our penal population constitutes a proper field for educational effort. In brief, we are not ready to make its efficacy in turning men from crime the only criterion in judging the value of education for prisoners. If we were, we should be equally ready to claim that in the main the chances of a

criminal turning from crime will be increased if he receives some measure of education while in prison.

Academic Education

Prisoners are recruited in disproportionate numbers from the undereducated groups in the general population. It is folly to assume that the mere meeting of standard school requirements will produce the reformed man or woman, or that any type of education will necessarily "reform." But giving prisoners some of the intellectual tools which they lack, extending their horizons, opening new and interesting fields, equipping them to engage more ably in the competitive struggle which most of them wage for existence as ex-convicts, laying the necessary foundations of what they consider "practical" training, related to jobs and grocers' bills,—these increase the mathematical chances in favor of what we call reformation.

Vocational Education

From the vocational standpoint, prisoners fall largely into the unskilled class. When we go into the occupational history of any prison population we find a tragic record of vocational incompetence. For the majority of prisoners there is real hope in vocational education. We can give them definite training for an occupation. We can give them expert analysis and guidance. We can perhaps enable them to move up a notch in the occupational scale. We can give them enough skill or knowledge so that, if they wish, they may become desirable employees who are not dropped at the first excuse but who achieve steady jobs, regular pay, homes, families and economic stability. With some prisoners we shall not succeed in imparting definite skill but shall develop ability or will to work steadily for eight hours a day, and

comprehension of the sense of well-being and self-respect that honest work brings. We cannot say how large a percentage will turn from crime after even the best possible vocational training. It is safe to say, however, that in every case the chances that the man will reform are increased. If rehabilitation still depends on the turn of the wheel, at least we can increase the percentage in favor of the banker, Society.

Health Education

Conceiving a well-rounded educational plan for prisoners to include, moreover, such practical and socially constructive enterprises as education in personal and community health, we may again increase the chances of rehabilitation by teaching the prisoner how to care for his body, his eyes, ears and teeth; how to live a controlled and orderly sex life; how to sleep, eat, dress, work and play so as to maintain his physical powers at par. Men have been "reformed" by being taught why they had chronic indigestion, which had led in turn to incapacity for work, vagrancy, petty thefts and prison.

Cultural Education

Then, having gone so far as to admit the toothbrush as an instrument of education, we may go still farther and risk the charge of faddism by setting up educational opportunities that are purely cultural: in the fields, for example, of music, art, literature, languages, natural science, and the social sciences. There is eager interest in such fields not only among "white-collar prisoners" but also among those of limited education. Giving one man reading guidance or an opportunity for education which has no relation to earning power, leads to no better job, produces nothing more tangible than greater interest in life, is likely to increase

the chances of reform as surely as giving another man instruction in carpentry or poultry raising.

A High Aim. If they were asked what the aim of education for prisoners is most laymen would say, "To make them better citizens," or would in some such terms limit that aim. This indeed is the aim often given for education in general. If by this definition, so far as prisoners are concerned, we mean turning offenders against the law into men who earn their living honestly—turning a second-story man into a building inspector or converting the passer of bad checks, known to the trade as a "paper-hanger," into a person whom one can safely employ to paper the walls of his dining room—we have set a defensible aim but one that is too low. If by a better citizen we mean one to whom new ways of living, new competence not only in making a living but also in living itself in the complex social relationships of modern life, new understanding, new satisfactions, new richness, new outlooks, new horizons, new standards, new concepts have been opened up by education, we have set an aim worthy of pursuance. Whatever, in short, tends to enrich life and to increase its durable satisfactions has its place in prison education as surely as what tends to make life more orderly and law-abiding. Even if we accept the idea that the path of education must be the path of reform we shall have to make it a broad path, winding and rambling, with many detours and many alluring bypaths.

Social Education

The end result we hope for from all the types of education we offer the prisoner is social education: the socialization of the individual. Our hope is that the man whom we educate to better handling of the fundamental intellectual processes, to greater occupational skill, to better care of his body, to broader understanding of the world he lives in, may

not only stop committing antisocial acts but may also fit into the social scheme understandingly and willingly. Much of our present system of criminal justice sets a low aim in that it is willing to have the criminal conform to the social order without understanding of it: the main point is that he conform. It is the aim of education to bring about conformity *with* understanding. Only when this is accomplished, when the individual knows what his proper relation to the social order is and wishes to assume it, is he socialized. It is the production of this kind of ex-criminal at which we aim, not the ex-criminal who conforms merely because he has decided to yield to a machine which he cannot successfully oppose.

Just as education in the three R's, the technique of electric wiring, the care of the teeth, or appreciation of English prose are indirect forms of social education, so there are more direct forms. Education in proper relationships with one's cellmates, with fellow workers and foremen in the shops, with the man next to one at the table in the mess hall, with all the members of the prison community as individuals and in the mass—this is direct social education. It is no less education because it is not accomplished through textbooks and classroom teaching but rather in the varied daily activities of the prison. The whole program of the prison should be educational, taking the term in its broadest sense. It is the main weakness of our American prisons that this is not so. Problems involved in one's relationships with his fellow prisoners and the officials are customarily treated under the head of discipline in penal institutions. Discipline should be education; instead it is little more than an application to adults of the theory of spanking.

Moral Education. One phase of social education is what is called moral education. Many earnest people conceive this, defined in a narrow and pietistic sense, to be the whole

function of the prison. They would teach morals, but turn a cold eye on teaching shoe repairing. Only in a broad sense is morality the aim of the prison or of its educational program. Much of what we call moral education, it is true, can be given directly, under proper leadership. There should be a Phillips Brooks in every prison chaplaincy, where men possessing not only sincerity and conviction, but also fire, eloquence, and personality are needed. Religion can be a vital force in prisons, as it is not now. Moral precepts can be driven home. But the larger part of moral education must always be given indirectly.

Prisoners shy away from moralizing: they resent too obvious attempts at reform. When asked recently for a list of "inspirational" books for prisoners, the writer submitted a list of biographies and autobiographies dealing with men whose lives show magnanimity, courage, persistence, understanding of their fellow men, and other fundamental virtues, and a list of readable plays and novels whose principal characters possessed these traits. Anyone thoroughly familiar with prisoners and their characteristic mind-set will engage to teach them more morality by indirection than by sermon or precept.

Morality will come in some cases, moreover, only through the process of making a moral life possible and desirable. If we wish a prisoner to turn into an honest, hard-working citizen we are more likely to achieve his moral rehabilitation by giving him enough occupational skill so that he finds his work-life interesting and sufficiently remunerative than by talking to him about the joys of honest labor.

Necessity of a Broader Aim. This point is stressed, perhaps to overemphasis, because we can very seriously cripple a prison educational program if we allow it to be dominated by too narrowly moralistic an aim. We shall go farther and accomplish more if we think of our potential students in

prison not primarily as a group of men and women to be "saved," but as undereducated adults. In setting up our program we should not say, "Here are a thousand criminals. What education will be good for them?" but rather, "Here are a thousand undereducated and vocationally unskilled adults. What are their needs and desires in the field of education? Because they chance to be convicted criminals, with certain attitudes of mind as a result, and because they are in a prison under certain handicaps imposed by its physical features and its routine, what changes in our usual educational content and method will be desirable and necessary?"

Prison Education Is Adult Education

Education of prisoners is fundamentally a problem of adult education, taking the term in the European sense as including educational enterprises that are in America considered a part of the public educational system rather than of the adult education movement. The penal institution should make use of all that is known about the education of adults and should deviate from methods found effective in that field only when the prisoner-attitude or the prison locale makes it necessary. We need to stress the normality rather than the abnormality of our prisoner-students, to apply standard educational practice to the problem rather than to try to develop a special educational technique designed for the criminal.

Points for Major Emphasis

In our formulation of an aim and philosophy for prison education the following facts need to be emphasized:

1. We must not expect too much in the way of either quality or quantity production. We may have to be content with gains made by dozens of prisoners rather than hun-

dreds. As Everett Dean Martin says, "We have given up any illusion of suddenly transforming the masses."

2. We must not assume that programs and routine in and of themselves are accomplishment. We do not educate by making students go through the motions of being educated. We must be honest with ourselves and with the prisoners, especially in the field of vocational education where they have standards by which they can judge whether or not they are being given real training.

3. Education for prisoners must be individualized. It must be based on individual diagnosis and prescription, so far as these are possible with available personnel. The prisoner should not go through a mass-treatment process, but should devote the limited time at his disposal to those particular studies which he most needs and wants and is capable of pursuing most effectively.

4. Education for prisoners must be "adultized." They are adults, with adult interests, concepts and experiences. They may have to study subjects which they should have mastered in childhood, but there is no excuse for the use of juvenile texts, equipment or method. Prison education must, moreover, be conceived as adult in the sense conveyed by the use of this term in the adult education movement. It must aim at the "enrichment of self" as well as at the imparting of utilitarian knowledge and skill.

5. Education for prisoners must be broadly inclusive in its offerings. Newton D. Baker once said that when the Army began to offer educational opportunities to the 2,000,000 officers and enlisted men overseas after the Armistice the policy of "teaching anybody who came anything he wanted to study" was adopted. Within limits and with the element of guidance added, this should be the slogan of a prison program. On the other hand, the prison school should not be allowed to become a catch-all into

which all the prisoners settle who are not wanted in the industries or maintenance details. There is in most prisons a "sick, lame and lazy crew." The school is no place for it, or for those prisoners whom the officials wish to keep busy so that they will keep out of trouble.

6. Contrary to the present practice of most institutions, compulsion should be applied sparingly. It tends to defeat its own aim by filling classes with men who do not wish to be there, who are determined to get by the requirements as easily as possible and who become adepts at malingering. It makes education a thing to be avoided instead of a thing to be sought. If anything is to compel the prisoner to education, academic or vocational, let it be interest. If we cannot arouse interest so that the prisoner will go as far as his mental capacity and the length of his sentence permit, there is little to be gained by substituting compulsion. There are, to be sure, certain potent and legitimate methods of compulsion, but they are really based on interest. If prisoners learn that the man who has taken advantage of his educational opportunities gets good work assignments in the prison, is considered favorably by the parole board, and is recommended for desirable positions upon release, we have in a sense introduced the element of compulsion. Properly speaking, we have rather introduced the element of interest: selfish interest, but justifiable nevertheless. With or without this form of compulsion, it is certain that real educational opportunities will bring a ready response from prisoners.

Conclusion

In conclusion, education for adult prisoners has an aim and a philosophy. Its philosophy is to consider the prisoner as primarily an adult in need of education and only secondarily as a criminal in need of reform. Its aim is to extend

to prisoners as individuals every type of educational opportunity that experience or sound reasoning shows may be of benefit or of interest to them, in the hope that they may thereby be fitted to live more competently, satisfyingly and coöperatively as members of society.

In the attempt to define this general aim more closely these questions may be asked: "What specifically shall we try to teach the prisoner? What fields should the curriculum properly cover?" To these questions one would answer that we should try to give every prisoner, so far as time and his ability permit, whatever he requires of the following educational foundation:

1. Fundamental Academic Education, designed to provide the intellectual tools needed in study and training and in his everyday life.
2. Vocational Education, designed to give training for an occupation.
3. Health Education, designed to teach the fundamentals of personal and community health.
4. Cultural Education, embracing the nonutilitarian fields which one enters for intellectual or æsthetic satisfaction alone.
5. Social Education, to which all other types of education and all the activities of the institution should contribute.

CHAPTER II

The Student Body

IN the hundred or more prisons and reformatories for men and women throughout the country there are over 100,000 inmates. This is the potential student body with whose education we are here concerned. The question of immediate interest is, "What are the chief characteristics, considered from the educational viewpoint, of the individuals who make up this penal population?"

DEFINITION OF TERM "STUDENT BODY"

In Prisons. If the term "student body" were defined in accordance with current practice we should be limited in a large number of prisons to some definition as narrow as the following: "the illiterates," or "those who lack a fifth grade education," or "those who want to take correspondence courses and have enough money to pay for them." This statement may sound exaggerated and sarcastic, but it is the bitter and barren truth. With few exceptions, our prisons have limited their student bodies to those who fail to escape from a combination of flytrap and sieve and those who respond to the lure of get-educated-quick advertisements.

In Reformatories. The reformatories for men have traditionally gone to the other extreme. The student body is conceived to be the whole inmate body, with certain important exceptions: those who can convince the school authorities that they have completed the eighth grade;

those who are pronounced mental defectives; those who are too "dumb" to be worth bothering with; those who appear incapable of learning skilled trades; those who succeed in making trouble enough to escape the school, if not the dog-hole; those who have been assigned to details which are excused from school; and others in sufficient numbers to bring the actual student body down to fifty per cent of the inmate population or even lower. The reformatories for men, with all their claims of being educational institutions, actually offer education to only a part of their inmates. They require universal education on the one hand and make wholesale and indiscriminate exceptions on the other. This charge, by contrast, cannot fairly be placed against the reformatories for women. However ineffective their educational work may be, practically all of them try to bring one type of education or another to every inmate.

The Entire Inmate Body. As a matter of fact, the student body of any penal institution *is* the entire inmate body: feeble-minded, mentally superior, unskilled laborers, skilled artisans, illiterates, college graduates, hill-billies, bankers, trouble-makers and trusties. We may not be able to reach them all, but we should try. There is a content, aim and method of education applicable to every individual in the penal population.

General Characteristics

What then is the composition of this penal population—our potential student body? How old are the prisoners? What education have they? What mentality? What vocational training? What background? What future? What attitude toward education? What interests in life to which we may relate education?

To answer some of these questions briefly we can better generalize than rely on statistics. Such scientific case studies

as form the basis of *500 Criminal Careers* * are more illuminating than all the statistical tables in existence. The following general statements may safely be made: The majority of the inmates of both prisons and reformatories fall in the twenty to thirty-year age group, with a pronounced tendency toward a lower average age in recent years. They are undereducated from the academic standpoint and vocationally unskilled. In mentality they do not differ greatly from the Army draft group. They show a somewhat higher incidence of psychopathic trends and emotional imbalances than the general population. Their environmental background is that of the underprivileged groups in our rural and urban communities. A very high percentage came originally from broken homes. Their future is that of the ex-convict, facing a struggle against distrust and prejudice, especially when in search of work. Their attitude toward education is a combination of "You'll have to show me" and "Please show me."

Our potential student body in the prison, at first glance, is an especially unpromising one. In the reformatory it is little better, for the youth and theoretically greater teachability of the inmates are offset by instability and lack of serious purpose. Viewed sympathetically, the prisoner is rather a tragic figure, with failure in his past and a fair chance of failure in his future. It is the prison educator's job to try to weight the scales against that failure. To offset his handicaps, there are some elements in the prisoner's situation which make him a better candidate for education than the corresponding free man. By his conviction and sentence he has been given a definite shock which may cause him to turn his mind to the consideration of how to make something better of his life. He knows that when he is released it will be difficult, as an ex-convict, to get a position unless

* Glueck, Sheldon and Eleanor T.: *500 Criminal Careers.* Knopf, 1930.

he has greater skill or better training of some sort to offer than rival applicants for positions. He has many hours of monotonous leisure at his disposal. Finally, he is in a position where it is possible to control all his activities and to direct his thoughts to a degree not possible with free students.

The prisoner, moreover, does not differ as greatly as is popularly supposed from the general run of humanity. Because he is a prisoner, he will not think exactly as the man on the street does. Because he is in a prison, he will have to overcome certain handicaps that he does not encounter outside. But he is surprisingly like the man on the street in his interests, his needs, his limitations and his capabilities. The penal population does not represent a cross section of the general population, but it is a fair cross section of the lower ranges of society where bad environmental conditions and limited opportunities prevail. The prisoners who are recruited from the upper reaches of the general population represent only a comparatively thin sprinkling, although there is a fairly large number of prisoners who have superior native intelligence.

Let us examine the penal population more closely in the matters of age, previous education, vocational training and mentality. A valuable source of statistical material is *The Prisoner's Antecedents,* a Census Bureau report published in 1929 but based on figures for the year 1923, and the Bureau's bulletin covering prisoners committed in 1926, the latest report available. For the latter report statistics were collected on commitments during the year 1926 to all state prisons and reformatories and four federal civil institutions. While these formed only 10.8 per cent of the commitments to all classes of penal institutions during this period, they embrace most of the persons convicted of felonies and of relatively serious offenses. Other sources of

information are the annual reports of various institutions and the 1929 *Handbook of American Prisons and Reformatories.*

Age

In the reformatories for men the upper age limit is usually set by law at thirty years. In the reformatories for women there is ordinarily no upper age limit, and there is never one in the prisons. Of the prisoners reported on in the 1926 Census bulletin mentioned above, 16.6 per cent of the men and 24.3 per cent of the women were under twenty years of age, 43.6 per cent of the men and 53.7 per cent of the women were under twenty-five, and 62.7 per cent of the men and 70.2 per cent of the women were under thirty. It should be borne in mind that the report does not cover reformatories for juveniles. While the reformatories for adults bring the average age down somewhat, it is a well-known fact that the prisons contain a large number of young offenders. During a recent eighteen-months period 237 offenders between the ages of sixteen and twenty-one were sentenced to Sing Sing. At least one prison receives boys as young as fourteen years. In June, 1928, 57 per cent of the inmates of the Michigan Prison at Jackson were thirty years old or under when received at the institution. Of the prisoners received at Joliet during the year ending June 30, 1927, 61 per cent were under thirty years of age. Of the men received at Sing Sing during the year ending June 30, 1928, 60 per cent were under thirty years of age. Of those received at San Quentin during the same period, 61 per cent were under thirty.

Age as a Factor in Learning Ability. The age of the student is now considered of less importance than it was before the publication of Thorndike's study demonstrating that there is little difference between the learning capacity of

the younger and older student. In his report of that study,* he says, "Age, in itself, is a minor factor in either success or failure. Capacity, interest, energy and time are the essentials. . . . In general, teachers of adults of age twenty-five to forty-five should expect them to learn at nearly the same rate and in nearly the same manner as they would have learned the same thing at fifteen to twenty. What that rate and manner will be depends upon the general intelligence and special capacity of the individual. . . . If an adult class were to be divided into two sections, one expected to make rapid progress and the other expected to make slow progress, age would be practically worthless as a basis for the division. Amount of schooling, in the sense of grade reached, would be enormously better. School grade reached, plus a measure of the shortness of the time to attain that grade, plus some reasonable intelligence test, would be better still. . . . The curve of ability to learn in relation to age from twenty-two to forty-two is a very slow decline and is no greater for inferior intelligence than for superior."

Some of the studies on which Dr. Thorndike's conclusions are based were made with prisoners at Sing Sing. A study made by Mr. Stigers at San Quentin, cited in a subsequent chapter, showed that prisoners within the thirty-five to forty-nine age group consistently averaged higher marks than the twenty to thirty-four age group, although the latter reported more previous schooling than the former. It is safe to consider the older prisoner, as well as the younger, a prospective student.

Previous Education

On the question of previous education statistics can rarely be relied on, for the prisoner's word is customarily taken

* Thorndike, Edward L.: *Adult Learning.* Macmillan, 1928.

and he almost invariably overstates his education. He has often been warned by an experienced fellow prisoner to claim seventh or eighth grade education so that he will not be compelled to attend the prison school. It is not enough, furthermore, to know that a man has completed the sixth grade unless we know in what type of school he completed it. On the basis of the few studies in which an actual check was made on the previous education claimed, it is safe to state that from 10 to 25 per cent of all the prisoners in our prisons and reformatories for adults are virtually illiterate and that from 55 to 75 per cent have gone no farther than the sixth grade in the public schools. The percentage of illiterates depends somewhat upon how we define illiteracy. The Census Bureau figures for 1923 * show that of the men and women committed during the first six months to the prisons and reformatories 10.7 per cent were absolutely illiterate. The test of reading and writing ability given to 1,500,000 soldiers and sailors during the World War, which revealed that 24.9 per cent were unable to write a letter and read a newspaper, justifies the reasonable assumption that at least that percentage of our prisoners is similarly handicapped. It should be noted that a large number of the soldiers and sailors tested had been to school but had forgotten how to read and write.

One of the few studies in which the previous education of prisoners was verified is that of the Gluecks. This may be taken as having validity for both prisons and reformatories in view of the fact that so large a percentage of reformatory graduates go on eventually to the prisons. Of the prisoners released from the Massachusetts Reformatory for Men during the years 1911-1922, the Gluecks found that 2.4 per cent had never attended school, that the highest grade reached by 42.6 per cent was the fifth grade or less,

* Not included in 1926 (latest) report.

and that another 45.8 had reached the sixth to eighth grades. If these figures obtained in a state having as high an educational standing as Massachusetts, it is certain that the deficiencies of the whole penal population are measurably greater.

For our purposes it is sufficient to make the statement that prisoners are characteristically undereducated. In some cases this is so because they have been underprivileged; economic pressure, the demands or the neglect of ignorant or selfish parents, or residence in backward communities, has robbed them of educational opportunities. In many cases they have been incorrigibles, truants, irresponsible drifters. In other cases they have had the usual amount of public schooling but have grown rusty, either in all branches or in spots. Some give superficial evidences of education which they have actually never had. Others, in large numbers, were never capable of profiting by any education other than a specialized type because of mental deficiencies or emotional instability. In addition to their shortcomings in the fields covered by the public schools, men and women in prison as a whole are almost completely ignorant of the broader aspects of education.

Vocational Status

On the point of vocational training and skill we must again generalize. Practically all statistics available are based on the unverified statements of prisoners and are almost useless. Prisoners habitually claim greater vocational skill and a higher type of occupational experience than the truth warrants, partly because they are ashamed to admit the facts and partly in order that they may be considered eligible for the more desirable work assignments in the institution. If a prisoner has ever worked for even a short time as a plumber's helper, he is almost certain to give his

occupation as that of plumber when he is admitted to the institution.

The skilled artisan or the trained worker of any kind is comparatively rare in prison. It is known that well over 60 per cent of the inmates of our prisons and reformatories are recruited from the ranks of unskilled or semiskilled workers. They include large numbers of plain manual workers: small farmers, woodsmen, miners and unskilled laborers from the transportation services; those who live in the cities on the precarious fringe of unemployment; those half-skilled workers who are the first ones dropped because they are the most easily spared in times of industrial depression; those migratory laborers who depend on the demands of seasonal and regional employment; those drifters who are always in search of a better job or of any job at all; those who work steadily but whose wages do not enable them to acquire honestly the things which they want beyond the necessities. They have had practically no organized vocational training, and by experience they have developed little vocational skill which is readily marketable. Of the prisoners under the age of thirty years in the United States Penitentiary in Atlanta less than 15 per cent have received any vocational training whatever.

That there is a direct correlation between vocational incompetence and crime is certain. If economic pressure does not force men into crime, at least it makes it easy for them to fall into it. Migratory laborers tend to drift into crime in the course of their wanderings, being without the powerful check of home and community ties. Some men deliberately turn to crime because of dissatisfaction with the standard of living forced on them by their lack of skill and earning power. It is probably true that very few men turn to crime to keep from starving, but it is undoubtedly true that many become criminals because of economic inefficiency

and the low standards of life which tend to go with low earning power.

MENTALITY

On the question of the mentality of prisoners there has been much discussion and many exaggerated statements have been made. It is only in recent years that data have been assembled which indicate what the intelligence level of the penal population probably is. It is still difficult to make valid comparisons of different sets of statistics because of the varied systems of classification employed by those who have made mental tests. The weaknesses of all such tests are well understood, but we know much more than we did a decade ago about our prisoners. The subject of the status of prisoners from the psychiatric standpoint is not here discussed. There are only a few resident psychiatrists in penal institutions. The body of data available is small and too little is known about the free population to justify sweeping comparisons. It is generally believed, however, that the proportion of insane and psychopathic personalities is greater in the penal population than in the world outside and that cases of mental maladjustment and emotional imbalance are more numerous. This unquestionably is a handicap to educational programs, how great a handicap no one knows. We are concerned in this study with intelligence levels rather than with mental and emotional states.

In some institutions the question of education is dismissed with the statement that the prisoners are "nothing but a bunch of morons." This is not consistent with the facts, although it is true that in practically all penal institutions there are imbeciles, morons, and others of very low grade mentality, just as there are in the general population. Only two states, New York and Massachusetts, have

institutions which are maintained especially for defective delinquents; in the remaining states the mental defective convicted of crime usually goes into the jail, reformatory or prison.

Dr. Adler's Study. For many years the mistake was made of not comparing statistics on the intelligence level of prisoners with those for a fairly typical section of the free population. In 1924 Dr. Herman Adler made a comparison of intelligence distribution in Illinois institutions with Army draft findings. He found that the percentage of superior intelligence in the institution group was 9.3 per cent as against 13.5 per cent for the Army draft group. Those of average intelligence were 66 per cent of the institution group as against 61.5 per cent of the draft group, and those of inferior intelligence were 24.7 per cent of the former as against 25 per cent of the latter. "The slight difference," he said, "is in favor of the Army draft with 4.2 per cent more superior and .3 per cent more inferior. The difference is so slight that we cannot consider it significant." Professor Carl Murchison, in his study of *American White Criminal Intelligence,* found a small percentage of superiority in favor of the criminal group.

Other Data. So few institutions give psychometric tests that we have no body of information extensive enough to justify any sweeping conclusions, but available figures do not indicate strikingly low intelligence levels. Figures for the year ending June 30, 1928, at the New Jersey Reformatory for Men show that 50 per cent of the inmates admitted to the reformatory during that year had average intelligence or higher. Of 5850 cases admitted to the Illinois Reformatory for Men over a ten-year period, 13.72 per cent were found to have superior intelligence, 72.65 per cent average intelligence, and 13.63 per cent inferior intelligence.

The Western Penitentiary Study

One of the most extensive studies ever made of prisoners is that made by Dr. Root of the University of Pittsburgh, covering 1916 prisoners in the Western Penitentiary of Pennsylvania.* It may be used as a basis for general assumptions as to the intelligence level of a typical prisoner population. The cases studied did not represent a selected group, but the run of the prison. Forty-four per cent of the 1916 cases were native whites, 30 per cent negroes, 12.7 per cent Italians, and 13.3 per cent from other racial groups. Over half of the cases were prisoners under thirty-one years of age. The Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon tests was used to determine the I.Q., and the Illinois General Intelligence Tests to fix the approximate grade in school rating. Some records were examined in the case of those who had a high school or college education. A comparison was made between the results of the intelligence test and the achievement test and a further comparison was made with the vocational training of the inmates studied.

Intelligence Level. The mental tests revealed the following distribution. It will be noted that 42.6 per cent of all the prisoners showed dull normal intelligence or better and that in this group fell 61.8 per cent of the native white inmates.

	All	Native Whites	Negroes
Imbeciles	70, or 3.7%	12, or 1.4%	32, or 5.6%
Morons	661, or 34.5%	171, or 20.2%	279, or 48.5%
Border Line	367, or 19.2%	141, or 16.6%	107, or 18.7%
Dull Normal	455, or 23.7%	239, or 28.3%	109, or 18.9%
Normal	296, or 15.4%	224, or 26.6%	44, or 7.6%
Superior	53, or 2.8%	47, or 5.6%	3, or .5%
Very Superior	14, or .7%	11, or 1.3%	1, or .2%

* *A Psychological and Educational Survey of 1916 Prisoners in the Western Penitentiary of Pennsylvania,* by Wm. T. Root, Jr., published by the Penitentiary Trustees.

Results of Achievement Tests. The achievement tests showed the following distribution:

	All	Native Whites	Negroes
Illiterates	18 %	4 %	10.1%
1st Grade	14.3%	5.4%	24.7%
2nd Grade	11.8%	7 %	18.8%
3rd Grade	9.4%	7.4%	13 %
4th Grade	10.2%	12.4%	11.5%
5th Grade	8.8%	13.4%	7.6%
6th Grade	7.5%	12.3%	5.7%
7th Grade	6.8%	11.8%	4.2%
8th Grade	9.4%	18.3%	3.7%
High School	3.5%	7.4%	.7%
College	.3%	.6%	

Of all the inmates 80 per cent rated sixth grade or lower; 91.4 per cent of the negroes were so rated and 61.9 per cent of the native whites.

Occupational Status. The occupational distribution of the prisoners examined was found to be as follows: unskilled, 68.1 per cent; skilled, 29.4 per cent; business and so forth, 2.5 per cent. Of those showing border-line or higher intelligence (that is, possessing capacity for semiskilled and skilled occupations) 52 per cent had occupational training which was inadequate in terms of their intelligence. This was true of 35 per cent of the native whites and approximately 75 per cent of all others.

Comparison and Summary. A comparison of the educational possibilities shown by the mental tests with the educational status revealed by the achievement tests showed that 58 per cent of the entire group studied had less education than their mental rating indicated they could attain. A comparison of intelligence rating with occupational status indicated that 32 per cent * of the entire group had border-

* The writer believes this to be a very conservative figure.

line or higher intelligence and had inadequate trade training in terms of their intelligence rating.

To summarize, reducing these figures to a basis of 1,000 inmates for convenient comparison with other institutions, we may expect to find among every thousand prison inmates the following: 580 of all grades of intelligence with inadequate academic education in terms of their intelligence rating, and 320 * of border-line or higher intelligence with inadequate trade training in terms of their intelligence rating.

Conclusion

The Western Penitentiary study is of great importance because of the light that it throws on the problem, but it cannot be taken as conclusive evidence, especially on the question of how high prisoners can rise in the educational and vocational scale. It is impossible to set a man's possibilities with accuracy. We can use an intelligence, achievement, or vocational rating as a guide in determining what can reasonably be expected of an individual prisoner, but some other factor may tip the balance and cause him to go far beyond the point we expect him to reach or to fall far below. Sensory defects, for example, are important factors. Those who reach their maximum height may broaden out indefinitely on that level. The college graduate and the skilled worker may not fall by any test into the category of those possessing inadequate education or vocational skill, but they may belong there nevertheless. It is impossible to say with surety that at a certain level a given individual may logically stop learning. There is no saturation point in education, even for the man of superior intelligence and skill. There is too much in the world worth learning.

* The writer believes this to be a very conservative figure.

Scope of Education Broad. It must be remembered also that in setting our educational aim for penal institutions we do not dismiss those of low grade intelligence from the list of those to be educated. Anyone who has seen defective delinquents being taught to make high grade aluminum ware at Napanoch is impressed by the possibilities of vocational education for this group. They profit also, to a limited degree, from academic education. Even the moron can be taught some of the simple fundamental principles of personal hygiene and can unconsciously absorb social education in an intelligently regulated relationship with his fellow prisoners and his officers. The figures on the mentality of our prisoners do not narrow the scope of our educational activities but rather broaden it. They indicate the necessity for diversified types of education and for the highest possible degree of individualization.

The Typical Student. It is customary in educational studies dealing with special groups to summarize by defining the characteristics of a typical student. It would be easy to do this with prisoners, but in the present study it is deliberately avoided. We are too prone to think of prisoners as being essentially alike and to try to develop an educational content and method which is applicable to the criminal type or the prisoner. We need continually to stress the dissimilarity rather than the similarity of the individuals who make up the penal population. From the educational standpoint a picture of the typical prisoner can be given in one sentence: "The typical prisoner is a young man or woman who needs education."

CHAPTER III

The Individualization of Education

A FUNDAMENTAL principle of penology is that the whole program of penal institutions should be based on a process of individual diagnosis, prescription and treatment. The comparative failure of our American prisons and reformatories to fulfill their function of rehabilitation is very largely due to the fact that they operate on the principle of mass treatment. The many reasons why they do so need not be enumerated. Prison officials themselves recognize this weakness of their programs, and the more forward-looking ones are seeking for ways to bring about individualization in spite of the fact that they are swamped by excessive numbers of prisoners and have on their staffs few persons with scientific training. Until our penal institutions are able to employ experts capable of making skilled, scientific, individual diagnoses of the prisoners, prescribing individual treatment on the basis of these diagnoses, and seeing that the treatment indicated is given, we can hope for only the occasional successes produced by the present process of grinding men through a mass-production mill.

The Need of Individualized Education

In no part of the penal program is individualization needed more than in the educational work. It is inconsistent with sound educational philosophy to set up a scheme of education which treats all prisoners as being essentially the

same educational material. Various factors enter into the decision as to what any one prisoner can most profitably study: his general background, his occupational history, his educational history, his mentality, his emotional status, his interest, his capacity for perseverance, his physical condition, his plans for the future, the part of the country from which he comes and to which he is going, the specific points in which he is weak and strong educationally, the amount of time at his disposal, and so on. A course of study which is applicable to all and has equal value for all cannot possibly be set up. Any state or institution regulation which merely requires all prisoners who lack a fifth grade education to attend the prison school and to follow a fixed course of study is a negation of the principle of individualization.

Individual Differences. Prisoners needing and desiring education have individual starting points and individual goals. They progress at varying speeds and by different paths. Some start at zero, some at ten above, others at twenty, fifty or seventy above zero. Probably no adult starts at absolute zero, unless his mentality is so defective that he cannot start at all. At any level there will be peaks and valleys in the prisoner's achievement chart. One may be weak in arithmetic and totally ignorant of history or the simplest principles of hygiene, but may be able to read well and may have made a fair start in a skilled occupation. Another may have a well-rounded academic education and no vocational training. A third may be a competent artisan with limited academic education.

Varying Progress. Prisoners cannot be fitted neatly into grades or even into such rough groupings as beginners, intermediate and advanced, unless we recognize the fact that an adult may be a beginner in one field and an advanced student in another. If adult prisoners were closely graded there would be almost as many grades as individuals. When

they have been roughly grouped, provision must be made for frequent regrouping and the greatest possible flexibility in progress. A beginners' group in English will include not only those who have never learned to read, but also those who once knew how and have forgotten. A large proportion of those who fail to pass literacy tests have had formal schooling but have grown rusty. Obviously the revival of an old skill or knowledge can usually be accomplished more quickly than the acquiring of a new one. Rate of progress depends also on other factors which need not be stated here, as they are universal rather than peculiar to the problem of the adult prisoner. Every prisoner should be allowed to move forward as rapidly as possible and allowance should be made for progress at varying speeds along the different lines which he is following. Frequent retesting is necessary to prevent waste of time on a level above which the student has risen.

Individual Goals. It is necessary not only to know at what point a prisoner starts but also toward what point he should work as his goal. In some cases the goal can be definitely fixed at the start: the goal of learning to read and write, getting a fifth grade education, or learning the plumbing trade. In other cases it cannot be fixed until the prisoner has been following a general or specific course of study for some time. A "tryout course" may be necessary. No diagnostician is so wise that he can always guess right the first time; he must often employ the method of trial-and-error.

There is, furthermore, no perfect mechanical range finder in education. At the Western Penitentiary in Pittsburgh (see the previous chapter) a mental test is given and the level of achievement to which the prisoner can probably rise is determined. The Illinois Achievement Tests are also given and the level to which the prisoner appears to have risen is indicated. The difference between these two levels

is taken as an approximation of the educational need of the individual from the academic standpoint. This, in spite of its scientific basis, is too nearly a rule-of-thumb method.

The Method of Analysis

Granting the need of individualization in our prison education program, how do we proceed to make a skilled diagnosis and prescription to help the individual prisoner plan the course of study which he should follow? A general diagnosis, applicable to all the problems of the prison, should be a standard part of its method. It should be initiated as soon as the prisoner is received at the institution. The basis of such a diagnosis is the complete social history of the prisoner, which should be compiled as rapidly as possible by reference to criminal records, by personal interviews with the prisoner, and by correspondence with former employers, citizens of the communities in which he has lived, members of his family, school authorities, probation officers, social agencies and others who have knowledge of the essential facts of his past or of his environmental background. To this history the warden, deputy warden, physician, psychiatrist, psychologist, educational director, social worker and chaplain will contribute facts and conclusions derived from interviews, tests and observation.

Expert Direction. In order that the facts so obtained may do more than fill the files with unused information, there must eventually be in every institution a highly trained person of unusual ability—call him a coördinator or what you will—who is capable of seeing that all facts are brought together, digested, interpreted and analyzed, and that they are made available to those officers in the institution who can use single facts or groups of facts in their direction and treatment of prisoners. For example, the deputy warden needs to be supplied with those facts which bear on three

of his major problems: cell assignment, work assignment and discipline. The educational director, similarly, needs to know a great deal about the prisoner's previous schooling, general experience, occupational history, probable occupational future, mental and emotional status, and so forth. The gathering of some of this information, both for his own use and for inclusion in the general social history, may be delegated to the educational director, but his findings should be interpreted in the light of what is obtained from all sources about the prisoner in question.

Diagnosis by the Educational Director. Where the prison is not able to establish a staff elaborate enough and skilled enough to compile a comprehensive social history of every prisoner, the educational director or the teacher will still be able to make a diagnosis of the individual prisoner on the basis of the history which he compiles for his own use. In a prison having the usual staff, without psychiatrists, psychologists, and social workers, he can secure additional information from the record clerk, warden and deputy warden, physician, chaplain, shop foremen and guards. Finally, he can throw further light on the subject by mental and achievement tests.

Tests. Standard mental tests and achievement tests,* which can be given in groups and followed by individual tests when the desirability is indicated by the group tests, are indispensable to the prison educator. They tell him approximately what mentality the prisoner has to build on and what point in the educational scale has apparently been reached. The great variety of specialized tests in reading, writing, arithmetic, spelling, history and so on give him a more itemized knowledge of the man's status. A man who has once been to school and has grown rusty usually shows a spotty record in these tests. He may read well and write

* See Appendix.

poorly or vice versa. He may speak fluently and be virtually illiterate. He may know how to deal with fractions and be weak on long division, or he may be competent in all the processes up to fractions and register a complete blank from there on.

The questionable validity of mechanical aptitude tests is discussed in the chapter on Vocational Education. Tests of all sorts, especially when applied to prisoners, should be viewed as telling us something about the individual that is probably true rather than something that is absolutely and certainly true. It is certain that they cannot be safely used with adult prisoners unless they are supplemented by data obtained by other means and especially by personal interview. An experienced educational director whose personality enables him to draw prisoners out, who knows prisons and prisoners but has not lost touch with the world from which they came and to which they are going on release, can often make a more successful diagnosis of the educational needs of an individual by personal interview than can be deduced from any number of scientific impersonal tests.

Sample Cases

A Promising Case. Let us assume that the educational director learns by mental and achievement tests that Prisoner Jones has slightly more than average mentality and that he has about the equivalent of sixth grade schooling. A personal interview, together with a study of data secured from other sources during the first month of his sentence, shows that Jones is twenty-seven years old; that he was married at the age of nineteen and separated from his wife a year later; that he was a truant throughout his boyhood; that he served one sentence in an adult reformatory, where he took a fair course in printing; that he has never made any attempt to follow that trade and has never held a steady

job for more than six months, with one exception: on one occasion for fourteen months he was employed as a carpenter's helper and left the job only when laid off because of lack of work. Closer questioning reveals that he has on several occasions tried to get a job as a carpenter and that he likes the work. Reference to the details of his achievement tests shows that he is weak in reading but that he has retained the mathematics which he learned in public school fairly well. He says that he would like to take a course in carpentry if it involves practical work and that he is willing to go to evening school to study mathematics and to improve his English to the point where he can read job instructions and simple books and pamphlets relating to the carpenter's trade.

In this case, where one basic fact stands out clearly, it is more easy to make a diagnosis and a prescription than in those cases where the facts are a confused and incoherent jumble. Jones is assigned to the carpenter shop for working experience. Part of his day is spent in the carpentry school on technical training and instruction in related subjects: blueprint reading, the mathematics of carpentry, etc. On three evenings a week he receives instruction in reading in the academic school. He is encouraged but not forced to take the standard course in hygiene, with special emphasis on industrial safety. He gradually begins to take more interest in the activities of the school, and without urging asks permission to attend two additional evenings and to take other courses not directly related to his work. When he is released from the institution on parole, he has not been there long enough to become more than a carpenter's helper, but he has acquired enough technical skill and supplementary theory so that he is likely to be able to find work except in periods of marked depression. He has furthermore acquired stability through focusing, largely under his

own motive power, on one line of activity and sticking to it through a period of many months. He has developed a few intellectual interests, meager but real.

More Difficult Cases. The case cited above is obviously not a fair sample. Here there was a definite vocational interest on which to build. The real problem which the educational director has to solve is that of the prisoner who has average mentality or less, little schooling, no intellectual interests, no pronounced vocational interest or aptitude, and no definite plan for or interest in the future. Such prisoners are present in large numbers in any penal institution. They have little desire for either academic or vocational education. They are likely to be unskilled or, at best, semiskilled workers all their lives. Those who are going to work on farms, in mines, in transportation services, and other activities which have a teachable technique, can be taught something to their advantage and can usually be interested. Those who will enter factories and perform routine machine operations which can be quickly learned by the pick-up method on the job present one of the greatest educational problems.* It is impossible in a penal institution to set up a system of training which can teach the thousand and one mechanical operations which men perform in industrial plants. Individual guidance seems as difficult as individual training.

With this group something can be accomplished. By a series of simple talks, illustrated perhaps by films and slides showing a wide range of occupational activities, the prisoner may be turned from an aimless drifter, who takes a job in any factory where one is available, into a man who has had an interest awakened in some one occupation or locality. A personal interview may help to guide him into the occupa-

* This problem is also discussed in the chapter on Vocational Education.

tion for which he is best suited by previous experience, general ability and temperamental make-up, and may conceivably discover an interest in academic education or vocational training that he did not know he had. He may at least be induced to patch up or fill out his knowledge of the fundamental processes of English and mathematics needed in ordinary life. He can be taught the fundamentals of health, and indirectly can be given some measure of social education.

Basis of Individualization Broad

Diagnosis of educational needs should not be based exclusively on vocational interest or aptitude. A strictly utilitarian philosophy of education, which sees education always in terms of vocational advancement, is not valid for the prisoner just because he so often is an unskilled worker and needs vocational training. A broader philosophy was outlined in the first chapter. The educational director will continually be faced with this problem: "Here is Prisoner Blank. Aside from his vocational needs I recognize in him a need for better intellectual equipment and for new and broader interests. What can I most wisely advise him to study and how can I interest him in it? What does he know now and what is it important for him to know? How far can he go in the time available? Where did he come from and where is he going? Has he the temperament to persevere in subjects that will become tiresome in time? Shall I try to give him a fairly comprehensive education in the fundamentals or shall I encourage him to follow one or two lines of special interest? Shall I aim only at increasing his general interest and competence in life?"

These are considerations distinct from those of vocation but related to them. With prisoners occupational interest is usually found to be a strong motivating factor in educa-

tion. If diagnosis reveals even a trace of such an interest, it will be easier to attract the prisoner to studies that are nonvocational but that can be centered around and tied to vocational training. Prisoners are practical: they ask the question, "What is all this going to get me?" There is nothing ignoble in a desire for vocational advancement. The educational director narrows his vision and his aim, however, when he does not consider it worth while to essay educational possibilities unless he can find strong traces of pay dirt.

Conclusion

Finally, in all our consideration of educational programs we must remember that we are not dealing with "the prisoner," but with individual prisoners. We are not concerned with a composite individual, but with a group composed of individuals who have one thing in common, that they have been convicted of crime, but in whom this common factor does not eradicate other differences so that we can say "*This* is the education the prisoner needs." Criminality, as indicated by conviction for crime, is the symbol common to all the algebraic formulæ that may be used to represent individual prisoners. But if we represent criminality by X the formula for one prisoner may be

$$X(Y + Z)$$

and for another

$$X(Y^2 + Z^3 + W),$$

such potent elements as environmental background, occupational interest, mental status and so on being represented by Y, Z and W. Even if we could write formulæ for prisoners in which only X, criminality, appeared we should have to recognize the fact that X is the unknown quantity and that we have found no way as yet of determining exactly what coefficients and exponents should appear in the formula for any individual criminal.

CHAPTER IV

The Present Situation

WHAT is being done in the fruitful educational field represented by the hundred thousand inmates of our prisons and reformatories for men and women, who are for the most part undereducated adults with some capacity for education and time to devote to it? Taking the country as a whole, we are tolerating a tragic failure. Of all the fields in which the American penal institution gives evidence of futility, education very nearly heads the list. In 1927-28 the writer visited all the prisons and reformatories for men and women in the country, with three exceptions. In the course of a general survey of these institutions he made a special study of educational and library work.* Not a single complete and well-rounded educational program, adequately financed and staffed, was encountered in all the prisons in the country.

EDUCATION IN REFORMATORIES

In a number of the reformatories for men elaborate and fairly well-rounded programs were found. In one or two educational work was meeting with comparative success, but in no instance was it adequately financed or staffed. For the reasons given in a later chapter, in spite of their

* Detailed reports and comments on the various institutions are included in the 1929 *Handbook of American Prisons and Reformatories*, published by the National Society of Penal Information, Inc., 114 East 30th St., New York.

emphasis on education the great majority of the reformatories for men must be charged with comparative failure. The reformatories for women, almost without exception, make education in the broadest sense their aim. They are the most encouraging of all our penal institutions. Where they fail from the educational standpoint it is usually because they do not set up enough educational machinery, while the reformatories for men often fail because they set up too much. The reformatories for men and women are discussed in subsequent chapters; the present chapter deals principally with the prisons.

THE SITUATION IN THE PRISONS

Mediocrity of Educational Programs. As one would expect, it is in the prisons that education sinks to its lowest level. There are about sixty state and federal prisons, counting the state road camp and farm systems characteristic of the southern states as one unit rather than as individual institutions. There is no educational program in thirteen of these prisons: Alabama, Arizona, Florida, Georgia, Idaho, Mississippi, Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, Oregon, South Carolina, the Brushy Mountain Penitentiary in Tennessee, and the Michigan Prison at Marquette. In about an equal number the educational work makes little more than a halting and grudging bow to state laws requiring that every prisoner (with liberal exceptions made by the warden and the industrial authorities) shall be given a third or fifth grade education. In less than a dozen prisons the work is extensive enough or effective enough or sufficiently well supervised to rise above the level of mediocrity. In the remainder, constituting about half of all the prisons in the country, the educational work has little significance in spite of the conscientious efforts of those in charge and the inmates who work under them.

Absence of Vocational Training in Prisons. It is an amazing fact that not one prison has an organized program of vocational education, although many prisons claim with some justification that their prisoners receive vocational training incidentally in the industries or maintenance work of the institution. A few prisons offer scattering vocational courses,* usually conducted by correspondence and seldom with sufficient correlation of theoretical instruction and practical application. The need and the desire for vocational training and its value in stimulating interest in academic education are so patent that the almost complete absence of provisions for vocational education in our prisons is difficult to understand.

Other Gaps in Program. There is also little educational opportunity for the prisoner who wishes to advance beyond the lower grades or who already has education enough to fit him for advanced study. Little is done to offer non-utilitarian, cultural education to the few who desire it and, at the other end of the scale from the practical standpoint, little is done to give health education to the large numbers who need it. The educational work of most prisons, in brief, consists of an academic school closely patterned after public schools for juveniles, having a low aim, enrolling students unselectively, inadequately financed, inexpertly supervised and taught, occupying mean quarters and using poor equipment and textual material.

A Fairly Typical Prison School

Picture a not unusual prison school. A few illiterates are learning to read from a book that tells how Tommy and

* At San Quentin, where Mr. H. A. Shuder is now educational director, vocational courses are being stressed and there has been a large increase in enrollments for correspondence courses in this field during the last few months.

Susie went out to catch butterflies, or that rhapsodizes on the subject of how soft and warm Pussy's coat is. A few strays who are attending school from a variety of motives are studying arithmetic or history or geography from ancient and dog-eared textbooks written for juveniles. A few foreigners are being "Americanized" by being taught that United States senators are elected every six years. A handful of men are studying "vocational courses" in bookkeeping, business English, and show-card writing. The teacher is the chaplain, an underpaid guard, a city schoolteacher who has already done a hard day's work in his own school, or an inmate who got the job because he has somewhat more education than his fellows but who has had no previous teaching experience and is now receiving no training in teaching technique. Study outside of the classroom, if required at all, is pursued in a dingy, one-man cell occupied by two men and lighted by a twenty-watt bulb, or in a noisy, crowded dormitory lighted only by naked bulbs suspended high above the beds. The schoolroom is a dimly lighted, smelly mess hall, a chapel with a sloping floor and stationary seats into which the students are crammed without room for desks or tables, the lower corridor of a cell block, or a room in the basement, in a made-over section of the main building, or in a remote and inaccessible building in the prison yard.

This is a somewhat exaggerated picture, but the writer can take the skeptic to no less than fifty prisons and reformatories where the educational program rises very little, if at all, above these heights. Lest it seem too exaggerated, the following facts are cited with regard to one of the New York prisons: Education is compulsory for all who lack fifth grade education, and they are required to attend school one and one-half hours a day. The standard grades closely resemble those of the public schools and the only

additional courses offered by the institutional school are mechanical drawing and a commercial course. The seven classrooms are in an inaccessible building behind the prison coal pile. The head teacher, a trained schoolman, is paid $2,150 a year; there are no other civilian teachers. Until recently the inmate teachers were paid 1½ cents a day, and they are now paid 5 cents a day. The only real opportunity for advanced work is afforded by correspondence courses supplied by a philanthropic organization. Very little money is spent on educational work and in one year only $46 was spent for new library books.

Specific Instances of Poor Practice

Among the things which the writer has seen in penal institutions in various parts of the country are the following:

History being taught from texts that were published before the World War, and reading from primers published as far back as 1868; seventy-five men of all ages crammed into the only classroom in the prison, seated on backless benches without desks, taught under the district school method by an earnest but untrained chaplain, and searched by guards on entering and leaving the classroom; sixty reformatory inmates in a single room, taught by an untrained inmate under twenty years of age, with a sleepy, stupid-looking guard perched on a high stool in the front of the classroom to keep order; guards conducting classes with hickory clubs lying on their desks; guard-teachers, after a hard day's work in the school, "swinging a club" over their erstwhile pupils in the cell houses and mess hall; a $130-a-month guard in charge of the educational work in a 3,000-man penitentiary; men studying in the prison of one of the wealthiest states in the country by the light of fifteen-watt bulbs; rules forbidding prisoners attending school to have

writing material of any kind in their cells; educational "systems" which consist of allowing prisoners, without guidance, to purchase correspondence courses far beyond their ability and to follow them without assistance; schools that are nothing but dumping grounds for the industries, places of temporary sojourn for men who have not yet been assigned to work, or convenient roosting-places for yard gangs that are called on occasionally to unload cars of coal and other supplies; libraries in which there are not more than a dozen up-to-date books possessing educational value; and so on almost endlessly.

Causes of Failure

The ineffectiveness of the educational programs of our penal institutions is chiefly due to one, many, or all of the following things: The inherent difficulties of the situation; low aim; narrowness of scope; tendency to adhere too rigidly to the content and method of public schools for juveniles; failure to apply modern psychology and educational technique; emphasis on mass treatment rather than on individualization; failure to relate education to life and to relate the various types of education to each other; failure to make use of the coöperation of state and private educational agencies or inability to secure aid from them; the indifference, ignorance or hostility of institutional officials; inadequate financial support; inexpert supervision and teaching; poor physical facilities; poor textual and supplementary material; and poor libraries.

The Chief Weaknesses. The most important weakness, after one considers the low aim which characterizes educational work in penal institutions, is inadequate finances. These two account for the third major weakness, inexpert and inadequate supervisory and teaching staffs, and all three together for poor physical facilities and textual

material. The crux of the matter is the lack of financial support. If special appropriations for that purpose were granted to the state departments of education, it is probable that almost without exception they would undertake the task of supervising educational work in the penal institutions. If the appropriations of the institutions themselves provided for employing high-grade educational directors, the most important single step would have been taken. The provision of proper physical facilities is also a matter of money, while satisfactory textual material and libraries rest on a combination of money and the intelligence that money can buy. The resolving factor in the improvement of educational work will always be personnel, but this is only another way of saying that without adequate funds no substantial progress will be made. Today not a single prison in the country has adequate funds for educational and library work; few have funds that are anywhere near adequate. The reformatories are in a somewhat better situation, but they too suffer from lack of funds, especially for salaries, for their libraries, and for all phases of vocational education. Many of the shortcomings of educational programs cannot fairly be charged to institution officials. Even if they knew how their work could be effectively expanded, they could not pay the bill with present appropriations. On the other hand, our failures can properly be charged in part to those officials who have neglected year after year to ask for funds for educational work and have put the stamp of unimportance and mediocrity on all educational enterprises.

Instances of Accomplishment

In spite of the general weakness of educational work in prisons there are some instances of accomplishment, great and small, that represent substantial progress or encouraging steps in the right direction. Progress being made in the

reformatories is reported in the appropriate chapters. Among the items noted in prisons as having more than local significance, the following may be cited: the educational work at San Quentin and the Wisconsin Prison, described in the chapter on correspondence instruction; the forward-looking program being initiated at the new Massachusetts Prison Colony at Norfolk; the presence of trained educational directors on a full-time basis at San Quentin (Cal.), Menard and Joliet (Ill.), Jackson (Mich.), Trenton (N. J.), the Western Penitentiary (Pa.), the Virginia Penitentiary, and the federal penitentiaries; the advisory supervision given the Virginia Penitentiary by William and Mary College; the service rendered prisons by the State Library authorities of California, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan,* Minnesota, Nebraska, North Carolina, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, South Dakota, Vermont and, above all, by the Wisconsin Free Library Commission; the work of the State Institutional Librarian in Minnesota and the excellence of the institution libraries in that state; the quality of the library service in Delaware and New Hampshire, among the smaller states, and in the Federal Penitentiary at McNeil Island; the supplying of large numbers of free correspondence courses to prisoners by the University of California; the extension courses given by Pennsylvania State College professors at Rockview; the pioneer effort of the State Department of Education in Arkansas to provide educational opportunities at the scattered prison farms; the beginning of educational work for young prisoners in North Carolina; the general expansion of the educational program in the federal penitentiaries; the furnishing of free cor-

* During the present year representatives of the Michigan State Library have done notable work in the establishment of a new library at Jackson.

respondence courses to prisoners by the Welfare League Association; the annual appropriation in the Ohio Penitentiary for free correspondence courses; the initiative shown by the inmates in charge of education in the South Dakota Prison; the correlation of education with the psychologist's department in the Pennsylvania prisons and in New Jersey; the Foremen's Training Conferences conducted at the Ohio Penitentiary under the auspices of the State Department of Education; and the taking over of supervision of educational work at the New Hampshire Prison by the State Department of Education.*

These instances of diverse accomplishment are meager enough. That one who is interested in the broader aspects of adult education should think a fairly successful grade school in a prison worthy of special comment is indication of the low standard by which educational work in penal institutions must be judged.

Future Prospects

A forecast of the future need not be entirely black. Some advance has taken place in recent years, and there is evidence that a new interest in education for prisoners is being awakened. At the 1930 Congress of the American Prison Association, held at Louisville in October, more interest was displayed in the subject of educational and library work than at any other Congress in many years. A Committee on Education was added to the standing committees of the Association. The progress that has been made in the library field is noted in the chapter on The Library. In penal institutions, as elsewhere, the increased emphasis now being put on the education of adults under the leadership of the

* Educational work is now being reorganized and expanded at the Maryland Penitentiary under the supervision of graduate students from Johns Hopkins University.

American Association for Adult Education is being felt. The work of the American Library Association, the Federal Advisory Committee on Illiteracy, and various other local, state and federal agencies is also having a marked effect on penal institutions.

The Federal Program

Most significant, perhaps, of all the progressive steps that have been taken in recent years, because of the influence that it may well be expected to exert on the whole penal field, is the initiation of a comprehensive educational program by the United States Bureau of Prisons. A well-rounded program of academic and vocational education is to be established in each of the federal penal and correctional institutions, and the institutional libraries are to be made effective agencies of education as well as of wholesome recreation. A trained educational director, receiving an initial salary of $3500, has been appointed in each of the institutions for men; the first to be appointed was Earle M. Stigers, whose notable work at San Quentin is described in another chapter. Teaching and supervisory staffs are to be expanded as soon as Congressional appropriations become available. A generous amount has already been spent in each institution on supplies and equipment and temporary classrooms have been developed, pending the authorization of educational buildings and facilities for vocational training. When the United States Public Health Service took charge of the medical work of all federal penal institutions in July, 1930, a definite program of health education was set up. The trained librarian of the United States Industrial Reformatory at Chillicothe, Ohio, is organizing the library of each of the penitentiaries in succession and Civil Service examinations have been announced to fill the position of librarian in each of these institutions. An initial expenditure of

$1500 for new library books, chiefly in the nonfiction field, has been made in each institution, and adequate annual appropriations for the libraries have been provided.

In the Bureau itself one of the four divisions is the Welfare and Education Division; one of the sections of this division is in charge of a Supervising Librarian. Inasmuch as the writer is the head of the Welfare and Education Division, it is difficult for him to view its future impersonally and objectively. It has the resources of the government behind it; it receives the active coöperation of the United States Bureau of Education, the Federal Board for Vocational Education, and other governmental agencies; and it has aroused the coöperative interest not only of penologists but also of educational authorities throughout the country. There is every possibility, therefore, that the hopes of the present administration will be realized: that the program of this division may prove of value to state as well as federal institutions, that the federal institutions may be able to demonstrate how effective educational work can be carried on, and that the results of their experience may be transmitted to state institutions.

Conclusion

In conclusion, educational work in our American penal institutions is still at a comparatively low ebb, chiefly because of its low aim and its lack of financial support. Not only is there need for a more forward-looking and more generous attitude on the part of legislators, but there is also need for a sharper focusing of aims, a redefinition and restatement of the very vague educational and social philosophy which underlies the limited educational programs to be found today in American prisons and reformatories for adults. Hope for the future rests on expert staffs, adequate appropriations, and complete recognition of the validity of

the claim of education to a place in the penal program. Today we have too often in their place inexpert direction, starvation-ration appropriations, and a view of education which allows grade school teaching of little more than the three R's to pass as an educational program. So long as this is true we shall have only the slow and piecemeal progress represented by such sporadic and often insignificant accomplishments as are cited in this chapter. When the concept of liberal education, liberally supported, enters the thought of penal authorities, the first step will have been taken toward meeting the educational needs of the hundred thousand adults in our prisons and reformatories.

CHAPTER V

Fundamental Academic Education

THE major fault of academic schools in our penal institutions is that when they attempt more than work for beginners only they lose sight of the principle of individualization and adhere too closely to the curriculum of the public grade school, either because of a state law requiring that all prisoners shall be given a fifth grade or eighth grade education or because it is easier to copy an existing curriculum than to devise one really adapted to their needs. The result of the effort to give a fifth grade education is usually that the prisoners get a fifth rate education.

Selective Requirements Necessary

As was pointed out in Chapter I, there is no justification for compelling prisoners to go through the routine of the public grade school simply because this is accepted by the outside world as education. They do not need all that the public school teaches and they need much that it does not teach. Not all need the same things. The hours that they spend in classrooms and in study are so few at best that a careful selection of what they shall study is necessary. There is no more disheartening sight than that of a prisoner laboriously learning the parts of speech or fighting over the battles of the American Revolution when one knows that he will probably leave the prison without learning to read and write intelligently or without knowing anything significant

about the historical background of contemporary American life.

Institution educational directors should, as a first step, break away from rigid adherence to public school organization and content. They must say to themselves, "I am organizing courses for adult prisoners, not for public school pupils. What of the standard content and method of the public school is useful to prisoners and for how much of what is useful have they time? How can I give them a thorough grounding in the fundamentals without teaching anything that is unnecessary or leaving out anything that is necessary?" It is probable that a large number of the courses taught in public schools will, on this basis, be offered in the prison but certainly not *in toto* or without discriminating selection of subject matter.

In justification of the complete grade school course recently organized in the Kansas Reformatory for Men, the authorities say that the majority of their prisoners already have at least fifth grade schooling and that employers in Kansas tend to require of applicants that they shall have completed their grade school education. There is validity in the argument for duplicating the public school system under these circumstances, especially if state certificates are issued to prisoners as in Kansas. It is noted, however, that exceptions are so liberally made to the compulsory rule at this reformatory that it is not, in fact, a uniform requirement.

Aim of Fundamentals. In the institution program of academic education we cannot hope to give every prisoner a complete course in the essentials but we should try to give him, so far as possible, what is generally recognized as fundamental. Fundamental academic education is foundation education. Its aim is to equip prisoners with the intellectual tools which they need in the ordinary business of

living, to enable them to carry on study of academic or vocational subjects, and to supply the educational qualifications demanded as a prerequisite for the more desirable types of employment. It is distinct, strictly speaking, from vocational and cultural education, although the aim and content of these types of education permeate it. It will be difficult in a program which is concerned with education of every type to see where the foundation leaves off and the structure itself begins.

The Time Element. How much or how little fundamental academic education should be given any prisoner depends on his individual capacity, needs and interests and the time at his disposal, not on preconceived notions of what general requirements for all prisoners are desirable. The time element especially must be considered. It is a mistake to think that prisoners have "all the time in the world." Many of them have short sentences. They are not likely to progress rapidly during the early weeks of their terms, when they are making a difficult adjustment to prison life, nor during the last weeks, when the well-recognized nervous tension preceding release sets in. Throughout their sentences much of their time is taken up with work and other routine. The hours which can be devoted to education are few and are often allowed grudgingly by the officials. The opportunities for classroom instruction or for effective study in crowded and noisy living quarters are limited. Lights go out in most penal institutions at 9 P.M. or earlier. While they are on they are usually too dim to study by, although the educational work at San Quentin flourished in cells "lighted" by 15-watt bulbs.

Other Factors. Because of the limited time available, if for no other reason, we must pare the curriculum of fundamentals down to the bone and must eliminate anything that can be dispensed with. If we hope to build anything on

the foundation we have to race on as rapidly as we dare through the fundamentals. We must also take into account the inertia that inevitably settles on the adult when he is faced with the processes which he should have completed as a child. The curriculum of fundamentals must again be cut down until everything that remains has real significance for the prisoner. He has a right to rebel at tiresome drill in the parts of speech when by greater stress on practice in reading and writing he could be learning to use the parts of speech properly. He has a right not to be interested in memorizing the number of soldiers engaged in the Battle of Gettysburg.

Necessity of Drills. We cannot dispense with drills, of course. The prisoner must work hard at the same drills that the child goes through, learning new words by sheer application, drilling on spelling and faults in grammar, and learning multiplication tables by monotonous repetition. These drills, however, can be motivated for the adult more easily than for the child. Also, fortunately, the adult can complete these fundamental processes more rapidly than the child. He has adult concepts, he understands more of what is read and said to him, he has heard correct and incorrect speech for years even if he could not distinguish between them, and he can be shown, for example, why an automatic knowledge of four times seven is necessary. With an adult understanding of what the study he is undertaking may mean to him, he can apply himself for longer hours than the child to monotonous drills and can act as his own teacher. On the other hand, he is more critical of what is offered him than the child would be. For the adult prisoner elementary drills must be based on adult subject matter or he will balk at them; they will not hold his interest and he will escape from school as soon as possible.

Specific Aims

What, then, are the specific aims of academic education in the fundamentals, aims that we may reasonably expect to achieve in a prison?

English and Mathematics. The first is to provide every prisoner with a minimum set of necessary intellectual tools:

1. Ability to read simple English, such as is used in ordinary letters, newspapers, elementary academic or vocational texts, pamphlets or notices relating to such subjects as health, safety and government, job instructions, directions relating to such mechanical factors in everyday life as automobiles, radios, gas meters, furnaces, etc.

2. Ability to write simple English, such as is used in the personal or business letter.

3. Ability to speak simple English correctly.

4. Ability to perform the mathematical processes needed in ordinary life, such as those involved in problems of pay, rent, purchases of groceries and clothing, expenditures for street car fares, taxes, etc., and those processes fundamental to all calculations used in trade and business. (Specifically, these mathematical processes probably need not go beyond decimal fractions and percentage problems.)

History and Allied Subjects. To these fundamentals, which are the three R's in adult garb, may be added a second group which goes beyond the primary "tool subjects" and aims to prepare the prisoner for a more understanding and more coöperative life in a specific country, the United States. This group of fundamentals is designed to impart:

5. Knowledge of the fundamentals of the history, government, geography and civic ideals of the United States.

Science. It may be urged that in this highly mechanized age a knowledge of general science is as important as a knowledge of American history and vastly more practical.

Considerations of time justify omitting all but introductory courses in science from the list of prime fundamentals, together with many other subjects that may be considered essential. Some knowledge of science can be given indirectly in the teaching of English by a proper selection of material for practice reading; in the teaching of mathematics by the use of facts of science in problems; in the teaching of history by discussing such subjects as steam and electricity, modern manufacturing and agricultural machinery as they have affected the development of the country; and in the teaching of geography by stressing such subjects as the development of modern transportation and its mechanical equipment.

Introductory Courses. Prison officials and laymen will admit without argument the propriety of including the subjects under (1) to (5) in any list of fundamentals. There is another group of courses whose claim to inclusion will not so readily be admitted. This group is designed to impart:

6. Knowledge of what the major fields of human knowledge are and what may be found of interest and value in them.

These courses, which are discussed at length in the chapter on Cultural Education, are introductory courses in such fields as science, literature, the history of mankind, economics and sociology. They are not designed to impart comprehensive knowledge of an advanced type, for this is manifestly impracticable with the mass of prisoners. Nor are they to impart condensed knowledge in outline form. They are expected only to introduce prisoners to new fields and to show what can be found in these fields if one cares to explore them. Their purpose is to give a glimpse of what lies beyond the fundamental tool subjects, to give what is called in pidgin English a "look-see." To carry out the foundation analogy, they may be called blueprint

courses: they outline what may be built on the foundations. Courses of this type are as fundamental as the tool subjects, if we accept the fact that a knowledge of what the world of thought has to offer, at least, is an essential part of any intellectual groundwork. As Sir Michael Sadler says of the student in search of a liberal education, "Education . . . should open windows in his mind, so that he may see wide perspectives of history and of human thought."

Study Beyond the Prime Fundamentals. In the above outline of fundamental academic education the effort is made to write the specifications for a bare foundation only. It is not by any means intended that all prisoners should limit their education within the prison to these courses or that all can complete them. Every man should be given the opportunity for as much education as he can assimilate. Some prisoners, actuated by interest, pride, desire to continue formal schooling after release, or desire to secure a position which demands a grade school or high school education as a prerequisite, wish to fill in the gaps in their public schooling or to review work which they have covered years before. Complete grammar school and high school courses can be secured at small cost from university extension divisions and can be followed under adequate supervision. Textual material well adapted to the use of adults can be obtained from these courses. It will probably not be necessary for this group, however, to cover every step in the public school curriculum in order to meet their requirements. If there are enough prisoners in the group desiring a complete course to justify it, classroom work can be provided along the lines of the standard public school curriculum, but individual work in supervised correspondence courses is likely to meet their needs satisfactorily.

Groups Needing Fundamentals. The prisoners who are proper candidates for courses in the fundamental academic subjects include several groups:

1. Foreign-born illiterates.
2. Native-born illiterates.
3. Those whose formal schooling has been limited.
4. Those who have grown rusty in what they once studied.
5. Those who have learned by experience since leaving school but whose learning is of the patchwork variety.

Prime Considerations. Of the fundamental subjects English is unquestionably of prime importance. Of the prisoners who need instruction in English the illiterates command our first attention and, of the illiterates, the foreign-born who understand and use English imperfectly or not at all should be our first concern.

CHAPTER VI

The Teaching of Illiterates

OF the large numbers of prisoners who need instruction in the fundamentals of academic education, the illiterate group properly commands our first attention. Illiteracy is variously defined. According to the federal census standard, an illiterate is a person ten years of age, or older, who admits he cannot write. According to the Army standard, an illiterate is a person who cannot write his own letters and read the newspapers. From the practical point of view an illiterate is one who is unable to read and write simple English understandingly.

Extent of Illiteracy Among Prisoners

Under either the second or the third definition it is probable that 25 per cent of our adult prisoners must be rated as virtually illiterate. This includes native illiterates, foreign-born illiterates who are unable to read and write in any language, and foreign-born who can read and write in their native language but not in English. The foreign-born group must be again divided into those who can speak English and understand spoken English in some degree, and those who can neither speak nor understand it.

A prison educational program must concern itself with all these groups. How large the total number of illiterates in any prison is depends largely upon the region from which it draws its inmates, as does the distribution among the various types. Institutions where there is a large percentage

of negro inmates show a high rate of illiteracy and, generally speaking, the prisons of the South show a higher degree of illiteracy for both white and negro prisoners than do those of the North. A study of 2500 inmates of the Virginia Penitentiary, State Farm and Road Camps showed that 877, or 35 per cent, had attended no school and that nearly another 35 per cent had failed to reach the fifth grade. Institutions in states which have a large foreign-born population naturally show a higher degree of illiteracy in English than those in states which receive few immigrants. In very few prisons, however, are there large numbers of foreign-born who neither speak nor understand English. The prison problem is primarily one of educating the native illiterate who cannot read and write, whose speech is crude and whose vocabulary is limited, and the foreigner who can at least speak broken English and can understand simple speech fairly well.

Arousing Interest

Difficulty. The desirability of educating illiterate prisoners needs no arguing, especially in view of the nation-wide campaign against illiteracy being undertaken at the present time more intensively than ever before. Unfortunately, it is not as easy to interest this group in education as one would expect it to be. The foreign-born usually show some eagerness to learn how to speak English, at least. Because of pride, indifference, inertia, and inability to read bulletins and announcements, the native illiterate is often slow to recognize and to take advantage of his educational opportunity. An intelligent-looking mountaineer in one of our federal penitentiaries recently said, "I don't need to know how to read and write. My wife has all the larnin' our family needs." Another said, "Yes, sir, I've learned right smart since I come here." The records show that the latter left the

institution school as soon as he had learned to write his name. It is difficult to convince a man who has got on successfully, as he thinks, for twenty-five or more years without knowing how to read and write that it is worth the trouble to learn. Appeals to his pride are not likely to prove effective, because he so often comes from a section of the community where illiteracy does not involve loss of caste.

Methods. If the illiterate prisoner does not respond to the first appeal to attend school, he should be urged periodically and efforts to enlist his interest should not be quickly given up. The writer believes that compulsion should be used sparingly in the prison educational program, even with the illiterate group. We are probably justified in applying indirect compulsion in one way, by making literacy or an honest attempt to overcome illiteracy a prerequisite to parole. Information that this requirement is made by the parole authorities will circulate through the institution more rapidly than any other argument in favor of attending the prison school. Intelligent and persistent efforts to enlist the interest of prospective students and especially demonstration by actual results that it pays to go to school are a more solid foundation than compulsion for persisting interest and self-motivated effort. Standard publicity methods found effective in attracting illiterates to schools in the world outside should be used in the prisons. Use can be made of films, slides, posters, and other visual material to stimulate interest. To those who understand English verbal appeals may be made; posters in various foreign languages will catch the attention of those who read their own language but not English. The best advertisement of the prison school, however, is the prisoner who has learned something there and who feels and expresses satisfaction at what he has learned.

Testing and Grouping

Many prisoners who are actually illiterate are recorded as literate. It is not safe to accept the prisoner's statement on this point, nor can evidence of schooling be accepted as evidence of literacy. He may have had very little schooling, or it may have been in a poor school, or so many years may have elapsed since his school days that he has forgotten everything he ever learned. Literacy tests,* graded as to difficulty, should be given every prisoner soon after he is admitted to the institution. These, with personal interviews and a study of the institutional records, will show what the prisoner's status is and into what group he falls. Classes should be organized so that each will be as nearly homogeneous as possible. In grouping the foreign-born the background of the pupils should be taken into account. This is not in order that they may all speak the same language. It is necessary to correct a misapprehension held by many inexperienced teachers, that the teacher of a class of foreigners needs to know their language. This is not necessary; in fact, lack of knowledge of the language will prevent his making one of the most serious errors, that of turning the teaching process into one of translation. The teacher should know the background of his students, whether they are from Southern Europe or from the mountains of Kentucky, in order that he may establish a close bond of sympathy and understanding with them and may properly select teaching material on the basis of what they already know and have experienced. There are many background books from which

* As a guide in making up test material for illiterates the New York State Regents Illiteracy Tests will be found helpful. Old copies of these tests can be obtained in limited number by application to the State Department of Education in Albany. *Rejall's Thirty and One Reading Tests* (Noble and Noble, 76 Fifth Ave., New York City—50 cents) contains Regents tests and other useful material.

he can acquire this knowledge, and experience in teaching successive classes will acquaint him with the backgrounds of typical racial and sectional groups.

Class Organization

No class should contain more than twenty students unless it is absolutely necessary; classes of ten or less students are desirable, since a large amount of teaching must be individual. Instruction must take place under conditions which enable the members of the class to participate freely without interference with other classes. The prison which finds it necessary to use the mess hall or auditorium for most of its educational work should find some way of putting illiterate classes in individual classrooms; the lower corridor of a cell house should never be used for classes of beginners. The whole group will be required to read words and sentences in concert, and individual pupils, who are often seriously embarrassed before even the members of their own class, should not have to recite or go through the actions demanded by the dramatization method of teaching in a large room where other classes are within sight and hearing.

Special Technique Necessary

The prison teacher or educational director who has had no experience in this field should not suffer from the illusion that because the subject matter dealt with is simple in form the teaching of illiterates is a simple type of teaching. It involves a highly specialized technique and calls for teachers of more than ordinary ability and training. When finances permit the expert in the teaching of illiterates should be one of the first added to the teaching staff. After the illiterate is enrolled he can usually be held only by convincing him that the work has real significance, that it is

not merely kid stuff or an official device for giving idle prisoners something to do. The teacher of these students must be patient, sympathetic and thorough. He must be resourceful in juggling his teaching material to reduce monotony and in adapting it to individual backgrounds, needs and interests. The teaching material must be varied, based on adult concepts, and related always to the real interests of the students. It is particularly true of the foreign-born illiterate that what he is taught must possess immediate and practical value.

Suggestions to Inexperienced Directors

The best advice one can give to an educational director who is not himself experienced in the teaching of illiterates is: (1) that he call on state and national organizations interested in the problem of illiteracy for advice and assistance; (2) that he secure the aid of experts from the state department of education or from the nearest large city in making a preliminary survey of the illiterate group in the prison and in setting up a program for them; (3) that he request state or city educational authorities to make the services of an expert supervisor of teachers available on a part-time basis; and (4) that he secure the best available material on the subject and study suggested methods with discrimination, using those which seem to him most applicable to the particular group of illiterates with which he is dealing.

The New Manual for Teachers

The most useful manual ever prepared in this field is now available. It is the *Manual for Teachers of Adult Illiterates,* Bulletin No. 2 of the National Advisory Committee on Illiteracy. It was prepared by Dean William S. Gray of Chicago for the Subcommittee on Techniques of

this committee. Free copies of this manual will be supplied in reasonable quantities. They may be obtained by application to the office of the Committee, in care of the Department of the Interior, Washington, D. C. A list of the state committees that are participating in the widespread drive on illiteracy may also be obtained from the National Advisory Committee and any penal institution can rely on its own state committee for advice and assistance. Because of the thoroughness with which the manual has been prepared no discussion of the detailed technique of teaching illiterates is given here.

The manual, which should not be confused with Bulletin No. 1, a manual of tentative suggestions, is divided into three parts. Part I is concerned with general problems of interest to all teachers of illiterates, such as the organization, administration and supervision of illiteracy classes, the qualifications and preparation of teachers, the steps that are appropriate in enlisting the coöperation of the public and the interest of adult illiterates, problems relating to class organization and management, the specific aims of instruction for illiterates, and the periods or levels into which it may be divided. Part II discusses the content and method appropriate in teaching native illiterates. The needs of English-speaking foreign-born illiterates are also considered in these chapters. Part III discusses the instruction appropriate for foreign-born illiterates who are unable to speak English. Two editions of the manual will be published, the first consisting of all three parts and the second of Parts I and II only.

The subjects dealt with in the manual are reading, oral and written expression (including handwriting), spelling, arithmetic, and problems of personal and social adjustment. It contains a wealth of specific material for the teacher, for example, the carefully worked out lessons and course

outlines in the various subjects. If it has any weakness, it is that the need of basal reading texts is indicated while the titles of few suitable texts are listed. This is a shortcoming which will be felt especially in prison schools, where reliance must be placed on teachers of little experience who cannot be expected to show as much ingenuity and resourcefulness in adapting textual material as the trained teacher, and who will not be as successful in following even a fairly elaborate outline of lessons. One feels indisposed, however, to level even the slightest criticism against a manual which so admirably meets the needs of teachers and organizers in one of the most difficult of all educational fields.

Other Manuals

Although they are now superseded by the new manual, two bulletins of the United States Bureau of Education dealing with the problem of adult illiteracy will be found useful to the teacher as supplementary material. These are: Bulletin No. 8 (1925), *Elementary Instruction of Adults*, and Bulletin No. 27 (1928), *Helps for Teachers of Adult Immigrants and Native Illiterates*. Suggestions of value in the teaching of both native and foreign-born illiterates will be found in convenient form in *Suggestions for Teachers in Elementary Evening Schools*, a bulletin published by the Detroit Board of Education, in Whipple's *Course of Study for Non-English-Speaking Adults* (University of the State of New York Bulletin No. 885, obtainable from the State Department of Education at Albany), and other publications too numerous to mention.

Achieving Literacy Only First Step

Practically all of our prisons and reformatories for adults make some attempt to reach their illiterate inmates. Many reach only a small percentage, however, and set so low a

standard of achievement that the prisoners drop out of school when they have achieved only the barest minimum degree of literacy. Too many penal officials apparently are satisfied when the prisoner is finally able to sign his name and read a few simple sentences. It is questionable how valuable this achievement is, taken by itself. Of how much value is it that a man can sign his name to vouchers which he can neither read nor understand if they are read to him? If we are to compel or induce illiterates to take the first difficult step along the educational path, we are justified in doing so only because we are going to try to interest them in continuing their education beyond the mere rudiments. A child may as well never be encouraged to creep if he is not eventually to walk. The illiterate must not be allowed to feel that he has accomplished all that is expected of him when he has learned to read and write the most rudimentary English. Achievement of the minimum of literacy should merge without a jar into the next step. He should be encouraged to go as far along the educational path as his ability and the time at his disposal permit.

"To insist that any individual will become his better self," says Albert Mansbridge in the *New Republic,* "through learning to read, write, or count, is in itself unsound. Many, indeed, who have so equipped themselves have fallen into pits they would otherwise have avoided. Even so, the dangers inherent in these extended powers must be faced on the assumption that man can control their use as instruments. So the illiterate adult becomes the material of extended education. The campaign for eliminating his defects in this respect is heartened by slogans such as those current in China: 'Everyone able to read in a generation'; 'If you cannot read you are blind.' "

CHAPTER VII

English and Arithmetic

IN spite of the large amount of suggested material bearing on the teaching of English and arithmetic to be found in the new manual for the teacher of adult illiterates cited in the last chapter, it is deemed desirable to include here a discussion of these subjects without particular reference to that manual. In addition to those considerations which are of general significance in the teaching of elementary subjects to adults, there are certain considerations which are of special importance in the prison field. It will be noted also that it is difficult to say where the student ceases to be an illiterate; it is probably best to think of English and mathematics as unitary subjects in which the teaching of the illiterate merges into that of the advanced beginner.

The Teaching of Reading

Of all the subjects that may well be taught in the prison reading holds first place in usefulness and desirability. Without ability to read progress in other studies, both academic and vocational, is barred to the prisoner. He may get along in life with imperfect and restricted speech. He may never have occasion to write a letter as long as he lives. But if he cannot read he is indeed a "poor, ignorant man." If, with limited time at our disposal, we had to choose some one thing to teach any unschooled man we would probably say, "Teach him to read."

Extent of Inability to Read. The inability of huge numbers of American adults in and out of prison to read simple English is a cause of grave concern. During the World War over a million and a half soldiers and sailors were given tests requiring "ability to read and understand newspapers and to write letters." The results showed that 24.9 per cent of the men tested were unable to read and write well enough to perform these simple tasks. Burgess points out, moreover, that "this deficiency was not caused by their never having learned to read. The fact is that an overwhelming majority of these soldiers had entered school, attended the primary grades where reading is taught, and had been taught to read. Yet, when as adults they were examined, they were unable to read readily such simple material as that of a daily newspaper." * The problem of teaching reading, therefore, is much more complex than figures on illiteracy indicate.

General Method. A continuation of the general methods employed in teaching reading to illiterates must be used with those who are ready to go on to more advanced reading and those who, when they enter the prison, are somewhat above the level of absolute illiteracy. It is necessary to base reading lessons on sentences couched in simple language and to make use of familiar material. Words, phrases and sentences must be repeated over and over long after they become monotonous.

Lack of Suitable Texts. After a while, however, the rudimentary drill stage is passed and the class begins to read complex sentences and connected paragraphs. When this stage is reached the teacher will begin to look for suitable reading texts. There are few entirely satisfactory

* Quoted in Gray and Munroe: *The Reading Interests and Habits of Adults.* Macmillan, 1929.

elementary readers for adults.* The teacher is fortunate if he finds any text that can be used from cover to cover. Sections of some readers which are designed primarily for foreign-born students can be drawn on for material, as well as extracts from easy "first books" in various fields. A few classics in fiction have been converted into simple language for the use of beginners. The teacher should use a variety of sources selectively, choosing material which will suit his class and rejecting what is unsuitable. By using mimeographed lesson sheets he can combine material taken from a half-dozen sources. The dearth of textbooks that are entirely suitable for the use of the adult is no bar to providing ample material for practice reading. The prison teacher is urged, with the more advanced pupil as with the illiterate, to construct reading material especially for his class and to rise above dependence on textbooks.

Homemade Material. Above all things, the juvenile reading texts found in so many prisons should be thrown into the discard. The adult, especially the adult prisoner, is not interested in the adventures of Tommy and Susie. There is no excuse, even with the beginner, for using a reading lesson which says, "This is a cat. It has four legs." The same model can be followed and reading lessons devised in which the drill sentences are rather, "This is a new Ford. It has four-wheel brakes." All authorities advocate the use of reading material drawn from familiar sources: the calendar, posters, public signs, advertisements, want ads, postal money order blanks, telegraph forms, time-tables, etc. With a little exercise of ingenuity one can find a plentiful supply of everyday subject matter with which the prisoner is entirely familiar and which he wishes he could read.

For example, the prison teacher goes to a local automobile dealer and gets one of the large illustrated charts

* See Appendix.

which advertise the new models. This chart is thumb-tacked to the blackboard or to the wall. A reading lesson is then mimeographed on the following lines:

This is the 1930 Blank.
There are six models.
The models are the coach, sedan, roadster, etc.
The model marked No. 1 is the roadster.
It can go seventy miles an hour.
It costs $1,600.

This indicates the type of reading lesson which can be developed from material obtainable in the smallest town. The words on which the drill is to be given must be repeated over and over again, but they can be combined in new, interesting and significant sentences, and in continuous paragraphs for advanced beginners. The same sort of drill can be given by sentences describing a typical radio or sound picture installation or an aeroplane design, illustrated by diagrams clipped from the *Scientific American* or some trade journal. Reading drills for men employed in the prison shoe shop, for example, can be based on illustrations of machines taken from a United Shoe Machinery catalog. Reading lessons of this type possess reality for the adult. Such classics as Æsop's Fables make useful practice reading material, but the adult is less interested in the fable of the foolish grasshopper than in a fable about the foolish workman who removed the safety guard from his machine.

A Prison Vocabulary. A complete prison vocabulary should be made up and mimeographed. A variety of drill sentences and reading lessons can be devised to teach prisoners to read (and also to write) the words which they use in their daily conversation and in their letters, and which continually recur in prison rules, warning signs, official announcements, regulations governing mail and visiting privi-

leges, and so on. If the prison courses in reading and writing did not go beyond the development of a working prison vocabulary the expenditure of time would hardly be justified. The prison is the prisoner's community, however; the vocabulary of that community is as important in his life as the words store, street car, subway, and help wanted are to the man outside. Lessons early in the course which make use of such words as cell house, laundry, brick plant, wall, warden, guard, parole, deputy, grade, solitary, mail and visitors will convince him of the immediate and practical significance of the reading course, and will encourage him to progress to subject matter related to life in general. "Inside" and "outside" reading material should be well mixed and offered contemporaneously, but the former can well be used to catch the prisoner's initial interest.

Commonly Used Words. As a guide to the teacher in the selection of "outside" words on which to construct reading drills there are several well-known lists of commonly used words.* Among them are the Ayres list, Horn's list, the Thorndike Word Book, and a convenient list of 4000 commonly used English words published by the Adult Education Interstate Bulletin.** The last-named consists of elementary, intermediate and advanced lists, bound together in a small pocket booklet which can be purchased in lots of one hundred or more for eight cents each. These booklets are so inexpensive and so convenient in form that they can well be issued to the prisoners. The value of such lists in making up spelling drills as well as reading lessons is obvious.

Advanced Reading. After the prisoner has advanced beyond the elementary stage, it is still difficult to find read-

* See National Advisory Committee on Illiteracy Bulletin No. 2.
** Address Adult Education Interstate Bulletin, P.O. Box 10, Capitol Station, Albany, N. Y.

ing texts that are satisfactory from cover to cover. It is not good practice to make use of whole books, even such interesting and exciting standard works as *Treasure Island* or *The Tale of Two Cities*. These books, as classroom material, do not grip the average prisoner as we wish they might. The slow reader cannot get through books of ordinary length fast enough to keep up his interest. It is better practice to select detached fragments representing a large variety of subjects and literary styles. Here is an opportunity to teach history, geography, government, hygiene, and science at the same time that one is teaching reading. Simply written texts on each of these subjects are available and readers for adults usually contain selections from all these fields. Extracts can be mimeographed and the triple aim of giving practice in reading, increasing interest through variety, and adding to the student's stock of general knowledge is achieved. There is danger, to be sure, in using fragments, and the teacher should be careful to see that brief reading extracts are so elaborated by class discussion or by other means that they do not seem meaningless and unrelated.

Newspapers. Among adults who can read, newspaper reading is very nearly universal. The daily newspapers are an especially rich source of reading material both for beginners and more advanced readers. For beginners news items are revised, simplified and broken down into the usual repetitive drill sentences, the original text being read to the class in conclusion to show where the drill is leading. With advanced readers news items are mimeographed or the clippings themselves are issued to the class, individuals being given a choice of various items. A few of the many news items appearing in the last year which would be suitable for the prison class are accounts of trans-Atlantic and endurance flights, the flights of the Graf Zeppelin, the destruction

of the R-101, Madame Curie's visit to the United States, Admiral Byrd's flight over the South Pole, the Wall Street crash, the unemployment crisis, and the naval conference. Items of this sort stimulate interest in fields of knowledge worth exploring: history, science, economics, and so on. Whenever the language of the newspaper article is too complex for the group being instructed, the teacher should not hesitate before mimeographing it to change the language into simpler form. A list of questions for discussion may well be appended to each reading lesson. Examples of questions prompted by the items mentioned above include: "For what is Madame Curie famous? What is radium? For what is it used? Why is it so valuable?" "What men have been to the South Pole?" "What men have been to the North Pole?" "What is the aim of polar exploration?"

Periodicals. The Literary Digest and *Current Events* supply a wealth of reading matter. Outlines for class discussion can be obtained from the publishers. *Time,* while it is sophisticated in tone and uses many bizarre words, contains interesting material and can be simplified by the teacher if necessary. *The Pathfinder* publishes similar matter written in more simple style. The text of the *National Geographic Magazine* is not suited to any but the more advanced students, but use can be made of the pictures and more simple captions can be written for the beginners' group. Gift or subscription copies of this magazine go to nearly every prison. The library of the Minnesota prison has interesting scrapbooks made up of pictures cut at random from the *National Geographic.* These are circulated among the nonreading prisoners, who enjoy looking at pictures. It is easy to see how the addition of simply phrased captions would convert these scrapbooks into illustrated readers.

Sporting News. In addition to news of the more respectable type, the prison teacher should not hesitate to make use of accounts of baseball games, prize fights, automobile and horse races, fires and other news which has little to commend it except that the prisoners are likely to spend the rest of their lives reading exactly that sort of news. It is true that this type of reading is on a very low plane. We can salve our consciences by eliminating the crime news, but we cannot afford to defeat our aim by an ostrich-like attitude. We may as well face the fact of what makes up the interests of most of our prisoners. They will practice reading the sporting news and similar items when they will avoid reading anything else. We cannot teach them to read good things until we teach them to read. After all, the material suggested does not fall far below the plane on which the majority of adult Americans read, in prison and out of prison.

Advertisements. Prison teachers or those to whom the task of constructing textual material is delegated should continually study newspaper and magazine advertisements. Many of them must be rejected, in spite of their excellent illustrations, because their language soars into the clouds on the wings of rhetoric. Others are relatively simple in style and are useful not only for practice in reading but also as a stimulant of interest in science, travel, industry and other fields. The Pennsylvania Railroad and the New York Central Railroad from time to time publish advertisements, especially in the *Saturday Evening Post,* which have striking illustrations and text that is eye-arresting, interesting and informative. These advertisements suggest another source of reading material which is often recommended: ordinary railroad time-tables. Any text which combines practice in reading words and reading numbers is valuable. Time-tables have the additional virtue that they are especially interesting to prisoners. Most prisoners are not going anywhere for some time but most of them wish they were and they like to look up trains. This type of reading material is cited because it illustrates the principle that we should not neglect a single opportunity to seize on the real interest of the prisoners. It is by such means that we prod them through the monotonous drills which are a necessary part of their training.

Textbooks. By stressing the value of improvised reading material the writer does not wish to belittle the value of a thoroughly good textbook. Prisoners, in common with other adults, enjoy reading from a book more than from a mimeographed sheet. When there are not enough copies of any book to go around the class, it is good practice to let pupils read occasionally in turn from the one copy available. If this is done aloud, the reader should face the class instead of facing the teacher and should be required to read distinctly so that the rest of the class will be participating, at least through the ear. No pupil should be allowed to read long; it is better to allow a number to read briefly. The teacher should not interrupt the reader with constant corrections but should, with the help of the class, point out errors when the reader is finished, emphasizing common errors by blackboard, chart and flash-card drills.

Silent Reading. Silent reading, with oral and written recall, is more useful and more natural than oral reading, when the lesson is properly conducted. The content of silent reading material is recalled by questions and answers, filling in blanks in sentences (note the method of the New York Literacy Tests), oral expression of the subject matter read, and brief written compositions. Rapid blackboard and flash-card drills ensure comprehension and retention of new or troublesome words.

Part of Unitary Process. It should be emphasized, in conclusion, that the teaching of reading does not take place separately from the teaching of writing and correct speech. From the illiterate to the advanced student, the pupil is trained in reading, writing and speaking English at the same time. Drills in spelling and grammar are a part of the course in reading as well as of the course in writing. When they are given in their logical place in these courses they become significant steps in the learning process and no longer seem conventional academic exercises.

Instruction in reading offers the best opportunity for incidental instruction in other fields. In the choice of subject matter, however, it should be remembered that prisoners are intolerant of "preachy" reading material. Our desire to give them information and advice as we teach them to read must not be too obvious. They will read a current newspaper article on thrift or the care of the teeth with greater interest and respect than similar articles from a reader. They are adults, after all, and do not like to admit, even to themselves, their ignorance of common subjects.

The Teaching of Writing

In a large penitentiary the writer recently saw prisoners copying over and over the sentence, "I love my teacher," the teacher in question being a blue-jowled individual doing twenty-five years for burglary. In another prison a class in writing was being taught by an old counterfeiter, whose pupils were learning to write with elaborate shadings and curlycues which could not conceivably prove useful to anybody but a writer of ten-for-a-quarter visiting cards at a county fair. The basic principles violated in these instances need no comment. Practice writing material should be adult in tone and interest. Writing should never be allowed to degenerate into meaningless and impractical exercises. The

teaching of writing to adults has a double aim: (1) to teach them how to form legible letters and how to combine them into legible words, and (2) to teach them to express their everyday thoughts in writing. The first is largely a straight mechanical problem; the second is more complex.

The Mechanics of Writing. In teaching the mechanics of writing to the prisoner exercises in the frills and niceties of penmanship are a waste of valuable time. The aim is not to achieve a copperplate hand but to write well enough so that what is written can be read. Too many prison courses in writing are long on flourishes and short on mastery of a large number of words. Too many are taught by inmates who are superior penmen but mediocre teachers; it is better that they be taught by mediocre penmen who are passable teachers. A few weeks spent on thorough and well-organized drills in penmanship will give as much skill as is required for ordinary needs. Adults learn to write more rapidly than children because they have better motor control. In the final stages of writing practice, speed as well as accuracy should be emphasized. Writing with a pencil or pen and ink on paper is of more value than writing on the blackboard; the latter is a type of writing seldom used outside of schools. It is true that the student will probably exercise more care when writing on the blackboard where his fellow-students can see his work, but the stimulus of pride can be utilized by thumb-tacking to the board samples of improved writing. Standard writing scales not only measure progress but also supply lesson material.

Composition. When the beginner has passed beyond the stage in which his practice is largely mechanical exercise in letter formation, he should be drilled in copying sentences, phrases and words, in writing from easy dictation, and in simple original composition. Drill of this sort is also a component part of the reading course. The most inter-

esting and most useful type of composition for adults, and especially for prisoners, is the personal or business letter. Most prisoners will have little use for any other type of writing. They want and need to learn how to write letters home,* letters to attorneys, request slips to the warden and other officials, applications for parole, letters to prospective "first friends," applications for jobs, requests for letters of recommendation, and so on. After release the writing of the great majority is confined to personal and business letters and to filling out forms and applications.

Practice letters in the writing course should have practical value and local as well as individual significance. Those suggested in standard texts or correspondence courses are often inapplicable to special individuals and groups. The inmate of a Western prison who has always worked on a ranch or in a lumber camp should not practice writing letters asking for a position as clerk in a New York commercial house. In practice letters, moreover, emphasis on form must not be allowed to overshadow content. The letter writer should be taught that *what he writes* is of even more importance than *how he writes.*

Spelling and Grammar. Through all the stages in the teaching of writing, drill in spelling and in the basic principles of grammar should be incidental to the process rather than instruction in a separate compartment. A certain amount of this drill is necessary and it is difficult to see how monotony can be avoided except by the exercise of moderation. Employing lists of words frequently used and of those commonly misspelled will make the minutes devoted to spelling instruction count. Meticulous drill in the parts of speech should be avoided. It is unnecessary and deadly.

* Foreigners who are literate in their own language usually prefer to write home letters in their native tongue and emphasis on other types of letters is necessary to interest them.

The object of instruction in writing is not to teach one how to tear a sentence into shreds and analyze its component parts. Correct grammatical usage in writing can best be taught by constant practice in writing, with brief intensive instruction at the end of the course in the principles already mastered by practice. We must not aim too high. An important objective has been reached if the prisoner is finally able to write a reasonably coherent and reasonably legible letter, even if it contains many mistakes in spelling and grammar.

Advanced Writing. The teaching of writing is not to be confined to beginners. The "white collar men" who are employed in the offices of the institution should be given all the training they can assimilate in correct business English. When they look for positions after release they will need all the technical knowledge at their command to compensate for the handicap of having a prison record. Many prisoners who have a fairly good education can profit by instruction in English composition and will enjoy it; their needs can often be met by university extension or other correspondence courses in English. There are, moreover, in every prison a number of men who aspire to become writers. The mail censor's desk in some prisons is deluged with manuscripts which the prisoners wish to mail to magazines for publication. There is something in the reality of their bitter experience which causes them to wish to express themselves in writing. A number of prisoners have magazine articles and books to their credit. Even those who can never write anything worth publishing should be encouraged in this form of self-expression.

Conclusion. Writing is primarily a "tool subject." Tests given when the prisoner is received at the institution will show how much skill he has in the use of the tool. Instruction should begin with the individual at the point where it

is needed and should be carried on until at least the minimum skill, ability to write English of the grade of the personal or business letter, has been achieved. In many cases teaching writing will be largely a matter of removing rust and renewing old skills; progress in these cases will be rapid. Frequent retesting will prevent waste of time on unnecessary routine. No more time than is absolutely necessary should be spent on writing as a mechanical exercise. The teaching of writing as composition, on the other hand, may be carried on throughout a prisoner's sentence.

The Teaching of Spoken English

Instruction in spoken English is a major project with non-English-speaking prisoners and a minor project with the great majority of prisoners, who already speak English. Its aim is clearly defined and not too difficult of achievement: to teach all prisoners how to make themselves understood in the simple English of everyday life and, beyond that, to go as far as time and other considerations permit in correcting errors of speech, extending the vocabulary, improving pronunciation and enunciation, stimulating thought, and encouraging self-expression.

Improvement of Speech. The intensive teaching of spoken English in the prison will be confined largely to the non-English-speaking groups. For those prisoners, either foreign-born or native, who already speak English well enough to meet their everyday needs the problem is primarily one of improving their speech. With this group, as with others, only a minimum of instruction in formal grammar is desirable. This can be given in a short, intensive course which has little to say about the parts of speech and a great deal about common errors of speech. Standard language and grammar tests can be used to advantage in determining what instruction is needed. The task of speech improvement

is not the burden of the "English department" alone, but of all teachers in all departments. Correction properly takes place when the error arises and is as unobtrusive and natural as possible. Students who show need of special training should be referred to the teacher in charge of an intensive "course in common errors."

With adults who have fixed habits of speech the process of correcting grammar, pronunciation and enunciation is slow and irksome. The teacher will have to decide for himself in each case how nearly the gain is worth the time it costs. He need not be slovenly in standard but he should ask himself occasionally, "How could this man be using his time to better advantage if he were not being drilled on double negatives? How important will a few aints be in the steel mill?"

Increasing Vocabularies. Vocabularies are increased both by reading and by direct instruction. An effort should be made to see that new words become a part of the speaking vocabulary whether they are learned in reading and are transplanted or are consciously implanted by word lists and new-word drills. The use of lists of "commonest words" is also effective here. Every prisoner should be supplied with a dictionary and should be instructed in its use. There is a constant demand for dictionaries in all institutions, largely as spelling aids in letter writing.* The prisoners appreciate their practical value and can be taught to make more general use of them. The definitions must be very simple in form or they will present more difficulties than the word defined.

Public Speaking. A few institution schools have opening or closing exercises, graduation exercises, courses in public speaking, forums and debates. These all have value in

* The 4000-word list mentioned above is also useful for this purpose; its cheapness makes wholesale distribution possible.

speech training if they are not stereotyped. When the student delivers his own material rather than a memorized speech or recitation it has the added value of stimulating thought and opening an avenue to self-expression. Debates are especially worth while and may well be arranged so informally and with so little opportunity for preparation that the participants are encouraged to think and to use their own words rather than to parrot those of others whose thoughts they have been reading.

In conclusion, it should be remembered that oral English is a necessary part of the teaching of both reading and writing. Adults who read poorly and express themselves with difficulty in writing may compose orally with some fluency. They should be led to do so in order that they may have the encouragement that comes from expression through one avenue at a time when other avenues seem full of pitfalls and obstacles. Oral expression is a part of all teaching: the student speaks what he reads, speaks what he writes, speaks what he thinks.

The Teaching of Arithmetic

As a "tool subject" arithmetic is of prime importance, not only in business and the skilled trades but also in daily life. Every institution should provide opportunities, either by classroom or correspondence instruction, for prisoners to go as far as they wish in the study of all branches of mathematics. The fundamental course in arithmetic, however, need include only those processes used in ordinary domestic and occupational computations. The prisoner after release needs to know how to perform the arithmetical computations involved in such problems as those of figuring pay, computing personal and family expenses, making purchases of groceries and clothing, paying rent and taxes, meeting installments on his car or radio or furniture, and

the problems that arise in occupations that are not highly technical. Training in the fundamental processes of arithmetic through decimal fractions and percentage should ordinarily suffice. Anything beyond these fundamentals can well be considered special instruction and will usually be given as part of a vocational course.

Tests should be given when the prisoner is received at the institution and only as much instruction in arithmetic as each individual needs should be required of him. As in the case of reading and writing, with many prisoners teaching arithmetic is largely a process of removing rust. There should be frequent retesting not only to measure progress but to avoid unnecessary drill on processes which the prisoner learns or recalls more quickly than others.

Avoidance of Juvenile Material. The basic method of teaching arithmetic does not differ materially for juveniles and for adults, but juvenile texts should never be used with adults unless the problems are carefully reworded. The devices by which children are lured through monotonous drills have little appeal for the adult. He must be convinced at every step that the work is worth doing; the best way to accomplish this is by relating drills to practical adult problems and interests. It takes little more time and effort for the teacher to tie even as elementary a drill as addition to something that has significance. Let an occasional column to be added consist of the amounts a man spends in the course of a month for clothing, rent, food, amusements, and doctor's bills, and he appreciates the value of being able to add it. Inexperienced teachers often attempt to give arithmetic adult interest by dealing with huge figures. Problems dealing with numbers running into the billions should be avoided. Numbers of this size are seldom met in ordinary computation; drill on them has no value except to train in

concentration. This is offset by their harmful effect in making arithmetic seem unreal and overdifficult.

Adult Problems. Samples of practical problems for adults are the following:

"My pay is fifty cents an hour for an eight-hour day. I have worked sixteen days this month. On three days I got time and a half for overtime, working an extra three hours each day. How much have I earned so far this month?"

"My gas meter registered 7600 cubic feet on the first of the month. Today it registers 9400 cubic feet. At $1.30 a thousand, how much is my gas bill today? How much will it be for the month at that rate?"

There is no end to the problems that relate to business, the trades, industry, and other occupational pursuits. The better arithmetic textbooks, especially those designed for the teaching of shop mathematics and business arithmetic, are full of problems of this type. Throughout the teaching of arithmetic stress should be placed on problems involving weights, measures, distances, cubic contents, speed, costs, time and so on. The ingenious teacher will improvise interesting problems based on current events, those relating to speed, for example.

Visual Devices. Simple visual devices have been found effective in the teaching of arithmetic as in the teaching of reading and writing. Some texts contain graphs and illustrations which are useful in visualizing ordinary mathematical problems, especially those involving fractions. The Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction publishes a useful booklet on blackboard technique in teaching mathematics. Flash-cards are used in the teaching of all processes. For example, in review drill flash-cards bearing two numbers to be added, subtracted or multiplied are displayed in rapid succession, individuals or the class in concert being required to give the correct answer instantaneously. This is more

rapid and more effective than writing the numbers on the blackboard. Home-made flash-cards are entirely satisfactory.

Necessity of Drills. However successful we may be in injecting interest into the more advanced arithmetic problems, there is no getting away from the fact that many of the fundamental drills in arithmetic will be doubly monotonous to the adult. To do any arithmetical problem quickly and correctly an automatic and accurate knowledge is required of the basic addition, subtraction, and multiplication tables. No beginner in arithmetic is so old that he can dodge the drills of the beginner, but they can be and must be motivated.

Necessity of Being Specific. In the attempt to motivate the study of arithmetic by tying it to vocational courses or occupational interests there is danger of being too general. Time is wasted with the vocational student if he is given a general course in shop mathematics, for example, instead of relating it to the specific trade being studied: printing, sheet-metal work, or plumbing. Even a study with as general applicability as arithmetic should be specialized and individualized.

CHAPTER VIII

History—Government—Civics—Geography

MUCH of the subject matter of American history, government, geography and civics will be taught indirectly in English courses, where it is used as lesson material. But the prison curriculum should go beyond this: it should offer to every prisoner either separate courses or a combined course in the fundamentals of all these subjects. Comprehension of the America in which we live—its historical background, its people, its physical characteristics and their effect on the people, its governmental organization and civic ideals—is an essential foundation of intelligent citizenship. It is fallacious to think that we train citizens merely by teaching them how to cast a ballot; we train citizens by giving them understanding of their country, how it happened to be what it is, how it is developing and why, what it offers to its citizens and what it demands of them, and by inculcating through this knowledge an intelligent desire to be coöperating parts of the whole that is contemporary America.

History and Government

American history and government should not be taught as separate subjects. The study of government is an inseparable part of the study of history: the struggles of the early colonists to establish a workable democracy, for example, constitute the most significant part of our early history. For the prisoner the government course does not

properly involve a detailed study of the framework of government, studded with such facts as that the Postmaster-General receives an annual salary of $15,000. It involves a broad, general survey of how local, state, and federal governments are organized, what services they render the citizen, what his duties and responsibilities are to governments, what their strong and weak points are, and how we happen to have arrived after three hundred years of experimenting and testing at the particular forms of government which we now have. Government can best be taught historically. To understand the office of governor, for example, we need to go back to the Colonial governor and to trace the decline of his power, the period of legislative supremacy, and the later period of returning emphasis on executive responsibility and leadership. A study of the Constitution involves tracing its development, either starting at the beginning and working forward or at its present state and working back.

Use of Current Events. It is needless perhaps to say that both history and government can be taught from current events,* with the newspaper or news reel as a starting point. The teacher who is well informed and resourceful can take a current news item on a record-breaking transcontinental flight and can give it a rich background: the opening of the West in the covered-wagon days, the extension of railroads, the growth of cities and the expansion of agriculture, the development of aviation, governmental promotion and control, the effect of quick transportation and communication on sectional interrelations and on national homogeneity, the effect of speed on our national life, and so on. In this type of treatment of a single exciting event it is possible to cover a wide range in the fields of history and government.

The idea should be emphasized that history is being

* See also the sections on reading in the preceding chapter.

made today. Current news of political campaigns, strikes, disarmament conferences, Senate fights over the tariff, Wall Street panics, visits of fliers from other countries, and visits of foreign statesmen will prove interesting and instructive in themselves and can be used to vitalize the teaching of history. The relation of matters of contemporary interest to their historical setting can be shown: great reclamation projects and the development of the West, farm relief and the growth of agriculture, radio regulation and the development of modern modes of communication, the building of new transatlantic liners and maritime history, naval disarmament and warfare, negro migrations and the history of the South.

History To Be General. In the teaching of American history to prisoners, remembering always the brief time that can be devoted to any one subject, we must draw a general picture rather than a detailed one. We must deal with whole periods rather than years. Minute details, on which the older school histories drill so inexorably, are to be avoided and only a few key dates need to be emphasized. It is not as important to learn that an event took place in a certain year as to learn what led up to that event, what it led to, and what its significance is in the complete historical scheme of things.

Units of Study. Instead of teaching history in exact chronological order, we can break the course logically into such units of study as the following: the wars in which the United States has taken part, their causes and their effect upon our national development; great figures in American history; the commercial development of America; the history of the melting pot; the history of transportation; the development of the West; the history of political parties. There is no one fixed method of teaching history. It can even be taught backward, beginning with the America of

today and working back to Colonial days and the period of discovery and settlement. We want our prisoner-students to interpret and appreciate the America in which they live rather than the America of 1820, 1850 or 1880. The acquiring of information about preceding periods is not merely an academic exercise aiming at the storing up of facts, but an illumination of contemporary American life.

Textual Material. There is a large number of texts for the teaching of history and government on orthodox lines. Many of them are written for junior high school and high school students, but they can be used with adult prisoners if they are selected discriminatingly and if selective use is made of the textual material. If a textbook of this type is used it should be supplemented liberally by a variety of other material, especially of the visual type. Full use should be made of slides, motion picture films, stereographs, and other pictures. Such books as *We and Our History* and *We and Our Government* are illustrated to an unusual extent, although the text needs to be simplified. *The Pageant of America* is richly illustrated and well written. Charts and outlines which give the high lights of history in graphic form are available from many publishers. Large display sheets such as *The Constitution at a Glance* and *A Chart of the Organization of the Government,* the latter distributed gratis by the National Cash Register Company, are especially useful in review.

Correlated Reading. Finally, correlated reading under proper direction should supplement all teaching in this field. Those who read easily can learn history and government in an interesting way by the reading of autobiographies and biographies. Any competent librarian can supply lists of historical novels which are entertaining and instructive reading. So far as possible the teacher should make sure that whatever is acquired by correlated reading is fitted into the

complete teaching plan. Individual reports and class discussions will bring the reading of one man to the whole group, and will bring out the significance of what is read.

Civics

Civics is properly taught as a part of the study of history and government. It involves a study not only of the mechanics of citizenship but also of the responsibilities and privileges of citizenship. Its aim, in brief, is to implant civic ideals, knowledge of how these ideals can be expressed in a man's daily life, and desire to express them.

The Mechanics of Citizenship. There is need in the prison of a brief intensive course in what is commonly called civics. Citizenship courses of this type are usually designed primarily for the foreign-born. We may safely assume, however, that a large majority of native-born adults have almost as great need of "Americanization." This course should give, among other things, definite instruction on such points as how to take out citizenship papers,* how to register for voting, how to vote, what the usual elective offices are, and so on. It should be remembered that any man can learn more about the mechanics of voting in five minutes when he is face to face with a polling booth and a ballot than he can learn in a classroom hour. The average man, moreover, needs not so much to know how to cast a vote as for whom to cast it. For prisoners who have lost their citizenship because of conviction for a felony there should be instruction in how to regain it. In this connection, the prison director of education will do well to avoid wasting effort by finding

* Useful material can be obtained from the Bureau of Naturalization, Department of Labor, Washington, D. C. The *Federal Textbook on Citizenship Training* published by the Bureau is available only to public school pupils and cannot be obtained directly from the Government Printing Office for use in prison schools.

out how many of the foreign-born prisoners are to be deported on completion of their sentences.

The brief course in civics for the prisoner should not aim too high. It is impossible to teach the Constitution, for example, to those who can read only simple English or who understand spoken English with difficulty. Nothing should be included in the course which is not comprehensible and practically useful. Even the best standard texts must be used selectively by the prison teacher. We are too prone to try to explain the whole mechanism of our complicated governmental machine instead of being content with showing the prisoner how to shift gears, so to speak.

Civic Ideals. On the other hand, instruction in civics is hardly worth giving if it is merely a course in mechanics. We must try also to implant civic ideals. This, in common with other efforts having a moralistic tinge, is difficult to accomplish. But it is worth more to teach a prisoner why petty rural or ward politics, as commonly practiced in the very communities with which he is familiar, is contrary to good government than to teach him how to register for voting. He must be taught that good citizenship is expressed in his home, on his street, and in his place of work more concretely than in a polling booth. We do not need to preach about it; we defeat our purpose if we do. By use of homely illustration, however, we can at least show what constitutes good and bad citizenship.

Most American adults, in prison and out, need less instruction in citizenship than our weighty discussions of civic morals assume. They know well enough what good citizenship is; the difficult thing is to get them to practice what they know. No course of instruction has yet been devised which accomplishes this feat. Some progress can be made in bringing about an understanding, if not an acceptance, of civic ideals by class discussions, in which prisoners join

with engaging fervor; stimulating talks by outside speakers of proved ability; directed reading, especially of biographies and autobiographies; and a study of the development of our national ideals as a part of the study of American history.

In the last analysis, civics is not an academic subject; it is a study of the group morals or ideals of men living in interdependent relationships with other men. It is the inculcation of civic ideals, taking this term in its broadest sense, that we are aiming at in the whole prison program. All our instruction, direct and incidental, should lead toward that end. If history and government are well taught, the student will learn what the ideals of the good citizen are. If general academic education is effective it will open avenues of comprehension for abstract moral concepts as well as concrete facts. If vocational education is more than mechanical the prisoner will gain some appreciation of what makes the working world a livable place. If his daily life in the prison is on a socialized basis he will have an opportunity to put civic ideals into practice. But making them so much a part of his daily life that they will carry over into free life is a task not to be accomplished by any known course of formal instruction. It will rather be accomplished, if at all, by a combination of all the influences brought to bear on him in the prison and all the educational opportunities offered him. The teacher and the textbook may implant ideas; the whole program of the institution must somehow implant ideals.

Geography

At first glance, devoting time to the teaching of geography to adult prisoners seems hardly justified except from the standpoint of interest. It has traditionally been looked on as a juvenile subject in spite of the stimulus which travel, exploration, and aviation have given to adult interest in

geography. Only recently has it been dignified by being given a place in university curriculums.

Its Aim. Geography, properly taught, is one of the most important of the studies that have social value. As commonly given in penal institutions, instruction in geography is merely a poor imitation of geography classes for children in the public schools, with certain concessions to the knowledge which adult prisoners have of the country and of the world at large. This is fatal to the realization of its aim. The prison geography course should not aim merely at achieving ability to bound Utah, to give the products of Brazil or to tell where Little Rock is. It should aim at imparting a knowledge of the chief characteristics of the peoples of the world, their modes of life, attitudes of mind and relations to other races, and how they have been affected by geographical factors. It should be taught so as to show the interrelation of the earth's geographical features and the human individuals and races who people the earth. It is concerned with human beings in their physical setting, not merely with the setting itself. One of the primary aims of education for the prisoner is to increase his understanding of human beings, himself included, and of human motives, impulses, habits, tendencies and development. The study of geography helps to illuminate mankind, because man is inescapably a part of his setting and the physical world tends to control, accelerate, or retard his development.

Significance of Geographical Features. A study of the geography of the United States should not only acquaint the prisoner-student with the physical features of the country but should also bring understanding of what effect oceans, lakes, forests, rivers, mountain ranges, fertile plains and deserts have had on our national life, what the characteristics of various sections of the country and their peoples are, how our national resources are being developed, what

the great systems of transportation are, where our chief commodities are produced, how our great cities have developed: in brief, what the United States is like, geographically considered, and how its geography has affected us as individuals and as a nation. An important consideration is that of how the peoples of geographical sections of the country differ in their opinions, their manner of living and their mental attitudes. The East and the West in the United States are less important as geographical regions today than they were in pioneer days. They are important, however, as regions having political differences and divergent developmental interests. The mountains of Kentucky are of interest because they have perpetuated in the people who live among them a characteristic mode of living that harks back to the early days of America. They have even produced a particular type of violation of the law. It is this sort of fact that makes geography a social study.

A Condensed Course. It is desirable that the prison curriculum include such specialized courses as those in commercial geography. It is probable these courses will usually be offered in connection with a general commercial course or as a supplement to a course in navigation, sales management, transportation or some other vocational course. It is recommended, therefore, that one brief course in general geography, making large use of films, slides and other visual material, be offered and that it be condensed to the lowest practicable limit.

Visual Material. The use of visual aids in the teaching of geography is discussed in Chapter XV. It is necessary here only to emphasize the warning that geography is not necessarily being taught when a travel film is shown. To be really educational, the film must be only one part of a well-organized teaching plan. Geographical material can well be made a part of the weekly moving-picture program so

that every prisoner may see it. If this is done, it is suggested that the films and slides be chosen with emphasis on the vocational opportunities offered by various sections of the country. Many ex-prisoners are migratory birds by compulsion. They are a part of the great army of transient labor without which many crops would not be gathered and many ores not mined. A knowledge of geography from the employment standpoint has definite and practical significance for such men. It must be realized that a large number of subjects having educational value for the whole inmate population will compete for places on the weekly movie program and that geography will have to share the short time available with health films, if nothing else.

Texts. It is further recommended that the material of what is called social geography be worked into the courses in history and government and into the combined course recommended hereafter. The writer knows of no text which is entirely satisfactory as a social geography for adult prisoners. It is safer to put a well-illustrated standard geography in the hands of the student and to give the teacher several additional geographies written from the socialized viewpoint to be used as supplementary teacher's texts. A number of geographical readers will also be found useful by the teacher in the preparation of teaching material and, in part, for class work. It is to be hoped that some day a geography which combines the rather abstract viewpoint of the social geography with the concreteness of the standard type will be written for adults. In geography, as in other subjects, the ingenious teacher must be relied on to devise his own textual material. The newspapers are an ever-fresh geography text. The publications of the National Geographic Society and the American Geographical Society, such periodicals as *Asia* and the *Illustrated London News,*

and even the rotogravure sections of the best newspapers will prove useful aids.

Displays: However much or little geography is taught, there should be on display somewhere in the prison educational department striking material to stimulate interest in geography: travel posters such as are now distributed gratis by railroads and steamship lines, descriptive pamphlets issued by state and local chambers of commerce, time-tables, and so on. This material is eye-arresting and informative. The posters can be effectively displayed in a central corridor through which all prisoners pass on their way to the classrooms. Pamphlets and time-tables can be issued from the school library as periodicals are. (The value of the humble time-table as a beginner's reading text has already been stressed.)

Special Bookshelf. A special shelf of exploration and travel books and other books and magazines dealing with geographical subjects can be arranged in the library, where reading lists and reading courses in the subject should also be available. In view of the fact that there is likely to be only very limited formal instruction in geography in any prison, full use should be made of the possibilities for informal and indirect instruction.

Combined Course in American History, Government, Civics and Geography

The prison educational director is faced with the necessity of giving to every prisoner who lacks it, within a limited time, the elementary knowledge of American history, government, civic ideals, and geography which is an essential part of his fundamental education. Courses in each subject or in certain phases of each may be offered but the primary aim can most economically be achieved by a combined course in the four subjects. Only an indication of how such a course

TEACHING OUTLINE OF THE EARLY COLONIAL PERIOD IN AMERICA

History	*Government*	*Geography*	*Civics*
The Massachusetts Bay Colony. The Virginia Colony. Who the colonists were: their background; why they came to America. Their early struggles, successes and failures. History of colonies in as much detail as feasible.	Form of government colonists left behind. Forms they established. Different forms in Massachusetts and Virginia. Why? Communistic experiment in Virginia. Why it failed. Comparison of colonial governor and present governors; of legislative bodies.	The geography of New England, of Virginia and South Atlantic region. Effect of climate, etc., on colonies. Their products. Reasons for different developments in agriculture, industry and commerce. Type of colonist attracted to each region. Differences in peoples today.	Family and community life in the colonies. Civic virtues emphasized by colonists. What ideals and standards of conduct seem outworn today? Are they? What influences of colonial days are seen in present-day ideas? Were people better citizens then?

can be outlined is given below. The teacher can carry out the idea by first making an outline of a condensed course in American history as he proposes to teach it and then asking himself three questions on each period, trend or event to be discussed:

1. What facts relating to government can be brought out in connection with it?

2. What geographical features are significant in relation to it?

3. What civic machinery or civic ideals can be illustrated by it?

A brief sample of how an historical period can be treated in a four-part outline is given on the preceding page. No attempt has been made to suggest more than a few of the possible topics under any of the four headings. It will prove stimulating to let the class suggest topics for such an outline and to prepare one on a given period. The planning and teaching of a combined course of this type obviously calls for an exceptionally well-informed and resourceful teacher with a flair for stimulating and leading discussion and a keen eye for illustrative material. The principles and methods to be followed in the teaching of each subject separately have the same validity when the subjects are combined into one course.

CHAPTER IX

Vocational Education

VOCATIONAL education is that type of education which gives training designed to assist an individual to earn his living. It includes training for the professions, agricultural education, home economics training, commercial education, and education for the trades and industries. In current educational parlance the old industrial arts and manual training courses are considered a part of general rather than vocational education. The federally-aided state program operated under the National Vocational Education Act (Smith-Hughes Act) passed in 1917 is confined to agriculture, trades and industries, and vocational home economics, all of less than college grade, and the training of teachers in each of these fields.

The Extent of Vocational Education

In practically every field of human endeavor some provision has been made for vocational training by private or public agencies. The trend in vocational education today is toward rendering more service to adults. One of the most important things accomplished by the passing of the National Vocational Education Act was the inclusion of adults among the group to be served at a time when the idea of adult education was comparatively new. Under the stimulus of this act vocational education has expanded tremendously in America in the last decade. It is estimated that by the end of 1935 there will be a total of more than 3,400,000

persons taking training in public vocational schools of the kind provided in the Act.* For these students more than 72,000 teachers will be required. Of the students more than 1,600,000 will be male and probably more than 1,800,000 female. They will be distributed somewhat as follows: in industrial and trade courses, more than 1,800,000; in agricultural courses, more than 600,000; in home-making courses, more than 1,000,000. Taking into account public vocational schools which are not reimbursed from federal funds, extension work in agriculture carried on by land grant colleges, the work of private business colleges, the day and evening schools conducted by the Y.M.C.A. and similar associations, the huge enrollment in correspondence schools, corporation schools, and schools operated under the auspices of organized employers and organized labor, it is estimated that before 1936 there will be a total of 7,000,000 people in the United States receiving training for some occupation.

Absence of Vocational Education in Prisons. In view of this expansion it is a cause for wonder that our prisons, especially those bedevilled by problems of idleness, have not established programs of vocational education. As a matter of fact, in the prison field we must theorize about its possibilities, for no prison in the country has a program of vocational education worthy of the name and in no prison is the industrial and maintenance work definitely organized to provide vocational training. In our prisons training for occupations is given only incidentally in the industries, on the prison farm, or in the various maintenance details. Occasional prisoners are taking vocational courses by correspondence, but almost without exception they choose their courses without guidance, pay for them from their own funds, and study

* Lee (ed.): *Objectives and Problems of Vocational Education*, pp. 426-7. McGraw-Hill, 1928.

them without assistance from the prison authorities. There are a few exceptions to this general rule of letting prisoners work out their own salvation, but they are found in prisons handicapped by their industrial organization, by lack of funds, and all the other obstacles which balk vocational education.

Reformatories for Men. Reformatories for men, in contrast with the prisons, usually set up fairly elaborate programs of vocational education and make the training of the inmates one of their main objectives. Only a few American reformatories have succeeded in establishing well-balanced and effective vocational training programs. Among the chief causes of the failure of the majority to do so are that they prescribe vocational instruction on the mass-treatment basis rather than on the basis of individual analysis and guidance; that they rely too heavily on unit trade schools and emphasize the skilled trades to the neglect of other occupations; that their trade schools often have meager or out-of-date equipment and teach obsolete or vanishing trades; that their instructors are usually underpaid and often incompetent; that too great emphasis is placed on routine practice drills and too little on participation in practical work; that they are not permitted to establish a variety of productive industries and other enterprises having training value; that those industries which are established are far below the standard of similar industries outside; that insufficient emphasis is placed on the necessity of approximating outside working conditions and the standards of competitive trades and industries as to quality, speed and accuracy; and that, in general, the program is not organized to provide a proper correlation of theoretical instruction and practical application on productive or useful work.

Reformatories for Women. Reformatories for women have a better opportunity than institutions for men to set

up successful programs of vocational education because the work of the institution provides training in so many occupations which women can enter after leaving the institution. The training which they offer, however, is too often incidental rather than organized. Their salary schedules ordinarily do not permit them to employ enough trained instructors. They necessarily emphasize home-making occupations to the exclusion of the trades and industries. Their productive industries are usually limited in scope and their trade and industrial education is confined to very few occupations, in many cases to only one: power machine sewing. Largely because of the lack of opportunity to offer practical experience, they are notably weak in their programs of commercial education, in spite of the fact that the proportion of women to men in commercial pursuits is steadily increasing. Notwithstanding their shortcomings, the reformatories for women, speaking generally, are more successful in providing vocational education than either the prisons or reformatories for men.

Its Value for Prisoners

The case for vocational education in penal institutions need not be argued. Laymen and prison officials alike accept the fact that it is needed; their only question is whether or not it can be successfully carried on and whether or not the expense which it involves is justified. If it could be demonstrated that a considerable number of prisoners were turned from crime by being given adequate training for satisfying and lucrative positions on release, the question of expense would be answered. In spite of the conservatism of state legislators and executives a successful program of vocational education would undoubtedly secure public support and approval. The educational slogan most frequently heard from laymen is, "Teach the prisoner how to earn an

honest living." People advocate vocational education for prisoners who are not interested in any other type of education, except perhaps the education of illiterates. If a program worthy of the endorsement of reputable leaders in a state is set up in a penal institution, it is probable that appropriations can more easily be secured for it than for any other branch of the penal educational program. The problem is how to get started.

The cause of vocational education for prisoners, especially in reformatories, has suffered because of the exaggerated claims that have been made for it and the unjustified hopes that have been held out for it. It is folly to think that we can make a useful citizen of any harum-scarum boy by teaching him plumbing or electrical wiring, or that the adult drifter who has stuck steadily to nothing except petty crime all his life will immediately become a hard-working and law-abiding man because he has been taught typewriter repairing. We can only hope that the chances of their taking steady employment and leading law-abiding lives will be increased if we give them the means of earning an honest living and perhaps arouse some interest in a useful vocation. Aside from its own value vocational education has marked value as a means of stimulating interest in general education. Many of the fundamental processes, especially of mathematics, which a man needs in his daily life have no interest for him until he sees that they are a necessary part of training for a job. The man who has never felt any regret over his inability to read a newspaper or magazine may take a course in reading in order to be able to follow job instructions.

Difficulties and Essentials

As was pointed out in the chapter on The Student Body, it is a generally recognized fact that the great majority

of prisoners is vocationally untrained. But it will probably be a long time before penal institutions can establish complete programs of vocational education in spite of the economic and social waste that might be prevented. This is especially true of trade and industrial education. The cost of buildings and equipment for trade instruction, the salaries of skilled instructors and directors, and the establishment of industries and training projects represent appropriation items which state legislatures are slow to pass. Many of our institutions are already suffering seriously from the problem of idleness because of conservative state policies. Proposals to increase industrial facilities to meet this condition are concerned less with those industries which have vocational training value than those which will show profits in dollars and cents. One of our most persistent fallacies is that profitable production and vocational training are incompatible.

Another fallacy is that it is sound business policy for a state to operate industries which show large profits because they can utilize large numbers of unskilled workers in the quantity production of one or two products. Examples of such industries are the garment factories to be found in so many of our penal institutions. Let us assume that such an industry shows an annual profit of $100,000, which is a high figure. Ten ex-prisoners who might perhaps have been turned from crime by training in a worth-while occupation may easily commit depredations in a year totalling over $100,000. One of them may take a human life whose value is immeasurable. The one-industry institutions and those concentrating on get-rich-quick industries may show impressive financial profits, but these are usually more than balanced by the social losses involved in failure to fit men for free life.

For the development of a well-rounded program of voca-

tional education in the penal institution the following things are needed:

1. A diversity of productive industries having vocational training value, organized and operated as nearly as possible in accordance with the standards of outside industries.

2. A complete agricultural program, based on the scientific principles of modern agriculture.

3. Reorganization of the maintenance details and insistence on better methods, skilled supervising personnel and modern equipment so that these details can be used for instruction.

4. A variety of special training projects to supplement industries and maintenance work.

5. A diversity of vocational schools and courses, well organized and staffed with a trained personnel.

6. Provision for instruction in subjects supplemental to and related to vocational training, and in subjects needed as ground work for vocational courses.

7. Provision for individual vocational guidance, correlated with placement and follow-up after release.

8. Complete correlation of theoretical instruction and practical application, with readjustment of the institutional program to permit a proper division of time between instruction and participation in productive or useful work for training.

9. Acceptance of standard methods and objectives.

10. Sufficient funds to make attainment of these objectives possible.

The problem of finances is of paramount importance. Unfortunately, none of the federal funds available for the promotion of vocational education under the Smith-Hughes Act can be used in "schools and classes designed for the benefit of delinquent, dependent, incorrigible, defective, or otherwise subnormal youths or adults." The foregoing is

quoted from a definite ruling of the Federal Board for Vocational Education (Bulletin 17, p. 94). While penal institutions cannot ask their respective states for Smith-Hughes funds, they can benefit indirectly from the Act. In the establishment of a trained personnel, the determination of content and method, and the formulation of desirable standards for an effective program of vocational education, the federal-state programs have rendered valuable assistance to penal institutions and to all other agencies undertaking vocational education. Every year more and more trained teachers and directors are being produced under the federally-aided program. They are residents within the states and, although penal institutions do not come within their field, they can be relied on for informal assistance. Some of these trained men can be lured into the penal field. The textual material, expert job analyses, and teaching methods which they employ can be directly transferred to the penal institutions. The types of organization which have become standardized can be used as models.

Trade and Industrial Education

Trade and industrial education, one of the most important of the vocational education fields, need not be defined exactly. The policy of the Federal Board for Vocational Education is to list all occupations not distinctively commercial, agricultural or home-making as trade or industrial pursuits. Practically all the types of organization set up under the Vocational Education Act can be successfully followed in penal institutions, with some modifications necessitated by the fact that the federally-aided program is concerned for the most part with the younger workers. This fact does not affect the basic plan of organization, which supplies a convenient starting point for adaptation.

Types of Organization

In the federal-state programs * six types of trade or industrial schools or classes may be organized, as follows: (1) Evening industrial. (2) Part-time trade extension. (3) Part-time trade preparatory. (4) Part-time general continuation. (5) Unit trade (commonly known as day trade). (6) General industrial (in cities under 25,000).

1. *An evening industrial school or class* is designed to give instruction in a particular trade, supplemental to the daily employment, to persons who have entered upon employment in that trade or industrial pursuit. For example, an evening industrial school for employed plumbers and plumbers' apprentices could be established to give these men instruction in plumbing shop practice; in blueprint reading for plumbers; in state and local rules and regulations for plumbing installation; and in other allied subjects, all related to the plumbing trade. The instruction would be given in the workers' leisure time outside the hours which constitute the regular working day.

2. *A part-time trade extension school or class* is designed to give instruction to persons who have entered upon the work of a trade or industrial pursuit, to fit them further for useful employment in the trade or industrial pursuit in which they are employed. The federal standard requires that instruction must be given for not less than 144 hours per year. In this type of school or class the plumbers or plumbers' apprentices mentioned above might be given the identical instruction set forth for the evening class but this would be considered part-time work if it were given during the hours which constitute the regular working day.

* See Bulletin No. 17, Federal Board for Vocational Education. Much of this Bulletin is here quoted almost verbatim.

3. *The part-time trade preparatory school or class* is designed to give instruction to persons who have entered upon employment, this instruction to be such as will fit them for useful employment in a trade or industrial pursuit other than the one in which they are employed. Here again the federal standard requires instruction for not less than 144 hours per year. In this plan of organization the work mentioned above for plumbers might be given within the hours that constitute the working day to a group of men employed as janitors, messengers, manual laborers, farm hands, and in other occupations except plumbing, the instruction being devised to prepare for entrance into the plumbing trade. The work of a part-time trade preparatory class would seldom, if ever, coincide with that of a trade extension class dealing with the same trade. The function of such instruction is to serve as an entering wedge, to be followed later by part-time extension work.

4. *A part-time general continuation school or class* is one designed to give instruction to persons who have entered upon employment, the instruction being in subjects which enlarge the civic or vocational intelligence of workers. This is the type of organization customarily found in states whose laws compel young workers to continue their education after entering employment. The principal educational objectives are (1) employment adjustment, (2) vocational and educational guidance, and (3) social adjustment.

5. *The unit trade school or class* is one designed to fit persons for useful employment in a particular trade or industrial pursuit through instruction devoting not less than half the time to practical work on a productive or useful basis and extending over not less than nine months (thirty-six weeks) per year and not less than thirty clock hours per week. For instance, when a group of persons not yet employed attend an all-day school or class for the purpose of preparing for entrance into the printing trade, and when the instruction given in both shop and related class work is based solely upon printing trade needs, this constitutes a unit trade school or class.

6. *A general industrial school or class* in the federal program is one designed to meet the particular needs of cities or towns of less than 25,000 population as an alternative to the establishment of a unit trade school, on the assumption that a community of this size would find it difficult to absorb an entire group after graduation into any one trade. In organization it follows the unit trade school plan, not less than half the time being devoted to practical work on a useful or productive basis. (The penal institution need not concern itself with the inability of any one community to absorb all the graduates of one of its trade schools, inasmuch as they will be widely scattered throughout the state or the whole country after release.)

Objectives

As will be seen above, the federal-state program embraces three general objectives or functions, as follows: (A) Trade preparatory, preparing for advantageous entrance into a trade or industrial pursuit; (B) Trade extension, giving to persons who are already employed in a trade or industrial pursuit instruction which supplements their daily work in order to enable them to become more proficient in the work in which they are engaged or to prepare them for advancement in the same general line of work. (C) General continuation, the primary objective being the promotion of civic or vocational intelligence.

A. *Trade Preparatory Types of Organization.* To prepare different groups of individuals for advantageous entrance into a trade or industrial pursuit, several types of organization may be set up, as follows:

1. *The day trade school.*

2. *The general industrial school,* similar in objective and organization to the day trade school.

3. *The coöperative course,* in which the students are divided into two equal groups, one of which attends school for a week or for some other fixed period of time while the other group is employed at work in industries or trades, the groups shifting at the end of the fixed period.

(4) *The part-time class (discontinuous)*, in which attendance is distributed throughout the year for a certain number of hours per week. This organization is designed primarily for workers who are temporarily or unsatisfactorily employed and who wish preparatory training so that eventually they may be able to enter upon a more permanent type of employment or one in which there is a better possibility of advancement and permanency. Such classes ordinarily give instruction covering four to eight hours per week throughout a period of at least nine months per year.

(5) *The part-time class (intensive)*, designed to prepare for entrance with advanced standing into a trade or industrial pursuit. This type of organization is usually found where the preliminary preparation that the school can give is not sufficient to justify organizing a nine months' day trade course. In certain types of trade, such as telephone operating, power machine stitching in garment trades, tile setting, bricklaying and plumbing, an intensive part-time course is often organized to give instruction for a period of from two to five months in length, following which the students are placed at work in the industries or trades with advanced standing, in many cases to receive further instruction in trade extension courses. Intensive part-time courses usually concentrate on the manipulative and directly related phases of the trade for from six to eight hours per day.

B. *Trade Extension Types of Organization.* Trade extension courses, designed to give instruction which will supplement the worker's knowledge or skill in the job on which he is employed and which will assist in preparing him to advance to eventual promotion, may be given under the following types of organization:

1. *The evening school or class.* Under federal standards instruction given in such a class must be confined to material which is supplemental to the daily occupations of the class personnel. Without having any school shop equipment, it is possible to give instruction to mechanics in the technical and theoretical sides of the trade, in blueprint or plan reading, shop mathematics, estimating, and the science underlying the practice of the trade. When equipment is available, they may also be given specialized training in phases of manipulative work which they lack or do not have an opportunity to acquire in the jobs on which they are employed.

2. *The part-time class (discontinuous)*, which enrolls workers who will attend for periods usually extending from four to eight hours per week over at least nine months per year. In the majority of such part-time extension courses the four hours per week are not utilized in training for manipulative work but in a study of the related science, mathematics, or drawing of the trade involved.

3. *The part-time course (intensive)*. This is particularly designed for those engaged in occupations which are of a seasonal nature. Short intensive courses are set up during the dull or slack seasons, varying in time arrangement from three weeks of intensive work, eight hours per day, six days per week, to courses extending over two or three months in time, embracing from six to eight hours per day of instruction.

C. *General Continuation Courses.* In the federal-state program these are set up under but one form of organization, as follows:

1. *The part-time course.* Since the instruction given in such part-time courses concerns itself largely with the promotion of civic or vocational intelligence, the general continuation objective is usually not considered directly vocational.

Variety of Training Possible

The above outline of the types of organization sanctioned by the Federal Board for Vocational Education under the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act indicates how penal institutions may vary their program. It also shows how invalid is the excuse usually given for failure to establish programs of vocational education in these institutions: that they cannot afford to set up expensive trade schools. The full-time trade school, requiring elaborate equipment, is seen to be only one type of effective organization. With some adaptations every type of school or course authorized in the federal-state program can be set up in the penal institution.

Participation in Productive or Useful Work

The opportunity to perform practical work is an absolute essential of any effective vocational training program. In prisons this is doubly true; the daily life is one of monotonous routine and there is a natural tendency to avoid the unaccustomed routine of study unless its practical implications are constantly in view. The way in which prisoners, especially young ones, respond to a productive enterprise is well known to any institutional officer who has taken listless, malingering prisoners from a bricklaying class and has seen them come suddenly to life on the job of constructing a real brick building. The best arrangement in penal institutions is one under which every prisoner has a regular working assignment as well as a training assignment. It is probable that adult prisoners will advance more rapidly in vocational training courses if they do not attend continuously. The morale of the institution will be better when the institution is considered as a community of employed workers, receiving full opportunity for education, rather than as a community of men attending school.

An Ideal Plan. The ideal training plan is found where the prisoner is being trained on a full-time basis but is devoting at least half his time to a working detail which is coördinated with his training and which affords him an opportunity for direct application of what he learns during the hours spent in the training school or class. In many penal institutions this is possible for only a comparatively few prisoners and in only a limited number of occupations, unless special training projects are set up. This is especially true of institutions having only one or two industries and those whose maintenance shops are meagerly equipped and have little work to perform. A prison whose major industry is a shirt shop will have in this shop several hundred workers who have no idea of following that trade on release from the institution, but who desire vocational training. In this case it is necessary to give training on the part-time basis, allowing some of the men assigned to the shirt shop to attend trade preparatory classes, and others who have a background of skill or experience in some occupation to attend trade extension classes. When, as is rarely the case, the inmate population is so small that no prisoners can be spared from either the industries or the maintenance details during the working day, it is necessary to arrange for instruction in evening classes.*

* See Prosser and Bass: *Adult Education: The Evening Industrial School.* Century, 1930.

The Full-time Trade School. The full-time trade school has been found less effective and more expensive than other types of organization. There is, nevertheless, a place for it in any institution. Because of the shortness of sentences it is desirable to assign some prisoners to intensive courses on a full-time basis. If, however, these courses comply with the standard requirement as to participation in practical work the students are in effect holding down working jobs while taking training courses. There are many difficulties in the way of the establishment of full-time trade schools. They are expensive of installation and their equipment needs constantly to be brought up to date. They are not effective unless they are well staffed with competent instructors. They can serve only a limited number of men. At best the number of trades which can be successfully taught is small, for the actual working conditions of probably not more than twenty of the thousands of industrial occupations can be satisfactorily reproduced in trade schools. On the other hand, mastery of some trades can be obtained by intensive application in a good training course covering a period of thirty to ninety weeks. If institutional trade schools avoid the error into which those in the reformatories usually fall, that of spending too much time on routine exercises and busy work, if the requirement that at least half time be devoted to practical application is lived up to, and if men are selected for training and are not assigned in a wholesale and haphazard manner, the full-time trade school will prove an effective agency.

The trade school, in addition to training full-time students, can serve as a training center for many of those who are being instructed on the part-time plan. The carpenter school, for example, will have a certain number of students who remain in the school for an intensive course in carpentry throughout their sentences, being assigned to productive work about the institution only as a training project. It will have another group of students consisting of those men who have been assigned to the carpenter detail and who report to the school for a number of hours each day or week for instruction. This may take the form of training in special techniques or instruction in such subjects as the mathematics of carpentry or blueprint reading. A third group will be in preparatory training for assignment to the carpenter detail. Some trade schools, such as the school for printers, will be at the same time training courses and productive working projects.

This means utilization to the full of the staff, buildings and equipment of the trade school, but the courses given there should be distinct. We should get as far away as possible from the idea of a general trade school and should think always of vocational schools or courses as training for specific vocations. A number of vocational classes may occupy the same building and may be under the same general direction, but each has its own definite objective and should have its own distinct course of training and its own staff of instructors. Because of the necessity of getting along with inadequate training staffs, we tend in penal institutions to organize catch-all trade schools and to require the same staff to teach or supervise an excessively large number of related trades. We should not plan a school in the building trades but rather schools or classes for house carpenters, bricklayers, plasterers, plumbers, electricians specializing in house wiring, and so on, unless we are trying to train general contractors and building foremen rather than competent artisans in the various building crafts. In brief, objectives must be definite rather than general.

The Part-time Coöperative Plan. An adaptation of the part-time coöperative plan, under which two groups of students alternate between work assignments and vocational

school, would undoubtedly prove practicable in penal institutions in spite of the difficulties involved in the arrangement of schedules and a possible curtailment of production in industries affected by the two-shift system. The organization of training on this plan is most easily effected when the institution has so large a population that industries and maintenance details are overmanned and a two-shift system is feasible. It is practicable, however, for a part of the prisoners in even those few institutions which have enough work to keep all their prisoners employed. Incidentally, the adoption of the part-time coöperative plan would help solve the problem of unemployment. Experience has shown that the week-in and week-out system of alternation is the best arrangement. There are few industrial processes which cannot be dropped by one shift on Saturday and picked up by another on Monday with little lost motion. It is unwise to make the alternating periods either too long or too short. Work and instruction are bound to be thrown into confusion if they are put on a half-day-in and half-day-out basis. On the other hand, there is a tendency to become rusty on both work and instruction if the periods are as long as two weeks.

The part-time coöperative plan, as usually organized throughout the country, is designed for younger workers and is based on an arrangement between trade school authorities and industries whereby the workers are allowed to alternate between school and employment. In its application of this idea, the institution is at the same time the educational agency and the employing industrial organization. It is necessary merely to coördinate two parts of the same unitary system. The ideal coöperative plan demands that the employed hours supply practical application of what is learned during the training hours. The idea of alternating employment and training, however, can be applied to the

institution even when the working assignment bears no relation whatever to the training course being followed.

The part-time coöperative plan does not necessarily mean that all men assigned to a shoe shop, for example, will spend every second week in a class devoted to teaching the technique of shoe-shop practice or related subjects. The ideal situation, in which the week on the job and the week in training are devoted to the same vocation, cannot be attained with all prisoners or in all occupations. It is not reasonable to assume that every man assigned to a prison industry wishes or intends to make it his life occupation, although proper vocational guidance will see that every industry is manned as far as possible with men who intend to continue in it on release. During the instruction week, one man may be devoting his time to intensive practice on a more difficult process in shoe manufacture than the one he has been performing during his employed week. Another will be taking a "vestibule" or trade preparatory course in house wiring. A third will be taking general education courses or special courses in mathematics and blueprint reading. The advantages of the part-time coöperative plan are so many that it is worth all the effort required to overcome the obstacles which stand in the way of its organization and administration. It is especially well adapted to the needs of men assigned to skilled maintenance details, for their practical work can be made a unitary part of their training. It also meets the needs of such vocations as the building trades, in which it is difficult to give effective training in school shops. That the part-time coöperative plan is the coming thing in vocational education for young workers is generally recognized by leaders in the field.

Other Part-time Training. When neither the part-time coöperative plan nor the full-time training plan is practicable, it is necessary to arrange for part-time training of the

usual type on either a trade preparatory or trade extension basis. During slack seasons the employed prisoner may be given an opportunity for a part-time intensive course. Throughout the year those whose working assignments do not keep them busy all day may be given part-time discontinuous courses followed for a few hours each day. Any prisoner who has energy enough to take a training course at the end of his day's work may be given a part-time course in an evening school or class.

The Superiority of Full-time Training. The superiority of full-time training under proper conditions to all other types is clear. It must include participation in practical work. Of full-time training, Dr. David Snedden says:

"All kinds of part-time vocational education are probably very uneconomical of the learner's time and public money when contrasted with full-time training which employs full measures of participation in commercially productive work as part of the training process under, of course, technically expert and educationally expert supervision. This judgment applies to evening school instruction, continuation school instruction and training, most forms of correspondence instruction and all other more or less fragmentary offerings, with one basic exception.

"That exception is found where the learner: (a) has substantially learned the major part of the vocation; (b) where he has clearly developed excellent powers of self-education in this field; and (c) where published materials for extension correspondence or other methods of self-education have been made well available. Under these conditions true part-time training may best combine economy and efficiency. (Note that where learners share in commercially productive work under direction of the school or as a basic part of school work, this is full-time, not part-time, administration.)"

To prisoners falling in the groups cited above, a certain amount of training can be given very informally by supplying textbooks, correspondence courses and other material which they can utilize intelligently and effectively because of their background of training and practical experience or their capacity for self-direction. This is a safe method with only a limited number of men. The ex-clerk or the experienced salesman can often teach himself if he is supplied with good textual material related to his profession, just as the skilled automobile mechanic can safely be given a correspondence course in aviation motors, but for the great majority organized and directed training is necessary.

The decision as to whether any particular prisoner should be trained on the part-time or the full-time basis depends on a variety of factors: the occupation for which he is being trained, the opportunities for practical application offered by the institution, his previous occupational history and probable occupational future, his present knowledge and skill, his capacity for learning, his ability to carry on study in theory, the length of his sentence, etc. A large number of prisoners in institutions where there are productive industries will probably always perform routine work with very little definite vocational instruction. Others will spend all their time in intensive training courses with practical work as a part of their training. For others instruction will be on a part-time basis, their time being divided between instruction and employment on working details related or unrelated to their training courses.

Opportunities for Practical Training

The federal-state program assumes that when workers attending trade schools or classes are employed they are in trade or industrial pursuits where standards of competitive production prevail. The training facilities afforded by the

industries and maintenance details of the usual penal institution obviously cannot compare with the opportunities offered by the average community. The institution is a community, however, and a large number of occupations are represented in its daily activities.

Training in Industries. Industries can be effectively used for vocational training if we set up those which have training value, house them in good buildings, equip them with adequate modern machinery, install well-trained superintendents, foremen and training supervisors, and manufacture a good product for a real market at as near the usual industrial standard of quality and speed as possible. Among the industries which have potential vocational training value are the following: shoe shops, print shops, textile mills, dye plants, clothing factories making civilian clothing (the ordinary shirt shop or work clothing factory has almost no vocational training value), foundries, brick plants, cement plants, furniture factories, canneries, grist mills, shops manufacturing auto license plates and highway markers, other metal shops, farm machinery plants, and binder twine plants. A greater diversity is plainly needed.

Many of the processes in the ordinary industry are best learned by the pick-up method on the job itself. In any manufacturing plant, however, there are a number of processes requiring special training. This can be given either in the course of the day's work by a skilled foreman or instructor, in a preparatory training course, or in a part-time extension course. Many manufacturing concerns give a preliminary course of training and later, after the employee has gone to work on a full-time job, give him extension training of the special type needed as well as instruction in supplemental and related subjects. The training courses given by the National Cash Register Company, The Dennison Manufacturing Company, the American Rolling Mills Company, and other large manufacturing corporations will serve as valuable guides to institutions planning to train their prisoners in industries.

We must not feel that the man who operates a machine which he masters in a few days is receiving no training of value. If he is kept up to a proper standard as to quantity and quality of production, he is at least fitting himself for a job operating a similar machine outside, even though insufficient transfer of skill takes place to make his training of equal value for another job. The routine worker, moreover, receives moral training which cannot be divorced from vocational training, in that he learns to put in a hard eight-hour day of work and finds, often to his surprise, that he can keep it up for months without quitting. This is moral training which many prisoners need badly. It is partly nullified if he is not kept up to the standards of outside industry. One of the disastrous effects of overcrowding our institutions and overmanning their industries is to make industrial snails of men who must be whippets to get by in competition. The importance of pace in training needs continual emphasis. If a man must tend four machines of a certain type in an outside shop and turn out 1000 pieces a day to hold his job it is bad training to allow him for months on end to turn out only 250 pieces and to tend only one machine.

Special Training Projects. It is impossible for penal institutions, because of the limits that are placed on their industrial expansion, to organize enough industries to supply productive work for training in the variety of occupations that can be taught effectively. Where suitable industries are lacking it is necessary to develop artificial industrial training projects, or to select those parts of even the poorest industries which can be utilized for training: for example, the cutting room in a garment factory. A new policy should

be considered by penal authorities: attempting to make arrangements with manufacturing or other commercial organizations to install in the institution enterprises performing part or all of a productive process for the sole purpose of providing practical work for vocational students. This should not be difficult for institutions located in or near great manufacturing centers, and it is not impossible for others less advantageously located. For example, a prison which cannot establish a complete shoe shop can contract with a nearby shoe manufacturer to install several departments in the institution. A similar contract can be made with a furniture factory to do the finishing work, or with a foundry to make rough castings.* A contract might be made with a nearby garage to turn over all its valve grinding, brake lining and complete greasing jobs to the prison automobile school.

Training on Maintenance Work. The maintenance details of every penal institution offer opportunities for the teaching of a large number of occupations, although there is little variety in the work to be performed by any one shop and it is often necessary to plan artificial training projects. The following are some of the vocations represented in the maintenance details of the average institution: truck driver, chauffeur, automobile mechanic, automobile washer, gardener, greenhouse employee, cobbler, blacksmith, carpenter, painter, plasterer, concrete worker, brickmason, electrician, stationary engineer, fireman, power plant employee, janitor, cleaner and presser, tailor, waiter, hospital orderly, nurse, cook, baker, meat cutter, storekeeper, laundry worker, teacher, librarian, mail clerk, general clerk, typist, stenographer, musician, printer, bookbinder, plumber, shoe repairer, welder, and telephone operator.

* This is written with full appreciation of the possibility that various states may pass restrictive legislation affecting prison-made goods when the Hawes-Cooper Bill becomes operative in 1934.

As has been indicated, the part-time coöperative plan of instruction is particularly well adapted to the training of men in the maintenance details. Another practicable way is to assign extra men to every working detail. This means no departure from ordinary institutional practice, for maintenance details are characteristically overmanned. Of the men assigned to any detail, the larger number should be considered as being in training. They correspond to apprentices working as helpers to journeymen. In every detail there will be prisoners who were skilled in the trade before they entered the institution or have received sufficient training there so that they may be classed as journeymen. Training for these men consists of improving their technical skill and increasing their knowledge of related theory. Their presence on the detail assures the work of the institution being carried on. Under proper direction they can serve as foremen-instructors for the "apprentices." Some of this group can safely be given correspondence courses, texts and other study material to use with little assistance from instructors.

Instruction in connection with maintenance details can be given in all the standard forms: preparatory courses for those who wish to prepare for entrance into specific occupations represented among the details, and trade extension courses for those who have experience in the trades represented among the details or are acquiring that experience on a maintenance assignment. Both preparatory and extension courses may be on either a part-time or a full-time basis. In either case the maintenance work is utilized to provide the required practice. The cleaners, messengers, manual laborers and other catch-all details will always contain a large number of men with no vocational interest or aptitude but there will be others in these details who are

waiting for their opportunity to secure assignment to a position requiring skill and offering training. The latter group may be excellent training material. They can be tested by brief try-out courses and, if they show promise, can be given preparatory courses pending their assignment to the desired detail.

We must not expect a man to learn a skilled trade by merely participating in the work of that trade on a maintenance detail without organized training. Maintenance work can be utilized to supply the practical part of the training process but it is not the whole process. Few prisoners have enough experience in a skilled trade to follow their own noses. The most effective use can probably be made of maintenance work for training in the trades by supplying short-unit preparatory courses and then assigning the beginner to a working detail as an apprentice or helper. As soon as he is assigned trade extension instruction should be provided on the coöperative plan or during a part of the working day or during the evening hours. When assignment to a full-time trade school is prescribed the training course will necessarily involve participation in practical work on a working detail.

Fields to Avoid. Penal institutions tend to offer instruction in obsolete trades or those which are rapidly becoming so (some of the woodworking crafts, for example), and also to concentrate on trades which are well unionized,* have rigid apprenticeship systems, and are reluctant to accept other types of training as substitutes. The latter group includes, to be sure, some of the trades most worth teaching: the building trades, the electrical and printing trades, etc. In teaching these trades current requirements and restrictions should be taken into account.

* In a number of states the unions are liberal and coöperative in their attitude toward ex-prisoners.

The Trade of Automobile Mechanic

Institutions are slow to provide training in one field which is not unionized, has no apprenticeship requirements, and offers well-paid employment to thousands of new men every year. This is the automobile repair trade. More prisoners apply for instruction in it than in any other single trade. They are often refused for fear that it will encourage them to become automobile thieves. The fact is that automobile thieves are not often recruited from the ranks of mechanics.

The fascination which the trade of automobile mechanic has for male prisoners should be capitalized. It is wasteful to permit every man who wishes to take a course in automobile repairing to do so, but even under a rigid system of selection there will be in any prison a large number of men who can properly take a course for automobile mechanics and garage workers. These will include some men who have already had experience in the trade and others who are entering it without experience. Facilities, equipment, and methods of instruction will differ for the two groups. Experienced automobile mechanics can be instructed effectively by the use of charts, models, and other laboratory equipment. A new or special type of lubrication system can be demonstrated with charts and a cut-away motor. Laboratory equipment of this type is needed for the inexperienced group also, but the green man cannot be instructed by use of this material alone. He must learn the working correlation of all parts of the car and must acquire skill in manipulative work before his attention can profitably be turned to specialized equipment and operation.

A few institutions, most of them reformatories, have established schools or courses for automobile mechanics and in all institutions the men assigned to the institution garage have an opportunity to learn something by the pick-up meth-

od in the care of official cars and trucks and in occasional work on cars belonging to officers. No institution in the country, however, has an effective training course. Equipment is incomplete and in many cases obsolete, and instruction of high quality is lacking. The chief weakness is the lack of enough practical work to give the student practice under outside garage and repair shop standards. The city trade school is permitted to do commercial work, but a conservative official and state policy prohibits this in penal institutions. Effective preparatory courses for beginners and extension courses for men who already have some experience can be conducted even under this handicap, but a complete course, which takes the beginner through to the point where he can hope to get a position as a mechanic or helper, is difficult to set up unless the school has a large number of cars representing a wide variety of makes on which to work. Commercial work should be permitted to make this possible.

Information of value regarding proper equipment, standards, and methods of instruction for schools in automobile repairing can be obtained from the Federal Board for Vocational Education, from state directors of vocational education, and from large city trade schools. A useful booklet is the Board's Bulletin No. 109: *Layouts and Equipment for Automobile School Shops. Bruce's Shop Annual,* cited in the Appendix, contains much valuable information and standard shop layouts.

The Vocational Teaching Staff

No institution should hope to set up an effective program of vocational education without the services of at least one expert vocational director. In institutions where ingenuity will have to be exercised by the staff in utilizing poorly equipped and inefficiently operated industries and maintenance details as training projects and in planning artificial

projects, there should be at least one trained vocational coördinator whose duty it is to devise effective methods of carrying out this essential part of the program. Every instructor should be expected to work out his own detailed problems of coördination, but so many problems affecting the whole routine of the institution are involved that coördination must be centered under the direction of one man. This is a difficult task, involving thorough knowledge of the technique of job analysis and of training methods. The staff should also include as many trained instructors, representing as wide a variety of vocations, as the budget will permit. The success of a vocational training program, especially in a penal institution, depends largely on the teacher.

Qualifications. The more important characteristics which a candidate for a teaching position in a trade or industrial school should possess and some practical suggestions as to how the possession of these characteristics may be determined are given in Bulletin 17 of the Federal Board for Vocational Education as on the following page.

At the present time it is recognized in every state plan * that the teacher must possess trade mastery or occupational competency. The instructor must know his job and there is no satisfactory substitute for this qualification on the part of a trade or industrial teacher. No amount of general education or technical training will enable a man to teach a trade if he lacks the all-important qualification of being a master workman in that trade. In some states a total of eight years experience in the trade, including the period of apprenticeship, is required. Other states accept men with less experience, and the minimum which the Federal Board has approved in any state plan is one year of journeyman experience in addition to the completion of apprenticeship or its equivalent.

* Bulletin 17 is here paraphrased freely.

Qualifications	Suggestions as to how the possession of these qualifications may be determined
1. Trade mastery or occupational competency.	1. (*a*) Employment record, (*b*) statements by employers and supervisors under whom the man has worked, and (*c*) practical performance test conducted by a qualified committee.
2. Occupational prestige and standing in trade.	2. Supporting evidence secured from employers, supervisors, and fellow workers.
3. Pride in his trade.	3. Personal interview by a qualified representative committee.
4. Self-confidence.	4. Personal interview by qualified representative committee.
5. Ability to get along with associates.	5. Employment record, evidence procured from former employers and supervisors.
6. Ability to work harmoniously with official superiors.	6. Employment record, evidence procured from former employers and supervisors.
7. Ability to get a job done under difficulties.	7. Employment record, evidence procured from former employers and supervisors.
8. The habit of regarding himself as a success in his field.	8. Interview by qualified representative committee.
9. Habit of meeting responsibilities.	9. Employment record, evidence secured from former supervisors.
10. Ability to express himself clearly and briefly, both orally and in writing.	10. Interview in which the man is encouraged to do considerable talking himself in replying to questions, supplemented by a suitable written statement on some topic with which the man is thoroughly familiar.
11. Good character.	11. Evidence secured from associates and persons of known standing with whom the man has had business dealings or persons with whom he has associated in fields unrelated to his work.
12. Suitable age.	12. Birth certificate or affidavit.

The other qualifications are self-explanatory, with the exception of age. In most state plans twenty-five years of age is set as a minimum because, in most cases, a man will not have secured satisfactory experience before he is twenty-five years of age. The practice of setting up a maximum age is not so general. Maturity and wide experience are decided assets, although they are sometimes balanced in the older man by less desirable qualifications.

The objectives which have been set up in training programs for teachers of trade and industrial work of the vocational type also indicate what may be expected of a good teacher. These training objectives are the following: (1) Ability to teach the manipulative, technical, and informational branches of the trade. (2) Ability to plan instructional work. (3) Ability to use good methods of personnel management in dealing with individuals or groups of individuals under instructional conditions. (4) Ability to keep the necessary records and make such reports as may be called for. (5) Ability to analyze a job or series of jobs in the trade taught. (6) Ability to use an analysis for setting up a course of study and organizing related technical content. (7) Ability to discriminate between the importance of the mechanics of organization in the school and the function of instructional work. (8) Ability to appreciate the difficulties and problems of a learner in the trade. (9) An intelligent appreciation of the importance of vocational education and the relationship of the program to other fields of education. (10) An understanding of accepted standards for trade and industrial education.

It will not be possible for some penal institutions to finance adequate staffs. These institutions should do the best they can by employing as industrial and maintenance foremen men who not only know their trades but also have or can acquire teaching skill. Much can be done under the lead

of a few competent foremen if the advice and assistance obtainable from such sources as the Federal Board for Vocational Education, the Department of Agriculture and other government agencies, the directors of vocational education in the various states, corporation schools, State Departments of Agriculture and Colleges of Agriculture, and the staffs of city trade schools are secured.

Job Analysis

Objectives (5) and (6) cited above are of prime importance. The necessity of scientific job analysis as the basis of training courses is now well recognized. A job analysis is nothing but a scientific method of planning a sequence of lessons leading to the attainment of an objective in skill or knowledge, the objective having first been clearly defined and broken down into its component parts. The analysis determines what is to be taught and in what order the successive steps are to be taught. The job analysis on the opposite page, which covers the first steps in the bricklaying trade, indicates the general method of analysis. It is quoted from Bulletin No. 95 of the Federal Board for Vocational Education, an analysis of the bricklaying trade. Analyses of many other occupations have been made and are available in the bulletins of the Federal Board and from other sources. When shortage of time or lack of facilities makes it impossible to teach complete trades or to follow standard published analyses, the vocational education director and the instructors in an institution will need to make special analyses in some cases with a view to producing boiled-down courses. The condensed vocational courses developed during the World War were based on such analyses.

BRICKLAYING.

Block–BL–I.—Block Base: Jobs Calling for Semifinished Work.

Block objective: Ability to do common brick jobs where finished appearance of the work is not an important factor

Job		Trade technical knowledge			Auxiliary information		Training progression
Type job	Objective	Drawing	Science	Mathematics	Recognition of stock; trade terms	Care of tools; safety	
1. *Type job specifications.*—Backing up with common brick, using running bond against a vertical wall between established vertical ends not over the length of 6 bricks. Surface appearance not important. Working from inside of wall. Mortar ready mixed. Type jobs: *a.* Backing up the face of an 8-inch wall between window jambs. *b.* Backing up as above, between door jambs.	Some ability to spread mortar and place brick cut to length on inside tier of wall, between vertical ends, using running bond. Ability to arrange courses so as to come out even and level with top of face tier.	....	Mortar dries out when exposed to air. The larger the surface exposed the quicker the drying. Dry bricks absorb water from mortar. Water evaporates more on a hot day than on a cold day. Frozen mortar expands and will not set. Frozen mortar will not stick to brick. Salt or calcium chloride in mortar lowers the freezing point. Mortar made with hot sand and hot water will often set before freezing. Warm bricks cause mortar to set quicker. Stretchers over and under end joints which are weak, make end joints stronger and the stretcher courses more rigid.	Eye estimation of length in brick units. Eye estimation of mortar in terms of number of bricks in bed course.	Recognition of stock: Ability to recognize common brick. The recognition of mortar in the right condition. Trade terms: Backing, cutting off, spreading, running bond, header, stretcher, trowel, mortar board, brick hammer, salmon brick, sand lime brick, hard burned brick, overburned brick, sill, joists, weather strip, course, bed joint, vertical joint, cross joint and jamb.	Care of tools: Cleaning trowel at end of job. Safety: Lime in mortar burns the skin. Keep mortar from trowel handle and ferrule.	*Instruction required: How to pick up mortar, spread mortar, place brick, cut to length for an inside tier of wall between vertical ends, using running bond; how to arrange courses so as to come out level with the top of the face tier.*

Vocational Guidance

Another essential of a successful training program is vocational guidance, with which placement and follow-up after release should go hand in hand. We cannot hope for satisfactory results if vocational education is given on the mass treatment basis. There is an abundance of printed material on the subject of guidance.* The vocational guidance expert must be familiar with the standard technique of determining individual needs and capabilities and must have intuitive shrewdness in assessing motives. He must be thoroughly familiar with general employment opportunities and requirements and the training necessary to meet them, with current employment conditions and significant trends, and with new developments. He must be especially familiar with the different attitudes displayed toward ex-prisoners by various employing and labor groups. Finally, he must work in close touch with the parole authorities.

Many occupations require a minimum of instruction and can be learned very quickly on the job. For the prisoners who are to enter these occupations the institution can well concentrate on vocational guidance and vocational adjustment. If one helps them to select the semiskilled or unskilled occupations for which they are best fitted and in which they will be best satisfied, and helps them by proper placement to adjust themselves more successfully to the working world, he will have done about all he can.

Aptitude Tests. The person who is inexperienced in vocational guidance is inclined to place too great reliance on mechanical aptitude tests. Many tests of this type have been developed, but it cannot be claimed for them that they have established their validity in indicating what occupation or

* See Federal Board for Vocational Education Bulletin No. 66, *Bibliography on Vocational Guidance.*

even what type of occupation the subject tested can best enter. They may safely be used if they are considered as devices for throwing a little additional light on the problem rather than as supplying a definite answer to the questions arising in vocational guidance. It is probable that there are few specific aptitudes that can be determined by formal tests with sufficient certainty to justify basing guidance into specific occupations on tests alone.

Intelligence Tests. General intelligence tests also have limited value in vocational guidance. The results of these tests should be taken into account in all guidance, for some occupations cannot be successfully entered by persons who fall below a certain intelligence level. There is, however, a great variety of occupations which can be followed by persons on any given intelligence level and a wide range of intelligence levels can be found in any given occupation. Intelligence tests present negative evidence in that they may indicate what vocation the person tested cannot successfully enter, but do not indicate what specific vocation he can successfully enter.

Time Required for Vocational Training

The time required to master any given vocation is dependent on so many factors in a penal institution that ordinarily accepted standards, based on the usual time required in a school or class in a free community, cannot be applied. One reformatory for men gives as its justification for not establishing a program of vocational education the statement that "the period of apprenticeship to all crafts and trades is four years while the average term of our inmates is approximately only eleven months." This is an unwarranted application of standard apprenticeship requirements to the penal institution, which can hope in only a few

cases to take a green man and give him a complete apprentice and journeyman training in a skilled trade.

Number of Weeks. Instruction in a skilled trade is only a part of the vocational education program of a penal institution and even in these trades effective training, if it is intensive, can be given in much less than the usual apprenticeship period. Dr. Snedden states that "first class full-time vocational training for probably half the industrial and commercial vocations now followed in America need not take more than eight to twelve weeks of forty-four hours each; twelve to eighteen weeks of full-time training will adequately equip most young women of eighteen to twenty-five years of age for the vocations of home-making; and thirty-six weeks of intensive full-time first class training prepares for agricultural vocations." The war-time education of 1917-18 proved that full-time training of from six to twenty-four weeks, if taken by sufficiently mature persons, will suffice for many of the difficult trades. After one's general education is completed satisfactory results can be obtained by intensive full-time training (with sufficient participation in productive work) for periods of "eight weeks for a juvenile vocation, sixteen to twenty-four weeks for an operative journeyman's vocation, and thirty-six to ninety weeks for a mastership trade." Moreover, as Dr. Snedden points out, by those of not less than median intelligence (100 I.Q.) optimum proficiency may be reached in certain trades—automobile repairing, house carpentry, job printing and others—by thirty to one hundred and twenty weeks of assiduous practice. It is generally recognized that most workers need short-unit intensive courses fitting them quickly for employment rather than longer and more extensive courses. The adult prisoner does better work and maintains his interest more steadily when he comes to a definite point of achievement frequently, even though related short-unit courses may in reality form one consecutive long course.

Number of Hours Per Day. During how many hours of the day and week should training be given? This must obviously vary with the course and the student. The federal program sets up certain standards for trade and industrial education which can be used as a basis, although the requirements are probably too severe to be practicable in most institutions. These standards have already been cited. They are, briefly, (1) that part-time schools or classes must be in session at least one hundred and forty-four hours a year (computed on a basis of four hours a week for thirty-six weeks, the usual school year); and (2) that instruction in the unit trade school or class must extend over not less than nine months (thirty-six weeks) per year, and not less than thirty class hours per week, and that not less than half of the time shall be given to practical work on a productive or useful basis. This means about three hours a day on practical work. The time arrangement of part-time intensive courses on a seasonal basis in the federal-state program varies from three weeks of six days per week and eight hours per day to two or three months of six to eight hours per day. Other part-time intensive courses on a trade preparatory basis give instruction from two to five months for six to eight hours per day.

Vacations. Most penal institutions in their general education program have a summer vacation of two or more months. This is not sound practice for either general or vocational education. Vacations for the educational staff should be distributed throughout the year in the same way that they are for other members of the institutional staff. Vocational training should be a continuous process with only such breaks as are desirable at the end of unit courses. This is especially true where the training is coördinated with an

industry or maintenance detail whose work is necessarily continuous. "Experience has amply demonstrated that the 50-50 type of coöperative schools can be best operated when the program is continuing to the same degree that the operation of the coöperative plant is continuous. This calls for the operation of the program at least fifty weeks per year. Vacations for students and instructors are arranged in a manner similar to that which prevails in industrial organizations, where everybody can get a vacation without making it necessary to shut down the plant." *

Division of Time. How should time be divided between general and vocational education? The most desirable situation exists when the prisoner has completed his general education before he undertakes vocational education. Because of the shortness of the average sentence and the loss of interest which is likely to result from such an arrangement, it is impossible to insist that the first months or years of a prisoner's sentence be devoted to completing his general education and that he shall not be allowed to proceed with vocational training until his general education is completed. With prisoners the two types of education must proceed together and an effective correlation must be worked out. The prospect of acquiring competence in an occupation is the star to which the prisoner may hitch his wagon of dull, monotonous work in reading, writing and arithmetic. Pursuing the two types of education together does not mean dividing the prisoner's day into two equal parts, as many reformatories do, and requiring him to attend the "school of letters" during half the day and the trade school during the other half. The division of time between the two types should not be arbitrary; it may be on a 50-50 basis or in as lopsided a proportion as 90 to 10. It should be based on individual needs. In actual practice,

* Federal Board for Vocational Education Bulletin No. 17.

much of the program of general education is so closely interwoven with vocational training that they are practically one.

In some outside trade schools the day is divided so that half, approximately three and one-half hours, is spent in the shop and the other half is again divided. One quarter is devoted to related trade subjects and to the underlying mathematics and science of the trade. The remaining quarter is devoted to academic instruction of the classroom type, and to such extracurricular activities as athletics, moving pictures, dramatics, club meetings, and publications. In these schools the time that elapses before a student enters on definite training for the trade which he wishes to study depends on what group he falls into. There are those who know what they want and who show aptitude for it, those who have a general idea what they wish (for example, to study one of the building trades), and those who have no notion what they wish to do. Those who are ready for instruction are sent immediately to the appropriate shops. Those who are not sure are placed under a special supervisor and are given tryout courses in single shops or in a general shop where five or more trades are represented. Those who have no notion what they want to do are also sent to the general shop or are shifted around among the other shops for observation and tryout. They are sometimes kept as long as a year under tryout training.

Education for Agricultural Pursuits

One type of vocational education, education for agricultural and allied pursuits, can be carried on successfully by practically every penal institution in the country without a large outlay of money and with a fair likelihood of the educational project proving financially profitable. All but a few institutions have farms, dairy herds, poultry plants, and

piggeries. Farm programs in penal institutions are receiving increasing emphasis as institutions grow larger and the difficulty of keeping the prisoners employed increases. The opposition which has tended to retard the development of productive industries has fortunately not extended to farm work, and institutions are often able to obtain appropriations for the expansion of agricultural activities when they cannot secure funds for the establishment of industries.

Its Practicability in Penal Institutions. Education for agricultural work is particularly well suited to the penal institution. There are probably 8,000,000 adult men on the farms of the country today and 200,000 men are annually recruited to agricultural vocations. Large numbers of prisoners come from rural communities and go back to them when released. Some of them are employed on large farms, some operate small farms of their own, and others operate a garden, keep a cow or two, and have a small flock of poultry. For this group agricultural education is a direct avenue to greater earning capacity or more economical living. It has direct practical significance; its method, subject matter and end-results appeal to prisoners in a way that the more theoretical, abstract and formal types of education do not. It is possible on the institution farm to apply the sound principle of vocational education that one learns best on the job. Expert guidance and help are available from a large number of sources; one can draw on experts representing agencies, both state and national, whose function is to disseminate knowledge for the improvement of agricultural methods and to supply advice and instruction wherever it is needed. Simple textual material, practical in nature and designed for the use of persons of limited education, is available from a variety of sources at little or no expense. Finally, the farm is well adapted to educational work in that the prisoners detailed there have greater

freedom than those employed inside the institution and suffer less from the handicaps of routine restrictions.

There is almost no limit to the variety of subjects which can be taught. Instruction involving a proper correlation of practice and theory can be given in general farming, market gardening, truck gardening, general animal husbandry, swine husbandry, dairy operations, poultry raising, fruit growing, berry raising, canning and preserving, and greenhouse operation. All of these activities are now being carried on by penal institutions in various parts of the country. Closely related to the agricultural field are such other outdoor occupations as the building and repair of bridges and roads, and forestry. Specialized courses can be given in building repair and other types of carpentry useful on the farm, concrete construction, simple bricklaying, the repair of mechanical equipment customarily found on a farm, and other work which any man operating his own farm or employed on a farm may be called on to perform.

The Necessity of Selective Assignment. A new basis of selecting men for detail to the farm must be established before this branch of vocational education can be developed to its full effectiveness. Prisoners are now customarily selected for the institution farm on these bases: that they know something about farm work, that they are able-bodied, and that they can be trusted to work without guards. Important as the last consideration is from the standpoint of discipline and character training, it would be better to abandon the idea that the farm should be almost exclusively operated by trusties in order that we may detail more men who are capable of profiting by agricultural training and who need it more than they need any other type of education. If the institution authorities do not find it possible or desirable to detail more guards to the farm, it is probable that a more liberal policy of selecting trusties can safely

be adopted. There is something about the wholesomeness of outdoor work that seems to give steadiness and reliability to men who at first glance do not appear to be of the trusty type. Education for agricultural vocations suffers from the same handicap that limits education within the prison: overemphasis on the necessity of safeguarding prisoners and lack of emphasis on the necessity of giving opportunities for training which may in the long run prove an effective safeguard against crime.

In selecting men for farm details, attention should first be paid to those who have been engaged in agricultural pursuits or are planning to enter this type of work after release. Of this group, preference should again be given to those who are capable of profiting by instruction and who really wish to learn. Candidates for the farm detail will include those who need general training and those who need to specialize in some one branch: for example, poultry raising or one phase of dairy operation. Some men on release will seek employment on large farms where they may do one special type of work; others will go to small farms where they will be required to do anything and everything. After the original assignment has been made, prisoners under instruction should be moved about freely in order that they may gain general experience and may finally fit into the special niche which they can fill most successfully.

Combining Production and Training. The practical question asked by any institution official operating a farm is "How can I get the necessary work of the farm done and still have time to give more than incidental instruction?" This can be done by adding extra men to every detail. As a matter of fact, institution farm details are usually overmanned. Enough men should be added so that each detail consists of a number of men who have passed through the preliminary period of instruction and are largely engaged

in routine work and a number of others who are beginners. The latter will succeed to the top positions as their predecessors finish their terms and leave the institution. As beginners they will devote a great deal of their time to organized instruction, participating in the routine work as a part of their practical training. The men who have passed through the beginner stage will receive decreasing amounts of instruction but will nevertheless be in training until they leave the institution. The "apprentice farmers" will work with the "journeymen farmers" and under their direction. For example, to every poultry house which would normally be cared for by two men a third man, an apprentice, will be added. The apprentice will spend a certain number of hours each day in actual work, but will report to the instructors during the remainder of the day for class and individual instruction.

Organization of Training. Several standard types of organization are practicable. The full-time training plan (routine work being a part of the training) is feasible whenever the prisoner can be assigned to that type of farm work in which he is to receive instruction. When there are not enough of the more desirable assignments to absorb all the student-farmers, even with extra men added to each detail, it is necessary to give training on a part-time basis. For example, assume that the poultry plant has its full complement of beginners and advanced workers, and that a number of men detailed to the farm as general hands, employed in cultivating or haying or fencing, want to learn how to operate an incubator or a complete small poultry plant. A part-time class must then be organized for this group, perhaps in the evening. Agricultural evening schools, as usually organized in free communities, devote their time largely to technical subjects. A full discussion of these schools will be found in Federal Board for Vocational Edu-

cation Bulletin No. 89, *Agricultural Evening Schools*. Short-unit full-time intensive courses are preferable to part-time classes in most agricultural processes, for they need to be carried on continuously throughout the day as a practical working operation. The short intensive course on a seasonal basis offers an opportunity for instruction of this type. The part-time coöperative plan, with two shifts alternating between work and school, appears less practicable in agricultural education than in trade and industrial education.

Direct training of individuals or classes by competent instructors will prove the most effective method of teaching. Much of the teaching needs to be by demonstration and practice and must be a part of the practical work. The study of texts or of correspondence courses can never be substituted effectively for direct teaching, although they can sometimes be used safely by the man who has an opportunity to apply what he studies, especially if he is also receiving some assistance and guidance directly from a teacher. Good correspondence courses in agricultural subjects can usually be secured from the State Agricultural College, although many of these courses presuppose too much education and scientific knowledge. Those sold by correspondence schools operated on a commercial basis are often too general and discursive. Any agricultural correspondence course, whether obtained from state or private sources, should be examined carefully by an expert before it is purchased.

The Necessity of Specific Training. In all teaching of vocational agriculture to prisoners we should avoid highly technical general courses and concentrate on simple and specific courses. The average prisoner will enroll in a course in animal husbandry, but what he really needs to know is how to take full charge of a small herd and to meet the specific problems that come up in the course of a year. This

can best be learned on the farm under instruction which includes relatively little pure theory. Instead of trying to give instruction in soil analysis we may better give each student the address of the state agency to which he should send soils for free analysis. Our aim, in brief, is to promote specific practical knowledge and skill which is directly applicable under working conditions.

The Project Method. Certain special devices and methods will be found particularly useful in this field. The project method has been found one of the most useful in the teaching of farmers. An individual student or a small group of students is given a definite project to carry on under instruction and supervision: the care of a certain number of cows or hens, or taking full charge of the planting, cultivation and harvesting of a crop on a fixed area of ground. Other individuals or groups may have similar projects and the element of competition is introduced. In the usual project students do not carry on narrowly specialized work but carry a complete process through from beginning to end. On the other hand, a student may be given such a highly specialized project as the analysis of the soils on the various sections of a large farm area. The project method is particularly well adapted to the instruction of those who are to be employed on small farms or who are to operate their own farms.

Exhibits and Demonstrations. Special exhibits and demonstrations, which can be arranged with the help of state agricultural authorities, will stimulate interest and will serve to clarify theoretical instruction. Exhibits of different grades of seed, small models of scientifically planned barns, piggeries and poultry plants, and soil maps of different parts of the state can be set up on either a temporary or a permanent basis. Demonstrations must be used constantly as a part of the teaching method. Special demonstrations, given

by experts from outside the farm teaching staff, should be arranged from time to time. A few penal institutions already have regular stock-judging contests in which the prisoners participate with eagerness and which are attended by farmers from the whole countryside. A number of other contests, such as cotton grading and grading seed corn, vegetables or fruit, can be used as a means of stimulating interest and as a test of the students.

State Experimental Farms. Every effort should be made to get the state agricultural authorities to establish experimental farms at the penal institutions. This would save money for the state, for prisoners could perform the large amount of manual labor which would be necessary. It would be beneficial to the institution in that instruction under proper conditions and under expert direction would be made possible. If the state cannot establish a complete farm at the penal institution, a model dairy herd, poultry plant, orchard, or other project can be initiated under the auspices of the State Department of Agriculture.

A Jack-of-all-Trades Course. In every institution there should be a brief practical course for men who are going back to small farms where they will have to play the part of the jack-of-all-trades. This course should teach them how to operate and repair agricultural machinery, build small buildings and make repairs on larger ones, and to perform to a limited extent the functions of the automobile mechanic, general mechanic, electrician, plumber, carpenter, plasterer, and all the other skilled tradesmen whom the small farmer cannot afford to call in every time something has to be done about the farm. The student should be taught how to make, install and repair the usual equipment of the small farm. The aim is not to train professional handy men but to give practical farmers in a simple and condensed course

the mechanical skill that they need in the daily routine of any small farm.

Teaching and Advisory Staffs. The penal institution can turn to many agencies for help in organizing and directing a program of training for agricultural pursuits, but competent resident instructors are needed. It is less difficult to find satisfactory teachers in this field than in almost any other vocational training activity, but it is seldom true that the institutional farmer has had experience in teaching. The "practical" farmer may know a great deal about his trade but very little about how to teach it to others. Agricultural colleges are turning out every year large numbers of men who have had considerable experience as practical farmers and who know the scientific theory of their profession and how to teach it. This is the type of teacher needed by the penal institution.

The United States Department of Agriculture and the State Departments of Agriculture have thousands of experts who are trained teachers and who are available for advisory work. Scattered throughout the country are county extension agents whose duty it is to assist farmers and farm organizations. A complete directory of these agents can be secured from the United States Department of Agriculture (address Extension Division) or the address of the nearest county agent can be secured by writing the Department. His headquarters are usually at the county seat, where his office is customarily in the Federal Building. These agents and the state agricultural authorities should be called on by the institution for help in planning the training program and for advice and assistance from time to time after it is initiated. Federal authorities can be called on for general advice, guidance in the meeting of special problems, and the excellent informative and instructional material which they continually publish. Practically all of the services

of both state and federal authorities can be obtained without cost.

COMMERCIAL EDUCATION

Limitations. Programs of commercial education in penal institutions will always be handicapped by the lack of varied opportunities for practical training. In the offices of the institution, where a number of prisoners are customarily employed, facilities for instruction are limited: only a few of the many mechanical office appliances whose operation is now a specialized occupation are available. It is unlikely that the purchase of appliances for training purposes would be sanctioned. One can always teach the old stand-bys: stenography, typewriting and bookkeeping. To limit the program to these subjects, however, is to duplicate the weaknesses of commercial schools in the world outside and to neglect more than 95 per cent of all commercial occupations. There are today hundreds of specialized occupations in the commercial world into which men go. Stenography especially is becoming almost exclusively a woman's profession and fewer men are studying it every year.

In general, we may as well admit that the opportunities for commercial education in our prisons and reformatories are so limited that it must be a minor educational activity. It is some comfort to know that there is very little effective commercial education being given in the world outside, except in schools teaching a small number of the older occupations and in actual commercial establishments. Commercial work is largely learned by the pick-up method on the job itself. Furthermore, we must recognize the fact that ex-prisoners cannot enter some types of commercial service and that a man with a criminal record has great difficulty in securing a position of trust in an office or elsewhere. Whenever prisoners are not likely to meet insurmountable handicaps, however, they should be given as much training as possible in order that their superior knowledge and skill may compensate in some degree for their records when they apply for positions in competition with other men.

Office Work. In spite of the handicaps and the narrow range of training courses that appear feasible, commercial education of certain types can be given to a number of prisoners. The more important offices of the larger institutions, those of the Warden, Deputy Warden, Chief Clerk, Disbursing Clerk, Steward, Storekeeper, Parole Officer and Record Clerk, afford one opportunity. Men assigned to these offices can supplement theoretical training by a certain amount of practical application in stenography, typewriting, bookkeeping, accounting, filing, etc. They can be instructed in the use of the few mechanical appliances available. The more capable prisoners will usually be assigned to the offices relatively early in their sentences, for there is an immediate demand for the services of any prisoner capable of doing good office work. They can, as soon as assigned, be put on a full-time training basis, their daily work filling the requirement that part of any training course be devoted to practical work. Others, who aspire to positions in the offices, can be given preparatory courses in either a full-time or a part-time training class. If the training class is used as a feeder for the office details, even a green man can receive a training course and complete a substantial period of employment before leaving the institution. Civilian clerks and the more capable inmates will usually have to be utilized as instructors, but arrangements can sometimes be made to secure a number of part-time instructors from the nearest city.

Buying and Selling. Instruction in occupations concerned with buying and selling is possible for only a few men. A number of prisoners have had enough experience in these occupations so they can successfully study correspondence

courses. The man who has had experience in advertising or in the retail selling field can derive some benefit from pure theory, but men without experience should be encouraged to take correspondence courses only in fields in which the institution affords opportunities to apply the course material. Selling cannot be learned from either textbooks or correspondence courses alone.

A Special Course. There is one type of position for which penal institutions might well prepare men very definitely. This is the position of clerk in a store in a small community. If an ex-prisoner applying for such a position can show that, in addition to acting as a clerk, he is capable of keeping the books and typing well enough to send out the monthly bills and to write business letters, he will have a much better chance of securing employment.

A Survey Course. Since specific training for only a few commercial occupations can be offered, a course should be organized to give a survey of the field, indicating what opportunities there are, what the basic requirements are for various types of positions, what the wage scale is, what the opportunities and requirements for promotion are, and how one may secure training after leaving the institution. This type of course can be coupled with a special attempt at vocational guidance for men who think that they wish to enter commercial pursuits. In brief, not being able to give complete training, we may at least give guidance and may help to make adjustments.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the following facts appear of primary importance in the establishment of a successful program of vocational education in a penal institution:

1. We should be content with a limited enrollment if those enrolled are being effectively taught. On the other

hand, we should recognize the fact that something of value can be taught the worker in even the most simple and least skilled vocation.

2. Limiting instruction to relatively few trades and the teaching of obsolete or passing trades should be avoided.

3. Training should be planned in accordance with individual needs and capabilities, not on a mass-treatment basis.

4. Vocational guidance should be correlated with careful placement and follow-up after release.

5. The subject matter and method of instruction should be based on actual current occupational standards.

6. The instructor must be thoroughly trained in the vocation he teaches; he should have had training in the technique of teaching it; he should be capable of making scientific job analyses.

7. Ample opportunity for participation in practical work on a productive and useful basis is essential; effective training can best be given on a real job; routine training exercises are not a satisfactory substitute.

8. Practically all the standard types of organization found in the vocational training field outside the penal institution are adaptable for use in institutions; the chief needs are for adequate funds and skilled supervision.

CHAPTER X

The Library as an Agency of Education

THE importance of libraries in penal institutions from the standpoint of wholesome recreation has long been admitted. We are primarily concerned here with the potential value of the library as an agency of education. Much recreational reading is indirectly educational, but the library has possibilities for direct education that have not yet been realized in any penal institution in the country. If one could choose only one of the agencies necessary for a well-rounded program of education in a penal institution, he would do well to choose an adequate library. The possible values of directed reading are almost limitless, especially in the field of adult education. We already appreciate these values in public library work.

THE WEAKNESS OF INSTITUTION LIBRARIES

Institution libraries have never had an opportunity to prove their value in education. For the most part they are very poor. The usual prison library consists of a mongrel collection of gift books, many of which are discards from city libraries or the homes of well-meaning citizens. Almost never does one see new or attractive books in fresh bindings on its shelves. The latest books seldom go to prisons; best sellers do not find their way there until they have been superseded by many generations of champions-for-a-month. There is rarely a regular appropriation for new books. One New York prison with sixteen hundred inmates spent only

$34 in a year for library books. In another large prison part of the meager funds available for books was used to purchase horseshoes. In a third prison funds directly appropriated for library purposes were used to purchase saxophones and baseballs. Probably less than a half-dozen prisons and reformatories for adults have a regular appropriation of $500 or more a year, appropriated specifically for the library and used exclusively for that purpose. Most institutional libraries are not libraries at all, properly speaking, but merely collections of books.

Other points of weakness of major importance are the lack of trained supervision, which is discussed more fully later, and the lack of reader-stimulation and reader-guidance. The routine service of supplying books to the inmates functions as efficiently as the intelligent and conscientious prisoners customarily assigned to the library are able to make it function, but there is little beyond routine service in most institution libraries. No effort is made to stimulate the prisoner's interest in reading except for an occasional preachy talk by the chaplain, who too often makes reading sound like a mystic rite to be engaged in after fasting and ablutions. Similarly, articles written in the prison paper by erudite inmates on the value of reading are full of sugary abstractions; they seldom get down to brass tacks and tell the prisoners exactly what the library has to offer that is worth reading and that would be interesting reading. Reader-guidance is too often confined to the suggestion of a busy library messenger about to hoist up his end of a heavy tray load of books, "All he reads is Westerns. Give him another Zane Grey." It is only fair to say that some inmate librarians spend hours in the cell houses, giving the best advice they can to applicants for books and trying to interest prisoners in reading better books than they customarily ask for.

There is in prisons little of that direct contact of the reader with the library which the city library promotes in every way possible. The library is very nearly as inaccessible as the arsenal. Readers must select books from catalogs which range all the way from a serviceable printed pamphlet, a copy of which is available for each prisoner and which is kept up to date by occasional lists of new books, to a single torn typewritten list which is passed around the cell house until it becomes more dog-eared than the books which it lists. The prisoner keeps ten numbers always on his call card. On each issue day a library runner brings to his cell one of the ten books called for, if it is available, or some hastily chosen substitute.

Yet prisoners read, persistently and widely. The libraries, poor as they are, are among the few bright spots in American prisons. Some prisoners take out in a month as many books as the average citizen takes out of his public library in a year. Circulation figures, to be sure, cannot always be trusted. One large institution gives each prisoner a work of fiction and one of nonfiction every week, regardless of his wishes and his reading ability. The total number of books thus distributed is solemnly entered in the annual report as the library circulation. It is not unusual, however, to find *bona fide* circulation figures running as high as two books per inmate per month, which is far better than the general average of the free population. At the United States Penitentiary at McNeil Island, Washington, where large numbers of new books are received as gifts from publishers and where intelligent efforts are made to arouse reading interest and to guide it, the circulation averaged 6 books per inmate for the month of January, 1930, and 4.4 books per month for the quarter ending September 30, 1930. In this prison, as at the Federal Industrial Reformatory at Chillicothe,

Ohio, many of the devices for stimulating reader-interest suggested later in this chapter are in use.

Not all the prisoners' reading is of the lower grades of fiction, although adventure stories are in the greatest demand. One constantly encounters men in prisons who have read numbers of books on the most abstruse and outlandish subjects. Men with real intellectual interests, lacking guidance, flounder in the veritable bogs of books to which they turn because of a rather pathetic desire for learning. There is a continual demand for books having vocational interest. Pre-war dates on the title page do not keep prisoners from reading history; fine type and undistinguished authors do not drive them from philosophy and psychology. As for aviation and radio and automobiles, prisoners continually ask for books on these subjects although they know that most of those available date back to the days when the Ford was cursed because it was too slow on the road rather than because it was too fast.

Methods of Improvement

What is needed to make the prison library fulfill its proper function as an educational agency is indicated by the weaknesses cited above. The two chief needs are for adequate finances and for skilled supervision, the latter involving the application of standard library technique not only in the mechanical processes but also in the stimulation and guidance of readers' interests.

A Thorough Culling. Most libraries need, first of all, a thorough going-over by some trained person with authority to cull ruthlessly. He should consign to the scrap-heap books that will never be read: dull books, out-of-date books, books with too-small type, worn-out books, books that lack literary merit, books full of bogus science and philosophy, long-winded books, books that treat their subjects obscurely,

over-technical books, and all others that simply clutter up the shelves and the pages of the catalogs.

Regular Accessions. The next step, if it is decided to build up a strong local library and not to rely primarily on the resources of the state library, is to develop a well-rounded collection by one fairly large initial purchase and regular accessions thereafter of carefully selected books in both the fiction and nonfiction fields. The best of the new books, especially in the field of biography, exploration, science and history, should be purchased regularly. A substantial part of the funds available should be devoted to the replacement of popular books that wear out quickly from constant circulation and to the purchase of extra copies of books which are in special demand or which are needed in connection with educational work and reading courses.

Cost. The development and maintenance of an adequate library is an expensive project, although the appearance of an increasing number of excellent books in cheap editions has reduced costs considerably. To give some idea of what a library program may cost, it is estimated that each of the two 3500-man federal penitentiaries at Leavenworth and Atlanta, which already have large but poorly balanced collections of books derived from World War cantonment libraries, will need an annual expenditure for books and supplies of at least $2500 for two years and $1500 a year thereafter. It is planned to spend $6000 to establish the library in the new Michigan prison at Jackson. An annual appropriation of $500 to $1000 will go a long way in any but the largest institutions. A fair estimate of the minimum amount needed is $1 per inmate per year.

Begging. If regular appropriations cannot be obtained, the institution will have to resort to the time-honored practice of begging. This is an unsatisfactory method of getting new books, but if it is done intelligently a fairly good library

can be developed in a few years. McNeil Island, which has aroused the friendly interest of a number of publishers, in 1929 received $2800 worth of new books as gifts direct from publishers and dealers. Some of these were from overstock and others had slight defects, but the list of books received contained many fine titles and it is probable that this penitentiary today has on its shelves more readable new books than any other penal institution in the country.

Book reviewers are a possible source of supply, as are selected lists of private citizens. The public can be relied on to give books to prisons if the interest of newspapers, fraternal organizations, service clubs, and similar sources of help is secured. Solicitation should be selective and specific whenever possible. When an appeal is sent out it should not be simply for books, but should specify what types of books are needed, what particular books (by title or by classification) are needed most and what books are not wanted. Sometimes a more general appeal is necessary, as after a fire or after a thorough culling of the library. Service clubs or fraternal organizations in any state could do a useful piece of constructive social service if they would establish at railroad stations and other conspicuous points book boxes similar to those placed by the American Merchant Marine Library Association, which supplies books to the crews of our merchant ships. This organization has had great success with this method of collecting books.

Magazines can be obtained almost by the ton for the asking. At the end of each month news dealers tear the covers off their surplus magazines and return them to the publishers for credit. They usually sell the magazines themselves as old paper. Penal institutions can often obtain this surplus without cost or at a nominal cost. The monthly supply thus obtained will contain large numbers of magazines that are usually barred from prisons, but it is easy

enough to throw these away and to retain those that are suitable. It must be emphasized, however, that begging should be considered as a last resort and that the only way to be sure of developing a well-rounded and adequate library is the dignified way of securing regular and sufficient appropriations for library purposes and providing for intelligent direction in the expenditure of book and magazine funds.

The Minnesota and Wisconsin Systems

Two states, Minnesota and Wisconsin, are doing especially noteworthy work with their prison and reformatory libraries. Their approach to the problem has been on two different lines and their joint experience is significant for all institution libraries. In Minnesota there is an institutional librarian under the State Board of Control. She has supervision over library work in all the state institutions, not alone the penal institutions. Funds are made available for annual accessions of new books, expenditures are spread out through the year, and selections are made from a variety of fields. The institutional librarian selects new books, supervises the work of the inmate librarians, helps with the classification and cataloging, suggests methods of interesting and advising readers, and in general does everything that an expert nonresident librarian can do. The result is that the Minnesota State Prison at Stillwater has one of the best penal institution libraries in the country, and that of the Reformatory for Men at St. Cloud is nearly as good. The rather rigorous routine of the Minnesota Prison prevents the library from attaining the fullest possible degree of usefulness, but results in this state afford full justification for the system of having a state institutional librarian. The present incumbent of the office is Miss Perrie Jones.

Wisconsin approaches the problem from a different angle. Here the State Free Library Commission, the secretary of

which is Mr. Clarence B. Lester, offers to inmates of the penal institutions the same privileges that other citizens of the state enjoy: securing books from the State Library if they pay the postage one way. On his frequent visits to the State Prison and the State Reformatory for Men Mr. Chester Allen, organizer of field work for the University of Wisconsin Extension Division, acts also as the personal representative of the Library Commission. He gives prisoners advice on what to read and gives the Commission the information which it needs on the educational background and the interests of applicants for books. The Commission supplies inmates with a large number of reading lists and reading courses, preparing them for individual prisoners when standard lists do not meet the situation. The courses requested cover a wide range of interests. No attempt is made in Wisconsin to build up a complete institutional library. The Library Commission tries to see that the institutions have in their local collections books which are in constant demand, but relies on its central collection at Madison to supply the more expensive books, those which are not often in demand, those which are especially needed for reading courses, and books which pass quickly out of date.

To any state setting out to establish an adequate library service for its penal institutions, a combination of the Minnesota and the Wisconsin methods is recommended. Under this plan the institution would purchase a relatively small but well-rounded initial collection of books and would supplement it by regular purchases of new books, especially in the field of current fiction, standard history, biography, science, etc. It would then supplement this collection by loans from the state library along the lines followed by Wisconsin. The state institutional librarian should be a member of the staff of the state library or the library commission and should supervise the libraries in the several

institutions, rendering a large amount of service from the central office by supplying guidance material and selecting books for purchase, visiting the institutions often enough to keep thoroughly in touch with the libraries and their needs, and frequently settling down at each institution long enough to give expert reader-guidance to individuals. The efforts of the institutional librarian should be supplemented by occasional visits from other members of the state library staff, members of the faculty of the state university and teachers from near-by city schools. Any member of the state library staff who is responsible for directing efforts to stimulate the interest of readers throughout the state should add the penal institutions to his field of effort. In the extension of loan service to the prisoners, either the state library or the institution should pay the whole cost of postage, as even a few cents represent a substantial sum of money to the average prisoner. Postage can more fairly be charged to the institution appropriation than to the state library appropriation.

The Need of Resident Librarians

The setting up of an effective type of state organization does not obviate the desirability of having trained resident librarians in all penal institutions. At best, state direction is long-distance direction: selection of new books for purchase must be based on occasional contact with a very limited number of prisoners, and guidance of readers must be based on written requests, condensed analyses of their qualifications and interests, or hurried interviews.

The Present Situation. So far as the writer knows, there is only one library school-trained librarian in all the penal institutions in the country, Roland Mulhauser of the United States Industrial Reformatory at Chillicothe, Ohio. College graduates with teaching experience have been appointed to

the position of librarian at the Kansas State Industrial Reformatory and at the Michigan Prison at Jackson. In a large eastern penitentiary and in a second western reformatory officers are detailed to the libraries; they are interested in their work but have no training for it. In several of the reformatories for men and women the library is in charge of the educational director or a teacher. In the remainder of our penal institutions the libraries are either in charge of unsupervised inmates or chaplains who are usually energetic and conscientious but untrained. Some chaplains, educational directors, teachers and inmates have learned a great deal about institutional library work through years of experience. Only a few are apparently familiar with the standard practices which are A B C to the trained librarian. It is not lack of will and interest, but lack of knowledge which handicaps our present prison library staffs, both inmate and official. One has only to see even the best prison library under inexpert management to realize how much more could be done if it were supervised by a trained worker.

Selection of Librarians. Where to find competent librarians for penal institutions for men is a problem. The American Library Association through its personnel service offers assistance in such matters, but the number of suitable men is limited. The work calls not only for professional competence but also for a special type of personality which is unfortunately not found often enough among male librarians. It is a mistake, however, to assume that the librarian must be a hail-fellow-well-met, back-slapping type of individual. The man who knows and loves books, who likes and understands human beings, who does not find the ignorant and the lowbrow beyond his comprehension or beneath his interest, who has a simple, direct and natural approach, will get along in a penal institution. There are men of this type to be had; one would expect to find one in a city library

which serves a clientele of industrial workers, foreign-born groups or other underprivileged and undereducated readers. Because of the low rate of pay prevailing in the library profession, a prison librarian can probably be secured at a salary around $2500. If a satisfactory candidate cannot be found among trained librarians, he can probably be found in the educational field. A man who knows books by intensive application to a short course of training can learn enough library technique to qualify for a prison position. There are teachers in dozens of country colleges and city universities who would make excellent institutional librarians.

Women Librarians. The day may yet come, moreover, when the attitude of prison officials will be liberal enough to permit women librarians to enter the service of penal institutions. Women nurses are already being successfully used in a number of prisons and reformatories for men. It is true that the woman librarian would meet some obstacles; she could not, for example, browse around in the cell blocks, talking to individual readers at will. This places a serious limitation on her effectiveness. On the other hand, one can get more personality and training for the same amount of money in a woman librarian than in a man librarian. If prisoners were given more ready access to the library and to the office of the librarian, where they could sit down and talk over their reading interests and capabilities, a woman librarian could render service of a very high order.

Federal Librarians. In the federal penal system there is a Supervising Librarian, with headquarters in Washington. There is a trained librarian in only one institution, the Reformatory at Chillicothe, Ohio. Pending the appointment of others, this librarian is being sent in succession to each of the penitentiaries to reorganize the libraries and establish a system of reader-guidance. As he leaves each institution a

trained librarian or a college graduate with a broad knowledge of books will be appointed to take charge of the program which he has set up. In the meantime, the Supervising Librarian is rounding out the libraries with purchases of new books and is issuing simple bulletins on technique for the guidance of the educational directors and inmates now in charge of the institution libraries.

Inmate Librarians. We cannot do away with inmate librarians entirely by substituting trained, paid librarians, nor would one wish to do so. One trained librarian can organize and train a staff of inmates so that they will do with increasing effectiveness the work which most of them are doing so well now, considering their handicaps. It is the function of the librarian to supervise and direct; the library work of any penal institution requires a fairly large inmate staff. Inmates should be selected on the basis of their ability to perform specialized functions or should be trained to perform special duties. For example, one member of the staff should be able to give advice on technical books, another on fiction, perhaps a third on books relating to agriculture and allied pursuits. There should be at least one inmate, perhaps a former advertising man, whose duty it is to handle the publicity of the library, to sell the library to the inmates. Some will do nothing but classify and catalog, others will help in the preparation of reading lists, and still others will be counter attendants or book delivery men. Prisoners will derive a great deal of satisfaction from learning how to do a specialized library job well.

The Use of Standard Library Technique

There is no reason why standard library technique should not be applied to the prison library as well as to the city library. It is as easy to use standard methods of classification and cataloging as homemade ones and much more satis-

fying. Mere collections and alphabetical lists of books are material in the raw and their full usefulness is not realized until they are worked on by the tools of the librarian. Such systems and devices as the Dewey Decimal Classification and the Cutter-Sanborn numbering system,* making each book available by the author, title or subject approach, shelf lists, and annotated booklists probably enhance the real usefulness of a library ten-fold and are not as complicated or hard to master as is generally supposed.

The Printed Catalog. Until it is possible for inmates to have access to the books or to card catalogs, it is desirable to have a printed catalog and to provide each inmate with a copy, supplying him with supplemental lists of new books from time to time. A printed catalog giving descriptive notes on every book in the collection would be too bulky, but it is possible and certainly desirable to include notes on some of the more worth while books and thus to give them prominence. The fiction and nonfiction should be separated in the catalog and part or all of the latter can be annotated. Greater care should be taken in the preparation of a printed catalog than is usually the case. An outside librarian might well be brought in for this task, which need not be done often.

The catalog should be prepared with the viewpoint of the user in mind; it is to be an aid in finding what there is in the book collection meeting his interests. Many minutely divided subject headings should be used and each book should be listed under as many of these headings as apply to its subject matter or even to a portion of it. An alternative to this method is an extensive subject, author and title index in the back of the catalog, the books being grouped in the main section under their classification numbers. The experience of several institutions appears to indicate that

* See Appendix.

there is no particular advantage in having a loose-leaf catalog and that the loose-leaf type does not stand constant use as well as the bound type.

The Card Catalog. The printed catalog can best be compiled from a card catalog of the type used in public libraries. This should be carefully kept as the main working tool of the library staff even though the prisoners cannot have access to it. On the grounds of efficiency and convenience to the library staff alone such a catalog is warranted and, if effective reader-guidance and selection of books for individuals is to be carried on, it becomes almost essential. A card catalog (on standard 3" x 5" cards) combines in one alphabet listings under author's name, title and as many different subjects as apply to a given book. For example, H. D. Kitson has a book called *How to Find the Right Vocation.* In the catalog we would expect to find a card under "Kitson, H. D.," another under "How to Find, etc.," another under "Vocations," another under "Education, vocational," another under "Occupations," and perhaps another under "Success." Pamphlets and sections of books (where several different topics are discussed in one book) and even noteworthy magazine articles are caught and saved from comparative oblivion by the card catalog. Detailed instruction on making a card catalog is to be found in the Appendix.

Providing funds for equipment necessary to establish a card catalog may be difficult. Institutions with carpenter shops or cabinetmaking equipment can make their own card trays and cabinets. Waste cards, used or printed on one side, can sometimes be had for the asking from large libraries. Inmate time to compile the card catalog is usually available in abundance. A man who works on a compilation of this sort has a chance to become the kind of librarian who "knows his books."

The Shelf List. The shelf list is a second tool of primary importance. It is to the librarian what a stock record is to a merchant. It is not an essential, however, in a small prison library or where inmates do not have direct access to the card catalog. In the small institution the card catalog just described may be made to serve the purposes of a shelf list in some degree. The shelf list is a set of cards, one for each book in the collection, not arranged alphabetically, but numerically, by classification and book number, so that the cards stand in the drawer in the same order as that in which the books stand on the shelves. Each card contains a more or less complete description of the book, its author, complete title, publisher, date and place of publication, its size, number of pages, accession number, class and book number, miscellaneous information such as dates rebound, subject entries in the main catalog, etc. The shelf list is useful in an inventory as an accurate record of the book stock. It is indispensable where the card catalog is open to public use. Under these circumstances the catalog is less detailed in its technical information on each book and more subject to change and loss of cards. Finally, the shelf list is an excellent basic list from which to prepare the more expansive subject card catalog.

Charging Forms. Neither the card catalog nor the shelf list is to be used as a charging record for the loaning of books. They are records of what the library owns and informational aids for its use. For records of books loaned out the average prison library requires a much less complicated system than the public library. The following forms are suggested: a book card, a date-due slip, a prisoner's call card, and a book pocket. Each of these is described in the Appendix.

The book card is kept in the book pocket on the inside of the back cover when the book is on the shelves. When the book is loaned the librarian removes the book card, stamps the date of issue or the date on which the book is due and writes the prisoner's number opposite this date. He files the book card in a tray and keeps it in the library as a definite record that the book is loaned to such and such a prisoner. All book cards for books loaned on the 10th day of the month, for example, are kept together in the tray behind an index- or guide-card which bears on its projecting tab the figure "10." When the book is returned the book card is taken from the tray and replaced in the book pocket. The date-due slip may be simply a blank sheet of paper pasted on the back of the last flyleaf of the book. The date due (or date of issue) is also stamped here when it is stamped on the book card so that the librarian may know where to look in his date file for the book card of that particular book when it is returned.

The prisoner's call card bears at the top the name, register number and cell or dormitory number of the prisoner to whom it belongs. In the space below the prisoner writes the author and title or the book number of at least ten books which he would like to read. The call card travels to and from the library in books being issued or returned. As each book is issued the title is checked or crossed out with a blue pencil. This gives a running record of what the prisoner reads and some idea of his reading interests.

Rebinding. Another process in which standard technique should be followed is the rebinding of books which are worn out. An effort should be made not only to rebind them strongly but also to give them attractive bindings. It is well known that readers are repelled by the dull and unattractive covers which are often put on books when they are rebound. The inmate librarian at the Delaware State Prison, for example, puts several different types of attractive bindings on worn-out books. A coat of book lacquer gives a rebound

book a clean, fresh finish. The neatness and attractiveness of books, both new and old, are enhanced if care is taken in numbering. An electric stylus for numbering and lettering books can be obtained at small cost.

The Stimulation and Guidance of Readers' Interest

The need of trained supervision extends beyond the mechanical processes of the library. The most important function the librarian can perform is directing the work of stimulating and guiding the interest of readers. In the absence of a trained librarian this can be done by intelligent prisoners if they are given liberal support by the prison officials, but it is properly work for an expert. One of the most significant recent developments in city library practice is the appointment of trained readers' advisers and the use of a variety of methods of interesting and directing readers. This standard practice should be introduced into all institutions. With prisoners guidance takes on double significance, for their tastes in most cases start on a relatively low level and it is the obvious task of the prison as an agency of intellectual as well as moral improvement to improve their reading tastes if it can be done. Reading tastes are not to be raised by one dead lift but up an inclined plane. It is the task of the librarian to indicate the successive hand-holds that are always just above the prisoner's head and to encourage him to make the climb. If he does not succeed in interesting his reader in going above a certain level, he can at least show him how he can read more widely and with greater satisfaction on that level. Sometimes the librarian will succeed in getting the reader to follow a planned, comprehensive, and coördinated course of reading, based perhaps on a prepared list; at other times he will carefully avoid everything that has any of the earmarks of the mechanical and the formal and will lead the reader along by week-to-week

advice which apparently has no thread of continuity. Prisoners are like outsiders in that they tend to become tired when a planned reading course stretches too far ahead of them.

Devices and Methods

Among the devices and methods suggested as likely to prove effective in stimulating and guiding prisoners' interest in reading are the following:

1. *Posters displayed in various parts of the prison.* These can be homemade and can either consist of striking appeals to take advantage of the library or of more specific appeals to particular interests. In either case the general effect is to arouse interest in reading. For example, a striking colored picture of a clipper ship under full sail can be pasted on a poster with the caption in large letters "Follow the Sea in Books." Under this can be given the titles and call numbers of a half-dozen sea stories or other works relating to the sea which are available in the library. Under a full page from the New York Times rotogravure section giving pictures of the Byrd Expedition can be listed a number of books dealing with Arctic or Antarctic exploration or with exploration in general. Anybody with a flair for publicity can think of a great variety of striking posters that can be made in the institution.

2. *Establishment of bulletin boards* in cell houses, shops, the barber shop, the entrances to the mess hall and chapel, and other parts of the prison where they will be seen by large numbers of inmates. These bulletins can be made from a large piece of beaver board, to which is thumb-tacked eye-arresting material: book jackets, striking advertisements, rotogravure and other newspaper pictures, etc., with corresponding book titles and call numbers. On the bulletin board can also be placed printed book reviews,

publishers' notes, typewritten sheets quoting striking paragraphs from books, reading lists, lists of new books and lists of books on special subjects. In every display the titles and call numbers of the books to which it is desired to call attention should be given.

3. *Displays of special books or collections of books.* If enough prisoners have access to the library to make it worth while these displays can be on the library counter or on a table or shelf to which they have access. A number of sealed book cases, similar to those seen outside of city bookstores, can be placed in various parts of the prison and the books constantly changed to excite fresh attention. One case may contain a dozen books recently received, another a dozen good autobiographies, another a collection of books on radio, etc. A library runner can carry a tray of new books through the cell houses, allowing individual prisoners to examine them and make out call slips. The order in which the books requested by several inmates will be issued can later be determined by lot.

4. *Magazine displays.* These can take the form of displays of magazine covers or the advertising posters used by news stands. Special posters can be made calling attention to one particular magazine. For example, a striking poster can be made with colored travel pictures and the caption "Have You Seen the National Geographic This Month?" Last year a poster bearing a large display picture of ex-Governor Smith could have carried the caption "Al Smith's Autobiography Starts in This Week's Saturday Evening Post."

5. *The establishment of traveling libraries.* These may be either traveling collections secured from the state library and loaned in succession to various cell houses, shops and farm units, or traveling collections prepared in the prison library itself. They should be allowed to remain in each part

of the prison for only a restricted number of weeks, but a list of the books in the traveling collection should be posted in that part of the prison in order that individual books may be called for again.

6. *Publication of a special library bulletin* or a special section in the prison paper or occasional fliers distributed throughout the institution. This gives an opportunity for special articles, information about new books, suggestions for reading lists and courses, book notes and reviews obtained from outside sources or written by prisoners, and other stimulating material.

7. *Distribution of notes* from American Library Association publications or booksellers' journals through the channels described above.

8. *Talks on books and reading* by the librarian or by capable outsiders. These may be talks (perhaps four-minute) before the weekly movie show, talks in various classes in the school, informal talks in shops and living quarters, and talks over the prison radio if there is a central broadcasting system. Talks of this type should be specific, telling exactly what books the library has to offer, showing how one can improve his reading in any particular field, discussing current topics and telling what books bear on them, etc. Occasionally a small group of the most interested readers should be taken through the library by the librarian and an informal talk given as they browse around among the shelves. On these occasions the librarian can call attention to books in special fields and can make illuminating comments on specific books. Whenever a lecturer comes to the prison a list of books dealing with the subject which he discusses should be posted on the bulletin boards or should be made the subject of a brief talk.

9. *The preparation of special annotated lists of books.* Prisoners, in common with other uninformed readers, need

book notes to make intelligent selections from catalog lists. Annotated lists of books are available from the American Library Association and other sources. The prison librarian can check his own library against these lists and can utilize the prepared notes. One wise inmate librarian makes it a part of the duty of the members of his staff to read books and prepare brief book notes on them to ensure their becoming familiar with the books which they are recommending to their readers. If annotated lists are issued from time to time, the need of a complete catalog decreases in importance.

10. *The preparation and publication of reading lists and courses.* Prepared lists on a variety of subjects are available from a number of sources; they are often not wholly useful to the prisons because so many of the books called for are not in the prison library. The American Library Association's *Reading with a Purpose Series* is a helpful guide although it is over the heads of the majority of prisoners. One of the best aids in making up reading lists is Felsenthal's *Readable Books in Many Subjects,* a carefully selected and annotated list of "first books." Lists of suggested books and consecutive reading courses should be prepared by the librarian on those subjects in which there is a continuous interest among prisoners. Other lists and courses should be prepared for individual prisoners after a careful interview in which their interests and capabilities are thoroughly assessed.

11. *Reader guidance by personal interview.* Intelligent inmates can do this if they have a sufficiently wide knowledge of books. The guidance may be given by supplying a list of books or by informal advice from week to week, the reader reporting to his adviser after he has completed each book and deciding with him which book he wishes to read next. This type of guidance furnishes the best possible

means of improving reading habits. A prisoner, for example, who begins by reading the cheaper form of western fiction can gradually be led up the scale in the fiction field and perhaps can be interested in more substantial reading if he has sufficient language ability.

12. *Organization of read-a-book-together groups.* If given the opportunity, men of similar tastes and interests will find interest in reading a half-dozen books in rotation and meeting to discuss them under guidance. This can sometimes be done in connection with organized educational work, but it is possible to make effective use of this device in an informal way. Larger groups can sometimes be brought in to listen to an informal debate between members of the reading group on books dealing with subjects of general interest.

13. *Correlation of educational work and reading.* Special bulletin boards should be placed in the schoolrooms and shops and material on books related to the subjects being studied should be displayed and renewed frequently. The educational department and the library should be considered parts of the same general organization.

14. *Correlation of other activities and reading.* The weekly moving pictures, both feature films and news reels, continually suggest books which should be called to the attention of the prisoners on the bulletin boards or by slides during the performance. In the shoe shop, electrical shop and other maintenance shops or industries, bulletin boards and other devices should be used to call the attention of the workers to the books which bear on these activities. Trade journals should be available, and lists of trade journals which can be obtained from the library or on subscription should be posted in the parts of the prison where they will have the greatest interest.

15. *Making the library more accessible to the prisoners.* The ideal condition exists when the library is located in a part of the prison to which the prisoners can have access both during the day and the evening hours. It should be equipped with well-lighted reading tables, newspaper racks, magazine tables, and the other paraphernalia of the ordinary reading room. The routine of most institutions will unfortunately not permit many of the prisoners to have free access to a room of this type. Even where restrictions are placed on the majority of the prisoners, the officials can well extend this privilege to special groups or to individuals who have earned the privilege and can be trusted not to abuse it. If the library cannot have a reading room, it should at least be so located that the prisoners can occasionally come to the counter and can make book selections more directly than by the call card method. In several institutions the library is located at a central point which is passed by large numbers of prisoners in the course of the day and the privilege of going to the counter is granted very freely.

16. *Employing standard technique.* Standard methods of classification, cataloging and distribution increase interest in the library by making it more easy to discover what it contains and to get the books one wishes.

The Reading Interests of Prisoners

The subject of reader-guidance opens up the question of what prisoners would like to read if they had the opportunity to select from a well-balanced and well-advertised library supplying some measure of intelligent and sympathetic direction. We can only surmise what prisoners' real reading interests are because in no penal institution are the inmates served by such a library. Nine out of ten institution librarians sum up the situation by saying, "Prisoners like

adventure fiction, especially Westerns, best of all but there is some demand for the finest types of nonfiction and a steady demand for other nonfiction works, especially those having vocational interest." Any prison librarian can read to advantage Gray and Munroe: *The Reading Interests and Habits of Adults.** This study does not deal specifically with prisoners but it must be remembered that the interests of inmates of penal institutions do not differ greatly from those of the general population. The introduction to the Felsenthal list should also be referred to as throwing light on what adults read. A survey of reading interests has recently been made at the Michigan Prison at Jackson by State Library representatives.

The inmate librarian at McNeil Island classifies his readers roughly as follows: "(1) The average reader, desiring the ordinary run of popular fiction or advertised nonfiction; about 50 per cent of our readers. (2) The reader definitely desirous of improving his general knowledge, leaning strongly towards philosophy, ethics, travel, history, and biography; these would appreciate reading courses; perhaps 20 per cent. (3) The ill-educated student, who in many cases is incapable of reading for pleasure except in the very ordinary type of novel, and who can be led into merging his reading and study only by a diplomatic approach; about 25 per cent. (4) The better-than-average reader, of some taste and discretion in his choice of books; these have less to select from than have any of the others and probably feel the lack more keenly; about 5 per cent." This librarian points out the marked tendency on the part of newcomers to prison, after they have got past the first few days of uncertainty, to call for many of the classics, fiction and nonfiction, in order to read what "they have never found time to read before."

* Macmillan, 1929.

The great majority of prisoners obviously prefer recreational reading of the lighter variety to reading which has educational or cultural value. This is a natural and not an unwholesome attitude. The present discussion of the library as an educational agency is not intended to belittle its value as a recreational agency. The writer has no desire to eliminate "Westerns" from the institutional library. If prisoners read nothing but fiction the library's place in the prison would be justified. But its aim has not been achieved until an honest attempt has been made to raise reading tastes. The difficulty of converting interest in fiction into interest in nonfiction is not an insuperable one. A practicable method is indicated by the following possible transfers of interest, assuming always sufficient reading ability on the part of the person being advised: from Sabatini's *The Sea Hawk* to *Elizabethan Seadogs* in the Yale *Chronicles of America;* from any of Zane Grey's works to Roosevelt's *Winning of the West;* from Churchill's *The Crisis* to Carl Sandburg's books on Lincoln. These suggestions could be multiplied indefinitely.

Censorship

The problem of censorship is a difficult one for every institution. There is at least one large prison library where no book is admitted which is at variance with the chaplain's very narrow religious and scientific beliefs. This is plainly an improper basis for censorship. The two chief problems are books emphasizing sex and those featuring crime and mystery. The writer has talked frankly with a large number of prisoners on these questions and especially about their attitude towards books dealing directly or indirectly with sex. He is convinced that we do too much worrying about the necessity of repressing their reading interests in this direction. It is true that prisoners are living under conditions which make them abnormally conscious of the absence of sex in their lives. Books which deal with the subject honestly, whether they are popular modern novels or serious nonfiction, can be used to help prisoners make adjustments to their present life and may help them to clear up some of the difficulties which have led them into trouble in their life outside the prison. It should not be necessary to add that reading in the field of sex should be wisely and sympathetically guided, and that such books as *Three Weeks* have no place in the prison. As for crime and mystery stories, it is undoubtedly wise to reduce them to the minimum in the prison library. Our efforts should be directed toward substituting interest in adventure books dealing with the hazards of exploration, the sea, and pioneer life for interest in the detective stories and crime stories which the average citizen outside the prison reads constantly and which the prisoner wishes to read.

Magazines and Newspapers

The institution should subscribe to as large a number of magazines as it can afford and should secure an additional supply, whenever possible, by gift. The magazines made available to the prisoner should include not only those dealing with science, invention, current history, social problems, current events, trade, commerce, travel, geography, and so on, but the better literary magazines and the better magazines in the fiction field. Trashy and shoddy magazines of all types should be banned on literary as well as moral grounds, although some adventure magazines which possess slight literary quality may safely be admitted and may be used as a first step in the development of better reading tastes.

Mr. John Cotton Dana once pointed out the fact that weekly and monthly periodicals now offer such a rich supply

of readable fiction that librarians may well consider the advisability of reducing the amount spent each year on the purchase of popular current fiction and of diverting the reduction to two things: (1) The purchase, promotion of interest in, and the lending of those few hundred novels which are generally accepted as the best; and (2) the purchase, promotion of interest in, and the lending of books and journals which deal with the questions of science, invention, production and transport of material things, and those which deal with pressing problems of society, government, morals and religion.

The amount of magazine and newspaper reading which goes on outside of prisons indicates that we should frankly recognize similar reading interests inside the prisons and should meet them. Aside from their recreational value, if properly used magazines and newspapers may constitute as valid an educational agency as bound books. A number of prisons have magazine clubs which any prisoner can join by paying a fee of two or three dollars. Practically all institutions permit prisoners to subscribe to approved magazines and newspapers. The latter should be encouraged in spite of the effect of crime news. One prison attempts to secure a free subscription for every prisoner from his home paper. The institution library should subscribe to a number of the better newspapers representing various parts of the country.

Aids to the Librarian

It is impossible to do more than indicate a few of the many sources of help—organizations, individuals, printed material, etc.—available to the prison librarian, whether he is an inmate or a paid officer. In the Appendix some of these aids are listed. The first organization to which the librarian should turn is the American Library Association, in which a

membership in the name of some person representing the institution should be taken out. The bound and periodical publications of this association are invaluable to the librarian, as are the general information and individualized advice which can be had from its headquarters for the asking. Every prison librarian should have a copy of *Libraries and Adult Education,* a study made by the American Library Association and published by Macmillan. The work by Gray and Munroe, mentioned above, was also sponsored by the American Library Association. The A.L.A. Committee on Institution Libraries has recently published a brief but very valuable report on libraries in penal institutions and has prepared a number of booklets of pronounced usefulness to the inexperienced librarian. The chairman of this committee is Miss E. Kathleen Jones of the Division of Public Libraries, State Department of Education, Boston, Massachusetts. Advice and assistance can be obtained by any institution from this committee.

The librarian of a penal institution should also turn to the State Library or the Library Commission in his own state.* Other available sources of help are the State University, other colleges and universities within the state, city and county libraries, and such organizations as the State Historical Society. The institution librarian should have himself put on the mailing lists of all the leading publishing houses and large booksellers, should constantly refer to the leading book reviews, and should keep generally in touch with the commercial field.

One of the most frequent demands made by institution

* The State Library authorities of Michigan are now doing especially notable work at the new prison at Jackson. For other states in which the library authorities assist penal institutions see an article on *Our Obligation to Libraries in State Institutions,* by Mrs. Mary E. Frankhauser, in the *Bulletin of the American Library Association,* Vol. 24, No. 9 (Sept., 1930).

librarians is for lists of readable nonfiction. There is a dearth of these lists. The Felsenthal list, described in the Appendix, is probably the most valuable yet produced in the nonfiction field. The lending lists of the Wisconsin State Library Commission, the Massachusetts Division of Public Libraries, the California State Library and the Oregon State Library have their counterparts in several other states, although those cited render an unusual amount of service to prisoners. The office of the Supervising Librarian in the U. S. Bureau of Prisons has recently prepared a purchase list of nonfiction totalling about $1000 in cost. As for reading lists and reading courses, it is better that these be made up to meet individual needs on the basis of what books are available in the institution library or in the state library on which it can draw. Sample lists can be obtained from the state library authorities of Oregon and Wisconsin, among others, and from at least two federal sources: the United States Bureau of Education and the United States Bureau of Prisons. A sample Wisconsin reading course is given in the Appendix.

The library work of the Army and the Navy and the U. S. Veterans Bureau has enough points in common with institutional library work to give especial value to the advice of the library authorities of these governmental services; they can be reached at Washington. When one is seeking specialists in prison library problems, however, it should be remembered that many public libraries and librarians are serving groups of readers which differ in no essential details from prisoners. Their knowledge and experience are perfectly valid on the subject of reading tastes and reader-guidance, for example, although there are some problems peculiar to the prison for which no amount of city or state library experience, unless it involves contact with penal institutions, can prepare one. These are problems brought

about by the nature of the institution and its routine rather than by the nature of the prisoner himself. The advice of those who know prisons as well as libraries will enable one to avoid many costly and discouraging mistakes. Reference is again made to the Appendix, where a comprehensive list of aids and detailed suggestions will be found.

Current Progress

In the penal library field the present year has been a notable one. Excellent work has been done by the Committee on Institution Libraries of the American Library Association. Under a grant of funds from the Bureau of Social Hygiene, this committee conducted a library study in the penal institutions of Massachusetts. Because of local conditions the study itself did not meet with the success that was hoped for, but it led to the preparation of the report referred to above and to the stimulation of increased interest in penal library work. At the annual Congress of the American Prison Association in October, 1930, a library exhibit was held under the auspices of the Committee and printed material of value to institutional librarians was distributed.* A Committee on Education was added to the list of permanent committees of the Prison Association; its field will embrace library work. An informal but close working relationship has been established by this committee with the A.L.A. Committee on Institutional Libraries and the office of the supervising librarian in the United States Bureau of Prisons. A handbook for institution librarians is to be prepared in the near future, and surplus copies of the booklets distributed at the Prison Congress will be mailed to all penal institutions.

* Surplus copies may now be obtained by addressing the Supervising Librarian, Bureau of Prisons, Department of Justice, Washington.

CHAPTER XI

Health Education

HEALTH education is properly a part of the foundation education which the penal institution should attempt to give to every inmate. It includes instruction in the fundamental principles of personal and community health and the development and strengthening of proper health habits. With most prisoners health education may well concentrate specifically on such definite subjects as the care of the teeth and eyes, proper diet, clothing and exercise habits, the principles of home and public sanitation, and the principles of healthful sex life.

Organization of Health Education

Health education should be organized and conducted by the medical staff and the educational staff working in conjunction. Where there is a competent full-time physician and no educational director the former should be required to carry on health instruction as a part of the regular routine of the institution. Lacking the assistance of a trained educator, the physician will do well to call on the state health authorities or the state educational authorities to assist him in working out a program. Where there is an educational director but no full-time physician, the director will have to rely on local physicians, dentists and oculists, local and state health authorities and national agencies for assistance in deciding what should be taught in view of the brief time available, how it can best be taught, and where suitable

textual material, visual aids and lecturers are available. The ideal combination exists where there is a medical staff, or at least one full-time physician, thoroughly interested in giving health instruction that will carry over into the period after release, and an educational staff which can work hand in hand with the medical staff and can supply knowledge of the technique of instruction which the latter may lack. Knowledge of health principles can be given in at least two ways: (1) Indirectly, in the routine of the prison, and (2) directly, by instruction.

Indirect Health Education

Indirect health education, given in the routine of the institution, can hardly be put on a drill basis. It is certainly not feasible, for example, to institute toothbrush drills in the ordinary prison. Constant emphasis on the necessity of caring for the teeth will probably produce better results. Toothbrushes should be provided as standard individual equipment; they are certainly as important as the brooms now furnished prisoners in order that they may sweep out their cells. The preliminary dental examination which most institutions give should be followed not only by corrective work where it is needed but by subsequent periodical examinations, given often enough so that the prisoner himself begins to pay attention to his teeth. In one prison during a diphtheria epidemic twenty-six hundred prisoners were lined up daily in order that physicians might look into their mouths for signs of infection. Frequent oral examinations, even in large prisons, are not impossible. Desirable results would be obtained if every prisoner could be given even the most hasty examination every few months and could be told, "You are neglecting your teeth. You should brush them regularly," or "Your teeth are in good condition. Take care of them," or "Put in a request slip to come and

see me. You need some dental work." It is this sort of routine that focuses the attention of the prisoner on the care of his body. The care of the teeth is here used only as an example, although it happens to be one of the most important things that a prisoner can be taught.

Other phases of the routine of the institution, such as insistence on regular hours of retiring and requirements as to ventilation, cleanliness of living quarters, clothing and the person, indicate what proper health habits are. As a matter of education prisoners should be allowed to bathe more frequently than they do in most institutions. Anyone familiar with the Navy knows that a four-year enlistment teaches the average man at least one good health habit: frequent and regular bathing. The same is true of proper attention to cleanliness of clothing, bedding and quarters. There is no reason why prisons should not teach a man who comes from a home with low sanitary standards to feel dissatisfaction with his former mode of living. It may be that it will result in raising the standard of his family as well as his own standard.

The routine physical examination given the prisoner when he is admitted to the prison is another opportunity for health education. It should represent more than an effort to discover serious physical defects, intercurrent or chronic diseases, and conditions requiring surgery. It should be the first step in a program of treatment which involves education as well as correction. Some men need corrective exercises, special diet, treatment for glandular imbalance, etc.; others need the regular administration of a prescribed medicine or treatment. They will often need to continue treatment after they are discharged from the prison and should be taught what that treatment is. This type of instruction should be as regularly a part of the routine of the institution as the preliminary examination of teeth, eyes,

heart and lungs. The reason why so many tubercular patients are allowed to leave hospitals and return to their homes under modern medical procedure is that they have been given health education and have been taught how to care for themselves.

Outdoor recreation is now a standard part of the routine of the penal institution. Its value for physical and mental health is well recognized. It becomes a part of health education if prisoners during the daily or weekly recreation period get the habit of taking and enjoying healthful and wholesome exercise. This is one of the reasons why as great a variety of games as possible should be provided and why effort should be made to draw large numbers of prisoners into participation rather than to concentrate on a baseball game engaged in by eighteen men and watched perhaps by eighteen hundred others. In addition to competitive games, which offer the best form of exercise, prisons may well follow the lead of colleges and universities, which have replaced the old mass exercises with dumb-bells, Indian clubs and chest weights by specialized corrective exercises prescribed for individuals on the basis of their particular needs. If the reasons why the exercises are prescribed are explained and if facilities are provided, large numbers of prisoners, especially the younger ones, will work as faithfully at the correction of spinal curvatures, fallen arches, stooped shoulders, and other defects revealed by the ordinary posture-graph as college men do.

Direct Health Education

Health education will be most effective if the prisoner does not feel that it is being planned too consciously or compelled too vigorously. There is a place, however, for direct instruction in health, plainly labeled and required of every prisoner, if necessary. It may best take the form of a short

course in personal and community health, given to every prisoner as a part of his fundamental education. The course of instruction will differ for literate and illiterate groups, for those from environments with low standards and those who are accustomed to higher standards, etc. The course should not devote more time than is absolutely necessary to the physiological make-up of the human body, but should concentrate on those functions which need particular attention and those parts of the body which are most often neglected. The same is true of public hygiene. Little time should be devoted to describing the garbage removal and water supply systems of large cities, but definite and practical instruction should be given on such subjects as the necessity of disposing of garbage and other waste about the home, the need of screening windows, ways in which the water supply of rural homes can be contaminated, and other points of practical value.

Instruction in proper diet should be similarly specific and practical. It is not so important to teach a man that he should eat food which is properly balanced in carbohydrates, proteins, and other constituent elements as that he should not exist entirely on fried foods and that he should eat plenty of green vegetables. The course in health should also give advice on how to make use of clinics in cities, advice against treating one's self with home remedies, against quack doctors, and on the necessity of securing competent medical advice when one is really ill, the value of early treatment for tuberculosis and cancer, what the easily recognizable major symptoms of the chief degenerative diseases are, and so on. As a teacher's guide the Life Extension Institute's latest revised edition of *How to Live* * is invaluable.

* Life Extension Institute, 25 W. 43rd St., New York, N. Y.

Devices and Methods

As a part of the short course in health, or as supplements to it, the following devices and methods will be found useful in health education:

1. Lectures, demonstrations, and health exhibits. An occasional lecture by the prison physician or an outsider or a series of brief health talks given as preliminaries to weekly moving picture performances will reach the whole inmate population. Many principles of health can best be taught by demonstration to smaller groups. A dentist can better illustrate his points by allowing members of a class to look at models of perfect and imperfect sets of teeth or by exhibiting the mouths of willing subjects than by any amount of abstract discussion. The models and exhibits which are a standard part of the equipment of medical schools and of health institutes are invaluable teaching aids. The penal institution can hardly afford to purchase such equipment but arrangements can be made for their loan or lecturers can be urged to bring material of this sort with them.

2. The use of health films and slides as supplements to direct instruction, especially in connection with lectures, informal talks, or demonstrations. In health education films of the animated drawing type are especially effective. The U. S. Public Health Service and many state and city health authorities have films and slides for loan. Reference to the Appendix will indicate where visual aids can be obtained.

3. Displays of posters and health circulars throughout the institution. These can be secured from a variety of sources and striking homemade posters can be made at the institution.

4. The distribution of fliers containing health hints or simple rules of health and of pamphlets dealing with health in general or with special phases. Every prisoner should be

supplied with a simply worded pamphlet containing brief rules of health applicable to daily living, and he should be encouraged to take this booklet with him when he leaves the prison. Printed material on health can be obtained through state and local health authorities, such organizations as the Life Extension Institute and the American Red Cross, the United States Public Health Service, and the leading insurance companies. The Life Extension Institute *Keep-Well Leaflets* are especially good. Material should be placed where prisoners can pick it up freely, but a definite plan of distribution should be in force.

5. Use of the institution publication as a medium for health education through reprints, special articles, cartoons, etc.

6. Development of an extensive "Health Shelf" in the institution library.

Safety Education

Closely related to the subject of health education is that of safety in trade and industry. There is no better source of material on the subject of industrial safety and industrial health than the American Safety Council,* a non-profit-making, coöperative organization which supplies its members with printed material which includes a variety of striking posters, and with consultant and advisory service. Every penal institution should take out membership in this organization, whose membership rates vary with the number of employees (prisoners are classed as employees), the amount of service varying correspondingly. Instruction of workers in proper observance of health and safety precautions is not only a sound educational enterprise but also a humane preventive measure in view of the fact that so

* Address 108 East Ohio Street, Chicago, Illinois.

many prisoners are inexperienced workers and that so few states make any provision for the compensation of prisoners injured while at work.

Sex Education

It is believed that sex education will be more effective with prisoners when it is approached from the standpoint of health rather than from the standpoint of morals. Education in this field should be given scientifically and carefully. Extensive use should be made of illustrated lectures and of visual aids in general. The effectiveness of such films as *Fit to Fight,* which were shown widely to soldiers and sailors during the War, has been seriously questioned. More valuable than such films are those which have been made from the medical standpoint. Among the best are the animated drawing films, which deal with the subject in a graphic way that brings it within the comprehension of those who have difficulty in understanding either written or spoken English. A number of excellent pamphlets dealing with the subject in simple language can be obtained gratis or at very small cost. In addition to general instruction in sex prison physicians and psychiatrists should give a great deal of individual instruction to those for whom it is a matter requiring specialized attention.

A Demonstration

The first organized program of health education ever set up in a penal institution has just been instituted at the Federal Penitentiary at Atlanta, and is being extended to other federal institutions. When the U. S. Public Health Service took charge of the medical and psychiatric service of all federal penal and correctional institutions in July, 1930, health education was given an important place in the

program and all the resources of the Service were made available to the medical officers of the institutions. In this definite project state penal institutions may find a useful demonstration of what can be done in health education under prison conditions.

CHAPTER XII

Cultural Education

THE claim of cultural education to a place in the program of the penal institution was presented briefly in the chapter on The Aim and Philosophy of Education for Prisoners. The term "cultural education" is an unfortunate one; it is likely to be sniffed at by both prisoners and officials. It is difficult to think of a better term for education which is unrelated to vocational advancement, which does not aim at increasing one's pay, which has no utilitarian aim whatever, but which is entered into for intellectual or aesthetic satisfaction or for "the enrichment of self."

Cultural Education for All

The concept of cultural education as something for the person of advanced education only has long since been abandoned. Culture is no longer the monopoly of the college graduate, the salaried man, the "educated" man. One has only to walk through the Metropolitan Art Museum in New York City on a Sunday afternoon or to attend one of its free symphony concerts to see that the underprivileged and the undereducated are reaching out eagerly for cultural opportunities and that our great communities are alive to their obligation to provide them. The adult education movement in America has two striking characteristics: (1) that it is not primarily concerned with giving men and women the utilitarian instruments of learning but with education

as a "continuing cultural process pursued without ulterior purpose"; and (2) that it is reaching out to the industrial worker, the farmer, the tradesman, the clerk, and to all others who have vocational competence and a fair amount of formal schooling but whose opportunities for culture have been limited or neglected. The folk-school movement in Europe similarly has a cultural rather than a utilitarian aim. Today coal miners in America study economics, philosophy and psychology, partly, to be sure, in order that they may fight their economic battles more successfully, but also for the satisfaction of exploring realms of thought unconnected with the dim shafts and chambers of their daily work. The Danish farmer reads the literature of his country and studies history and philosophy with no idea that they will increase the productivity of his farm.

Its Validity for Prisoners. The idea of education for culture is foreign to current practice in American penal institutions,* with their characteristic emphasis on utilitarian education. By devoting so much of this volume to the discussion of the latter type of education, the writer has perhaps appeared to endorse a narrow view. One must recognize the fact that the greater number of prisoners need academic and vocational training that will function directly in the practical business of life and especially in making a living, and that they are primarily interested in this kind of education. One must also recognize the validity of a more liberal aim in the education of prisoners as well as of free men. It is as truly the function of the prison educational program to supply opportunities for cultural development as to give instruction in the fundamentals of arithmetic or the technique of a trade. On the educational director's working bookshelf Everett Dean Martin's *Meaning of a Liberal Education* should stand shoulder to shoulder with the beginner's reader and the standard vocational text.

* In Great Britain educational work among prisoners is predominantly cultural in aim.

Penal authorities should promote as well-rounded a program of utilitarian education, honestly materialistic in its aim, as can be developed. But to stop there is a denial of the need of preparing prisoners for the satisfactory and wholesome use of leisure, giving their minds as well as their hands something to do, and training their senses to the enjoyment of the finer things of life. If one wished to argue this point solely from the practical standpoint that whatever increases the chance of reform has its place in the institutional program, a strong case could be made for any activity which tends to improve one's use of leisure time. The justification can well be left on higher grounds than this.

What Subjects Are Cultural? There is no list of subjects that are exclusively cultural, just as there is none of the exclusively utilitarian. The college professor may study Greek drama because he must to hold his job; the accountant may study higher mathematics because he likes the mental exercise. In general, for the man who does not use them as utilitarian tools, such subjects as literature, languages, science, history, economics, sociology, philosophy, and psychology, and such interests as those in music and art may be considered cultural.

Their Appeal. To what prisoners will these fields appeal? To those, first of all, having sufficient education to enable them to read books and understand lectures opening up the content of these fields. There is a fairly large number of these prisoners in any institution. Their background, mentality and previous education fit them for cultural education. Some are college graduates or have attended college for a year or two; others have had only a high school education, but read easily and comprehend abstract concepts. Many of these men are well grounded in a profession or other voca-

tion and are not interested in vocational courses. Driven by the monotony of the prison routine they turn to reading and study. It is safe to say that most prisoners with education read more in a month in prison than they read in six months in free life. Given the opportunity, they would undoubtedly study; many of them do now, in spite of the meager offerings of the penal institution to the man who has already gone beyond the fundamentals.

It is not alone for this group that cultural education is advocated. It has its appeal, its satisfactions and its value for the prisoner of limited education and poor background. We must, of course, exclude from consideration those whose mental defects make it impossible for them to comprehend abstractions and those who are unresponsive to aesthetic impulses. The lack, in the fields cited above, of satisfactory books for persons of limited reading ability and the unsuitability of the lecture method to those with poor vocabularies are well known. The extension of classroom work in the cultural field to others than the better educated group depends therefore on the writing of simpler books, the development of a lecturing technique that few men of learning seem able to master, or the development of a method of teaching cultural subjects comparable in effectiveness to the specialized technique of teaching English to adult illiterates.

Need of Texts. It is certain that some day soon simple, readable texts will be written for adults of limited education. The need is recognized by all groups interested in adult education. Several have already been written: the Workers Education Bureau, for example, is developing a "Workers' Bookshelf." The need is for simplified and humanized books to replace the dehydrated texts written by pedants and the popularized books that are little better than watered stock. As Jane Addams once said: "Simple people do not want to hear about little things, but about great things simply told."

Much of the material listed in the Appendix as aids to librarians will prove useful in the selection of textual material for cultural courses. The Felsenthal list, *Readable Books in Many Subjects,* is an invaluable list of "first books" in the major fields of human knowledge, selected for students who require "simplicity of language, brevity of statement and non-technical treatment." The American Library Association *Reading With a Purpose* courses will also prove helpful with the more advanced students. Courses which consist entirely of directed reading can be organized by adding a limited number of books to the library and adapting standard reading outlines.

Teaching Method. The teaching of cultural courses necessarily involves some use of the lecture method, which is unfortunately not well adapted to prisoners unless there is available one of those teachers who can bring an "advanced" subject down to the level of the ordinary man without destroying its weight and solidity. Such teachers are rare enough anywhere. The best method is that of the round-table conference, with the class sitting about a table and the teacher talking informally and drawing the class into carefully guided discussions. The class period can be vitalized and made less tiresome by the introduction of visual material: photographs, illustrated texts, films, slides, charts and exhibits. Demonstrations and experiments performed by the teacher, assisted by members of the class, are desirable supplements to films and slides in science courses. The resourceful teacher will also intersperse lectures and conferences with the study of mimeographed lesson sheets and will read occasionally from such texts as Wells' *Outline of History,* giving the class an opportunity to examine the book and its illustrations or throwing the latter on the screen with a reflectoscope. As much reading outside the classroom as is practicable should be required of the class.

Outside Help. The whole prison population is a prospective field for cultural education as for other types. All degrees of difficulty in arousing and satisfying interest will be encountered; widely differing methods and content will be needed. The task of teaching such subjects as literature and economics to the average prisoner is one beyond the teacher usually found in a penal institution. Help from outside will have to be obtained: from those who can be secured on a part-time basis for regular teaching or occasional lectures, from college and university faculties, university extension divisions, lecture bureaus, state and city departments of education, libraries, museums, historical and scientific societies, musical and art organizations, and from local, state and national agencies interested in the field of adult education. From some or all of these sources the institution can get advice and guidance, and can also secure part-time teachers and lecturers, textual material, exhibits, and reading lists and courses. Cultural education will cost more per capita than any other type except vocational education; many of the books required are expensive and fairly large fees and traveling expenses must be paid teachers and lecturers of the necessary quality. On the other hand, class meetings can be held less frequently than in other courses, and the large use which can be made of comparatively inexpensive university extension courses will reduce the relative cost.

Organization. The forms which cultural education can best take in a penal institution include the following: (1) organized classes or round-table groups under members of the educational staff or outside teachers; (2) individual instruction, largely through university extension courses; (3) directed reading, either under personal guidance or with the help of reading lists and courses; (4) lectures, demonstrations, exhibits, concerts and recitals; (5) the development of organizations or groups having as their

aim the practice, enjoyment or appreciation of music and art.

Limited Numbers Reached. We must not expect large enrollments or sweeping successes; in the world outside of prisons the number of people seeking or achieving cultural gains by direct instruction is comparatively small. We must be content to give nonutilitarian education to even a handful of prisoners so long as it is satisfying and significant to them. We must not be afraid of being too highbrow in our educational aim. There is danger of overshooting the mark: offering things that are over the heads of all the prisoners and that only serve to make them think that culture is, after all, the monopoly of the well informed, the well educated, and the well-to-do. But there is even greater danger of undershooting the mark, of being too lowbrow in our aims.

Music and Art

In addition to the cultural subjects which call for organized classroom work and individual instruction, a place of importance must be given to the fields of music and art. The latter is almost unheard of in penal institutions, but music has already gained a foothold and there is a definite desire for it in some form on the part of practically all prisoners. Its therapeutic value and its effectiveness as a morale builder are recognized; the World War established these points.

Music. In the promotion of music in the penal institution the following steps are suggested:

1. Appointment of a full-time musical director or, if this is impracticable, one on a part-time basis. Sometimes the institution can rely safely on local volunteer aid but this places an undesirable limitation on the program. The musical director should be more than a band or orchestra leader;

he should be a person capable of directing a broad program embracing musical appreciation as well as musical technique.

2. The encouragement and training of individual musicians and of bands and orchestras in as large numbers as feasible and on as high a level of quality as can be reached. This involves teaching by professional musicians, the use of instruments of satisfactory quality, and the provision of suitable rooms and sufficient time for practice.

3. Provision of opportunities for the whole inmate body to hear good music, both instrumental and vocal.

4. Promotion of mass and chorus singing. The former can be a part of the weekly movie program or chapel exercises, but it is also worth while to hold occasional assemblies in the auditorium or the yard for mass singing. Under good leaders, this is one of the most wholesome activities the prison can promote. Mass singing finds ample justification from the practical standpoint in the relaxation of tension and the improvement of morale which it brings. Its cultural value depends largely on the type of selection which is sung, but even the rather ordinary and shopworn songs which are usually chosen can be used as stepping-stones to better music. Chorus singing by selected groups trained to sing parts is usually on a higher plane. Quartets, choirs, and singing by racial groups (especially the negroes and those European races whose folk songs are of high quality) are musical activities with distinct cultural possibilities. To hear the negro women at the Federal Industrial Institution for Women sing spirituals is an uplifting experience.

5. Use of the radio and phonograph. The former, if used selectively, is a means of bringing music of the highest quality to the institution. The finest symphony orchestras can now play in every cell block in America. The radio can also be used to supply illustrative material for courses in musical practice or appreciation. The phonograph can be

used more successfully for this purpose, however, because the selections desired for use in a particular course are always available when needed. This use of the phonograph for instruction is standard practice not only in schools of music but also in colleges and universities offering courses in musical appreciation. Instruction making use of the radio and phonograph is most effectively given to comparatively small groups, but an evening of music in the auditorium, using either of these instruments, would prove popular in most institutions if the selections were well chosen and were interestingly discussed. Thomas Mott Osborne used to play the piano by the hour to large groups of prisoners, discussing in simple nontechnical language what he played, pointing out how the selection illustrated some basic musical principle, telling the story of the opera from which he was playing, or telling a little about the composer and the times in which he lived.

The steps outlined above are only an indication of what a well-rounded program of music involves. The most effective demonstration of what can be done in penal institutions is found in the work of Dr. Willem van der Wall of the Bureau of Mental Health in the Pennsylvania Department of Welfare. Everything indicated in the program outlined above and many other things have been carried on successfully under his direction in the Pennsylvania penal institutions. A study of his work will be of value to any institution.

Almost all institutions give some attention to music. It is stressed in the women's institutions. In the reformatories for men there are a few musical directors and music is usually encouraged.* Bands, orchestras, choirs and quartets

* "An up-to-date music department in a penal institution," says Superintendent Vasaly of the Minnesota Reformatory for Men, where music is a major activity, "is as important in its place as is an up-to-date and complete course of music in a university."

are not unusual in both prisons and reformatories, nor is individual instruction in the playing of a musical instrument. Mass singing, except in connection with religious services, is rarely found. Opportunities to hear or to produce really good music are very rare in penal institutions; as promoted at present, music must be classed as a recreational rather than as a cultural activity.

Art. Although it will appeal to comparatively few prisoners, art as well as music has its place in the penal institution. In the institutions for men almost nothing is being done in this field. A few prisoners here and there who are believed to have artistic ability are allowed to paint or draw, usually without instruction except what they can get from correspondence courses of doubtful value. The reformatories for women ordinarily offer instruction in decoration and design and encourage artistic expression and artistic appreciation in these fields.

Male prisoners spend a great deal of time in the manufacture of souvenirs and other articles for sale. Some of this work has artistic value but for the most part it follows stereotyped, unoriginal and inartistic patterns. Lacking instruction, material and tools, men who are capable of doing exquisite work waste their time on jimcracks and gewgaws. The making of cheap souvenirs could be transformed into creative art by supplying skilled direction and the necessary tools, materials and work space. Artistic work in copper, silver, iron and wood, the weaving of blankets, rugs and baskets, and the making of pottery can be successfully promoted. There would be no difficulty in arousing the interest of prisoners, for they enjoy work of this kind. They know, moreover, that articles of superior workmanship have sales value as well as horsehair belts and celluloid rings.

Occasionally prisoners show real promise of talent in sketching, painting, engraving or sculpture. They should be

given an opportunity to develop this talent and an attempt should be made to secure guidance and instruction for them from outside the prison. Materials and working facilities should be provided,* and they should be encouraged by being released from work during part of every day to devote time to practice and instruction.

Finally, an effort should be made to stimulate and develop artistic appreciation throughout the inmate body. The most effective method is not by lectures and directed reading, although illustrated lectures and finely illustrated books should be utilized, but by the actual showing of material having artistic value. In every penal institution there might well be a small room, preferably near the library, for exhibitions of whatever material could be secured on loan by an appeal to museums, universities, individual citizens, dealers and others: originals or good reproductions of etchings, engravings, charcoals, crayons, lithographs, oil paintings, marbles and bronzes; pottery, textiles, and so on. An attempt should be made to get some authority on art to spend a day occasionally at the institution and to talk informally to individuals or groups about particular objects on exhibition at the time or about art in general. It would be worth while if only a half-dozen prisoners came to see the exhibits during the hours they were permitted to visit the room. As a matter of fact, they would probably come by the dozens.

Dramatic Activities

A third activity which has pronounced cultural value will be only mentioned here. This is the drama, a form of art which in penal institutions for men usually does not rise above the level of the annual minstrel show. The presentation of plays of value, well staged and directed, with an

* The writer is not blind to the necessity of safeguarding against counterfeiting and forgery.

opportunity for the inmates to work in the making of the sets and costumes, is a wholesome cultural activity. Every institution would find it worth while to establish a "little theater" and theater workshop similar to those which are now found in schools and colleges throughout the country. At the recent International Prison Congress some of the delegates scoffed at the idea of *Romeo and Juliet* being presented in a prison. The spokesman of the American delegation answered this criticism by stating that as a general principle whatever has a wholesome effect on the prisoner has a place in the penal program. That the drama may have such an effect and that it is a potent cultural influence is testified to by many centuries of history.

Let any skeptic who wishes scoff at these proposals. In penal institutions, where life is drab and ugly, where beauty of sound and color and form and expression seldom enters, there is a desire for beauty. It is usually unconscious, unexpressed, uncritical, but it is real. To feed it is to strengthen one more of the finer impulses that move men upward.

Introductory Courses

Introductory courses in the major fields of human thought and interest, advocated in the first chapter of this volume as a part of the prisoner's fundamental education, are properly considered under the head of Cultural Education, since they are predominantly cultural rather than utilitarian.

As defined there, they are not designed with the idea in mind of giving comprehensive knowledge of the fields of history, science, economics, literature, philosophy, the fine arts, and so on. Nor are they "outline courses" in the sense that they attempt to cram all of science or economics into one brief, condensed course. They are broad survey courses which give some indication of what is to be found in the

field if the student cares to go farther into it. An introductory course in the history of mankind does not attempt to trace the progress of man from the fall of Babylon to the fall of 1930, either in detail or in outline. It rather indicates what a study of the history of mankind reveals: how much of interest there is to be found in the study of prehistoric man, early civilizations, the Dark Ages, the industrial revolution, the development of our modern civilization. An introductory course in science does not try to impart even an outline knowledge of chemistry, physics or biology but shows the student what sort of facts and principles he will find if he enters these fields: the relation of chemistry to manufacturing, to war, to the food we eat and the gasolene we use; the bearing of physics on public utilities, transportation, manufacture and commerce; the revelations of biology on the subjects of plant and animal life, of birth and heredity. This sounds more general and abstract than the course is likely to prove. The student will learn a great deal that is concrete and specific. The object, however, is not to satisfy his desire for knowledge but to arouse it.

It is plain that the well-known outlines of history, science, literature and other subjects will prove helpful in planning these courses, although the language is too complex and the scope too comprehensive to admit their use, as they stand, with prisoners. An intelligent teacher or "course-maker" will not find it difficult to convert much of the material of these outlines into usable form, basing mimeographed lesson sheets on the revamped text. The success of introductory courses will depend largely on the ability of the teacher to prepare his own teaching material, drawing on a variety of sources. Some of these sources are indicated in the preceding pages of this chapter, others in the chapters on the library, correspondence instruction, the use of visual aids, and elsewhere throughout this volume.

It is not expected that introductory courses will be given by a resident teaching staff. The educational director will have to range far and wide to find college professors, engineers, chemists, museum officials and laymen who will come to the institution to give introductory courses in their respective fields. The courses should be comparatively short; class meetings can be held once a week for ten to twenty weeks. A Cleveland committee on adult education suggested a series of evenings on *Introductions to New Worlds* under the following headings: *A Night on the World of Philosophy, A Night on the World of History, A Night on the World of Literature, A Night on the World of Art, A Night on the World of Science, A Night on the World of the Great Peoples of the Earth.* It was suggested that each of these might be expanded to cover five evenings by dealing with five great characters in each world.

Giving some knowledge of what lies beyond the horizon may be truly called fundamental education. It is not expected that every prisoner will take even one introductory course, but all who are competent to do so should be given opportunity and encouragement. The courses are plainly not practicable for prisoners of limited mentality or defective language comprehension. On the other hand, they need not be restricted to advanced students; if simply taught they are well within the compass of prisoners of very limited education. A course, for example, in *Marvels of Modern Science* can open up introductory vistas limited only by the ability of the teacher. Science, history, and the other subjects cited above represent only a few of the many fields of human thought which men can profitably and pleasurably explore. The range of the prison's offerings need be dependent only on the available supply of competent teachers and the time at their disposal. Introductory courses do not preclude the offering of more intensive courses in the same fields to those

who wish them. They should, in fact, create a desire for these courses and should stimulate further reading and study.

Foundation education does not consist exclusively of the three R's. To many prisoners introductory courses offer the type of foundation education in which they are most interested. They may well choose to spend their time in scanning horizons and, after they have discovered in which direction they wish to go, in following some path of study which leads to a continuing interest. In the study of introductory courses in the great fields of human thought they are laying foundations as surely as the illiterate is in learning to read. The gains are less tangible and less measurable but they are none the less real. It is granted that such courses smack of the college curriculum. No harm will be done the cause of education for prisoners if we take a few hints from college practice, if only to reach a small number of men. Introductory courses may well be patterned after those now being given in a large number of colleges and universities. They will obviously have to be more simple as to content and method and more narrow in scope. They will make less use of formal lectures and assigned reading. Their aim, nevertheless, is the same.

CHAPTER XIII

Social Education

AS was indicated in the first chapter, the result hoped for from all the types of education which we offer the prisoner is social education; this is, in fact, what is hoped for from the whole program of the penal institution. The final result we look for is what we call the socialization of the individual. But what do we mean by this high-sounding phrase? It is unfortunate that there is not some more simple expression descriptive of the ordinary everyday process that is going on about us all the time. Under the name of socialization it sounds as though it were something mystical, divorced from reality. It is actually a process through which each of us goes, willingly or not, from birth to death. The most effective socialization is not achieved in any definitely organized scheme of instruction but takes place in the give and take of daily life. A great deal of the socialization does not work; men and women who have been exposed all their lives to the influences of highly socialized communities are as egocentric and nonsocial at sixty as they were in their swaddling clothes.

Prisoners Nonsocial Rather Than Antisocial

There are certain groups in the population for whom we customarily set up definite programs having socialization as their aim; among these groups is the prisoner. We consider him in need of it because his criminal act is taken as evidence of the fact that his attitude is nonsocial at best and possibly

antisocial. As a matter of fact, the number of prisoners who are definitely antisocial in their attitude is very much smaller than is generally supposed by the layman. Comparatively few prisoners feel actual enmity towards society or have any idea of taking revenge on it for real or fancied wrongs after they are released. A number, who are looking for an excuse for continuing criminal acts which they have no desire to abandon, give as their self-justification the wrongs which they claim have been done them. Others look on society as being unfairly organized, with an unequal distribution of wealth and privilege; they feel that members of society who have more than they have are fair game. Others suffer from persecution complexes and have their counterparts in the free population: the world is against them and they are against the world. In general, prisoners are merely nonsocial; they tend to look out for number one and accept their relation to the social order, as represented by the family and community in which they live, passively and as a matter of course. This is very largely due to the fact that they are recruited in large numbers from the undereducated and underprivileged groups in the population and that they have ordinarily led a rather difficult struggle for existence.

If they live in the city the government is represented in their minds by the policeman on the beat; the ward politician who tells them how to vote, supplies an occasional sack of coal or a pair of shoes, gets them out of jail if the charge is not too serious, and does their political thinking for them; the city ordinances which will not permit them to throw garbage in the streets but which permit them to live in ramshackle tenements; and the mayor or alderman whose silk hat symbolizes the majesty and power of government. The state to them is a thing distant and little comprehended. The federal government is little more than a person about whom they hear or read, the President, with perhaps a few

senators and congressmen as attendant satellites. If they live in the country the men and women from whom our prisoners are largely recruited tend to look on government as an agency which imposes taxes that are difficult to meet, and which either gives them good roads past their farms or leaves impassable mudholes at their front doors. Neither the city dweller nor the rural dweller in the lower ranges of society tends to think of himself as a social individual, with definite responsibilities to his fellow men except those that are imposed by law and enforced by governmental authority. If you ask him what he considers his obligations to society he does not understand you because he thinks you are talking about the Four Hundred. He lives along as a member of a family and a community, as a good family man and citizen or a bad one, in accordance with the interplay of a variety of forces within and without himself, but he does not do much thinking about it.

How Can the Prisoner Be Socialized?

How then shall we socialize the prisoner? How shall we get him to understand a little better the social scheme of which he is a part? How shall we get him to feel an obligation toward his fellow men which will cause him, first, to stop the commission of acts which are contrary to the best interests of the social group and, second, to function more understandingly, more willingly, and more effectively as a member of society?

Direct Education. Something can certainly be accomplished by all types of education. If we teach a man to read, speak and write the English language we have given him tools that are essential to group living. It is standard practice in the teaching of these subjects, moreover, to inject material which has social value. The socializing influence of a good library under intelligent direction is unquestioned.

Health education, especially that part of it which deals with community health, is definite social education. Vocational education not only helps the prisoner to function more efficiently and satisfyingly as a member of the working world but, if it is properly given, includes a great deal of concrete instruction in relationships with other workers. The social sciences—history, economics, government, sociology—increase his comprehension of the world in which he lives and of the social ideals whose advancement or retardation is affected by what he does and what he is. The study of the social sciences is no longer reserved for the educated man alone. One of the groups being reached most effectively by the adult education movement is the industrial worker. Simple courses in economics and sociology have been developed and readable texts are slowly being produced. Such informal and almost all-inclusive courses as the *Story of the Workers in the World,* which was developed by Tom Tippett for Illinois coal miners, are examples of what is being done. The Workers Education Bureau and the Bryn Mawr Summer School for Women Workers in Industry have demonstrated that the social sciences are not beyond the reach of the comparatively ignorant and unlettered. When students are encouraged to participate in classroom work and to view education as a joint enterprise, instruction in any subject has socializing value. Finally, those subjects which are usually considered as purely cultural socialize by extending knowledge and by increasing appreciation of the finer intellectual and æsthetic interests.

Coördination of Socializing Forces. All these directly socializing forces in the field of education we can and should bring to bear on the prisoner. We shall do well, however, not to let him know that he is being socialized; he is likely to resent this and to resist it just as he resents moralizing and resists obvious attempts at reform. It is probable that social

education will always be accomplished most successfully when it is indirect, and when the avowed aim is very little in evidence. There is need in the penal institution, however, for a number of persons trained in social work: in the gathering of case histories, the diagnosis of individual problems and the application of the methods which will be most effective in each case. This staff unit, whose work was discussed in the chapter on Individualization, will exercise a coördinating influence on all socializing factors in the institution program.*

Socialization in Community Life

It is in the routine of the institution that the process of socialization takes place most effectively. The most natural and unquestionably the most effective way of training men in group relationships is by organizing a carefully controlled and intelligently tutored community life in which they practice these relationships. The prison has an excellent opportunity to do this if a staff can be assembled capable of carrying out such a project. On this basis the whole program of the institution becomes educational in the broadest sense and every part of the institution a social classroom: the cell house, the dormitory, the mess hall, the shops, the chapel, the schoolroom, and the recreation field. Penal institutions are seldom so organized today. They are not places where group relationships are emphasized; on the contrary, the prisoner is made to feel that he is doing his own time and that the less he concerns himself with the affairs of others the better he will get along. Occasionally one finds exceptions to this rule. Sometimes the inmates of a cell house or dormitory in charge of a superior guard, or a group led by prisoners with natural qualities of leadership, have devel-

* A staff unit of this type has been authorized for each federal penal institution.

oped a group morale so that every man takes pride in the fact that he lives in the cleanest section of the prison, or that fewer men are put on report from his section than from any other. Prisoners under these conditions are being socialized. Occasionally one finds a shop in which the working morale is high and in which each man feels pride not only in his own work and conduct record but in that of all the men assigned to the shop. Curiously enough, this type of morale is sometimes found in a shop that has been designated as the dumping-ground for all the bad eggs in the institution. In the foundry of one prison the men take pride in the fact that they are "the toughest gang in the joint," but that they turn out more work than any other shop. They are unconsciously being socialized in one direction, at least. Few prisons or reformatories for men make any definite attempt to train the inmates in community relationships. The reformatories for women, almost without exception, are organized on a socialized basis.

The Honor System

We cannot properly class the so-called honor system, in the form in which it is usually organized, as social education. It customarily consists of the selection of individual prisoners by the head of the institution for positions where they work without guards; their assignment to these positions is on the basis of individual pledges to the warden or superintendent that they will live up to their trust. If the warden places the pledge on a sufficiently high level, trying to make the man understand what it involves in responsibility to his fellow prisoners and to his family as well as to the warden himself, it becomes a social contract. Ordinarily, however, the pledge of the prison trusty is a purely selfish agreement between himself and the warden and is the antithesis of

social education. It is just another way of "looking out for number one."

Inmate Community Organization

By contrast, what is commonly called the system of inmate community organization (sometimes designated by the much misunderstood title of "self-government") is based on the responsibility of each prisoner to the whole prison community. The institution is made as nearly like a normal community as possible. An opportunity is given for the inmates to participate under careful guidance in the direction of its activities and, as a group, to assume responsibility for their proper functioning. The officials set up certain standards of work and conduct, differing little from those of free communities, but place on the inmate body as a whole the responsibility for seeing that these standards are lived up to. The individual prisoner feels that he is responsible primarily to his fellows and only secondarily to the institution officials. He is taught to live as a citizen by practicing citizenship in a miniature community. If he transgresses it is against the rules of that community, formulated and upheld by his fellow prisoners, rather than against the rules of an arbitrary authority represented by the warden. He is encouraged to look on the warden and his official staff as assisting and supervising the inmate community in the handling of its own affairs rather than as dictating to them, and on the institution as a coöperative enterprise engaged in by officials and inmates together.

Partial Recognition of the Principle. The principle of inmate community organization may be applied in varying degrees. If the warden does no more than to permit the prisoners to elect a committee to take charge of a Fourth of July celebration, he has at least recognized the principle that they may be trusted as a group with responsibility for some

of their own affairs. He may go farther and may permit the election of a temporary or permanent committee which is allowed to take up with him and his deputy matters affecting the interest of the whole inmate population and the welfare of the institution. He may give this committee power to exercise a limited degree of responsibility over some of the activities that most closely concern the prisoners. Such committees are only the beginning of a full-fledged community organization, but they recognize the principle of group responsibility so long as the committees are chosen by vote of the inmates and are not appointed by the warden. Even officially appointed committees, if attention is paid to their recommendations and if they are given responsibility, imply a partial recognition of the same basic principle.

Complete Organization. It is in its more fully developed forms that inmate community organization becomes a strong socializing force. In this form the inmates hold regular and periodical elections at which they elect a large committee whose members represent the various living quarters, shops and other units of the institution, or are elected at large. This committee is customarily broken up into subcommittees dealing with such specific matters as food, housing, education, work, recreation, family relief, and so forth. The general committee elects a small executive committee which is the administrative board of the community organization and which acts as the connecting link between the inmates and the official staff. If the organization is permitted to exercise police powers the executive committee appoints, or recommends to the warden for appointment, an inmate chief of police who appoints his own deputy and inmate officers. If the exercise of limited judicial functions is also permitted the executive committee submits to the warden a panel from which he selects a small board of "judges." To this board he gives authority to investigate certain types of disciplinary

cases, to prescribe punishment in a limited degree under general regulations which he establishes, and to recommend other punishments for his approval. In all cases the decision of the inmate judges is reviewed by the warden and is valid only after his confirmation.

The setting up of such a community organization gives the prisoner a chance to learn to do by doing. Whether he merely casts his vote as an ordinary citizen or rises to an elective or appointive position of responsibility he usually feels himself closer to its government than to any governmental organization outside. He is likely to accept the standards of the inmate community because he feels that he has had a part in forming them and because he sees how a violation of those standards by one prisoner affects himself and every other prisoner. He may gradually come to see the importance of the obligations that he has to the free community. By exercising the functions of citizenship in a restricted community, where responsibility to his fellow citizens is continually stressed, he may reasonably be expected to gain a better understanding of free citizenship.

Warden Does Not Relinquish Authority. The establishment of an inmate community organization does not mean that the warden relinquishes his authority. He rather delegates a part of it to the inmate body as he delegates other parts of it to his officers. He approves or disapproves the rules of the general committee and may at a stroke countermand any action taken by representatives of the inmate organization. If he is wise, his supervision will be general rather than specific. He will be ready to let the community make a few mistakes in order that it may learn by the trial-and-error method what is good and what is bad government. He may permit a few rascals, prison politicians, to gain and hold office long enough for the prison community to learn what happens when grafters and self-interested office seekers are elected. He can then influence the community organization to stage its own reform wave. If he keeps closely in touch with the inmate organization, if he is wise, sympathetic and tactful, if he is firm but fair, he can hold it up to a higher standard than community organizations and governments ordinarily achieve outside.

Coöperation of Guards Necessary. He cannot do this if his subordinate officials, especially the guards, do not reflect his attitude. The warden does not take away the authority of the officers but he changes the way in which they wield it materially. The officer in charge of any section or any activity of the institution must work with and through the inmate officials and acts as their adviser. It is his duty to see that the official standards of the institution are maintained but he is expected to help the inmates, through their own elected representatives, to assume the responsibility of maintaining them.

The Soundness of the Principle. The idea of inmate community organization has been subjected to sweeping and usually uninformed criticism. In its more complete forms it is found today only in the reformatories for women, where it is accepted as standard practice and has demonstrated its value beyond any shadow of doubt. In prisons and reformatories for men it now exists only in the more restricted forms. As a result of the disorders in the New York State Prison at Auburn, the prisoners' organization there has recently been temporarily suspended. At Sing Sing, by contrast, the system in a modified form continues to demonstrate its usefulness as it has without interruption since it was established there in 1915 by Thomas Mott Osborne. The Massachusetts Prison Colony at Norfolk has recently received a grant of funds from the Bureau of Social Hygiene of the Rockefeller Foundation to test out a program of inmate community organization. In the Delaware

prison the principle has been applied to a remarkable extent for a decade.

The writer believes in the principle of inmate community organization, not only because it is consistent with sound educational, penal and social philosophy but also because he has had experience under this system as an official of a large institution and has seen it work successfully. It is true that it is no method to be attempted by a weak warden; this is equally true of all good penal methods. In the institution referred to, the United States Naval Prison at Portsmouth, New Hampshire, the commanding officer was Mr. Osborne himself, the foremost exponent of the system of inmate community organization.* His contribution of this idea to prison practice is probably the most significant contribution of this generation. If the establishment of an inmate community organization had no other end in view than to promote better work and better conduct in the institution and to facilitate efficient and economical administration, it would still be justified, for it does all these things if intelligently directed. Its chief significance lies in its power to bring about the intangible thing we call socialization. It has greater possibilities for social education than all the textbooks ever written in the social sciences and all the courses in citizenship ever devised.

Its Beneficial Effect on All Education. Finally, in an institution operated under the system of inmate community organization, the way is made more easy for all types of education. Education becomes a community enterprise. Touch is maintained with the real needs and interests of the prisoners because they are able to exercise an influence on the educational program. The educational staff encounters coöperation instead of apathy. Education goes forward

* The best exposition of the subject is found in Mr. Osborne's *Society and Prisons*, published by the Yale University Press.

because the prisoners themselves are pushing it. Self-improvement is the order of the day; it is good form to take advantage of one's opportunities. The nearest thing to an educational renaissance that the writer has ever seen in a penal institution took place at Sing Sing under Mr. Osborne and Dean Kirchwey in the early days of the Mutual Welfare League.

CHAPTER XIV

Correspondence Instruction and University Extension Service

"THE correspondence schools are to adult education what the tabloid is to the press," says H. M. Kallen in the *New Republic.* "What the public wants is specified in what this group as a whole has sold it. Of the courses taken, some 40 per cent are technical; 40, more or less, are clerical; 15 purport to teach some quality of person, or excellence of character—like the power to impose on the boss, or the ability to recall Mr. Sims of Seattle, or sales charm, or sex magnetism. Some 5 per cent are courses of cultural import. The public pays—in advance—more than seventy millions of dollars each year for these little things that it wants of education, but seems not to want that little long. Each year, pupils drop away like autumn leaves with each distracting wind."

Student Mortality Heavy

Noffsinger's valuable book, *Correspondence Schools, Lyceums, Chautauquas,** analyzes the well-known weaknesses of correspondence schools conducted as commercial enterprises, and states that data obtained from seventy-five schools show that the proportion of students completing courses normally running a year is only 6 per cent. The reasons for this terrific student mortality are well known to educators, but the advertisements continue to lure the gullible and the ambitious until there are today over two million students being instructed by correspondence schools throughout the country. The schools themselves range from the conscientious, well-organized, stable concerns to the fraudulent, fly-by-night companies that have no other purpose than to make money by misrepresentation. The best correspondence schools suffer for the sins of the worst; among educators there is profound distrust of all correspondence schools conducted as commercial enterprises, a distrust which is partly justified and partly not.

* Macmillan, 1926.

Unregulated Use by Prisoners

In almost every penal institution in the country correspondence courses are being taken by one or more prisoners. The chief reason why more courses are not taken is that the prisoners lack money with which to pay for them. They are encouraged or permitted partly because prison officials are deluded by the same alluring advertisements that catch the prisoner's eye, partly because they offer an easy way out to the warden who does not wish to let prisoners leave their cells to attend classes, and partly because they are in general a convenient makeshift for the thoroughgoing educational program which lack of funds or lack of interest keeps the prison officials from establishing. Prisoners are ordinarily permitted to purchase any courses they wish so long as they have sufficient money on the books or can secure it from their families. In some prisons the man who can hardly write a legible letter to order the course can buy a course in short-story writing and the man who does not know the rudiments of arithmetic can spend a large sum for a course in steam engineering. After selecting their courses without intelligent guidance, prisoners carry them on without assistance and drop them at a heavy financial loss when they lose interest or find that they cannot go any farther without

help. This is manifestly a vicious and wasteful system which tends to throw discredit on all educational enterprise and which discourages many a prisoner who earnestly desires an education. Yet correspondence instruction, carefully regulated and intelligently guided, has a definite and useful place in penal institutions. It has proved its validity in several institutions.

Instances of Successful Use

It is significant that the writer, in a survey of educational work in penal institutions throughout the country in 1927-28, rated as the most noteworthy programs at that time two which are conducted largely on the correspondence plan. In an article in the *Journal of Adult Education* for April, 1929, he described them as follows:

San Quentin. "The most significant work in the field of penal education in the country today is at San Quentin Prison in California. One could easily wax lyrical over what Earle M. Stigers,* the educational and religious director of the prison, has accomplished since he was appointed to the position in August, 1925. San Quentin is not a good field for any type of regenerative project. It is a huge prison in which mass treatment of the 4000 prisoners is almost inevitable. It is overcrowded and some of the living quarters, especially the ancient cells known as 'tanks,' are very bad. There is a great deal of idleness and various other factors combine to lower the morale. The educational work has many handicaps. There is no staff of civilian teachers and no pronounced impetus or encouragement from above. The space available for classroom instruction is far too small: the chapel, with a seating capacity of 250, is educational headquarters. It is necessary to use five large dormitory-cells and

* Mr. Stigers is now Educational Director at the U. S. Penitentiary, Atlanta, Georgia.

a few unsuitable and isolated rooms to supplement the chapel for the day and evening classes. The lights in the cells are 15-watt bulbs, the smallest to be found in any prison or reformatory in the country. This fact alone would be sufficient to balk any but the most persistent educational enterprise.

"San Quentin has, however, two points in its favor: Mr. Stigers and the University of California Extension Division. The former is a trained educator of unusual ability. The latter has for years supplied prisoners with correspondence courses gratis and has coöperated closely with the prison. Its courses and similar ones developed from them are the backbone of the educational work. About a fifth of all the lessons submitted to the University for correction are sent in by San Quentin prisoners. In 1926 Mr. Stigers made an arrangement whereby his own staff of inmate instructors is allowed to correct papers based on some of the University courses, and the so-called 'Letter Box' school within the prison expanded greatly. In the thirty months after he was appointed the population of the prison increased 31 per cent. The university extension enrollment increased in that time only 34 per cent, because of the change mentioned, but local education showed an increase of 155 per cent and all branches combined of 108 per cent.

"About 1300 prisoners are enrolled in a variety of courses which include nearly 100 different university extension courses, predominantly academic. The total number of course enrollments exceeds 1800. The distribution by departments is indicated by the figures for a date when the enrollment totaled 1687: Letter Box School—725; University Extension Courses—438; Day School—463; Evening School—61. All of the educational work is on a voluntary basis.

"San Quentin supplies the answer to many questions

which arise in the consideration of education for prisoners, among them the question of how successfully prisoners can carry on educational work. When one is dealing with university extension correspondence courses, there is a valid basis for judging the quality of the work. During one period taken at random, University readers graded 8637 papers from the prison and marked only 31 failures. Nearly 57 per cent of these papers received the mark of A. The University authorities have stated officially that the work done by San Quentin students averages a perceptibly higher grade than that done by outside students. There are also fewer dropped courses among the prison students.

"The prisoners here are by no means a group with superior educational backgrounds. Accepting their own statements, which undoubtedly claim too much, one-fourth of those enrolled in the prison courses have had less than five years of previous schooling and approximately a half have had less than eight years. The average formal schooling of the entire prison population is under seven years.

"The ages of students range from 20 to 67. Mr. Stigers has made some interesting notes on the relation of age to success in study. Prisoners within the 35-49 age group consistently average higher marks than the 20-34 age group, although the latter report more previous schooling than the former. Those in the 50-66 age group average lower marks than either of the other two groups. One prisoner, a man 52 years old with an eighth grade education, has completed thirty courses with a grade of A.

"The library is, as it should be, closely correlated with the educational work and is its valuable ally. It has been carefully built up, especially in its textbook department, on which $5000 has been spent in the last two years. The State Department of Education supplies many textbooks of the standard type, so that the library funds can be devoted to

the purchase of texts needed for the more technical or specialized courses. The State Library extends the advantages of its loan service to the prison and about 240 books a month are received from this source.

"The limitations of the San Quentin program are obvious. Funds for a large educational building are being asked of the present legislature. The present correspondence courses, local and university, need to be supplemented by more classroom instruction under favorable conditions. Trained teachers are needed, although the staff of forty inmates has attained surprising efficiency under Mr. Stigers. There is great need for vocational education with facilities which will make practical application of the correspondence instruction possible.

"In spite of its shortcomings, however, the work in this prison has significance for the whole country. In the penal field, where skeptics abound, an ounce of practice is doubly worth a pound of theory. The hard-shells will never be convinced that what educational theorists say can be done in a prison is really possible except on the evidence of such actual accomplishment as is to be found here. It is in some ways fortunate that San Quentin is one of the last prisons in which one could reasonably expect educational work to succeed: possibilities of success in prisons offering more favorable conditions can be held out with the greater conviction."

Wisconsin. "The second most noteworthy educational program in the prisons of the country, that of the Wisconsin Prison, is also based on the coöperation of the Extension Division of the State University.* At this prison there is no resident educational director and the success of the rather limited program is due almost entirely to the attitude of the

* A pamphlet describing this work may be obtained by addressing the Warden, Wisconsin State Prison, Waupun, Wis.

warden, a former schoolman, and to the work of Mr. Chester Allen, field representative of the Extension Division. Mr. Allen has given a large amount of personal attention to the prison and is in effect the nonresident director of its educational program. He has established a close working relation with both officials and prisoners and one could only wish for the sake of the prison that he were the educational director in fact. On his semi-monthly visits to the prison he helps men select courses and is able to spend some time assisting those who experience difficulties. He cannot, however, supply the amount of follow-up work and supplementary instruction which correspondence course study always demands.*

"The program at the Wisconsin prison is important because of its effectiveness rather than because of its extent. Of the thousand inmates, only 148 are enrolled in the extension courses. The percentage of completions and the average grade registered, however, are high and the courses appear to have vitality and significance for the prisoners. The prison is a hustling industrial plant where most of the inmates do a hard day's work every day and are little inclined to use their leisure hours in study. The routine is more rigorous than that of most prisons and the enrollment, small as it is, represents a triumph over local conditions which differ from those of San Quentin but which militate to an equal degree against educational work."

Value of Correspondence Courses for Prisoners

There are several reasons why correspondence instruction is especially adapted to use in prisons. It makes instruction possible in institutions which lack trained teachers or facil-

* Mr. Allen now has an assistant in this work. The part played by the State Free Library Commission in the Wisconsin program is described in Chapter X.

ities for classroom study or in which the routine does not permit prisoners to leave their cells for classroom instruction; it makes individual instruction possible and enables each student to go at his own speed; it supplies courses and textual material adapted to adults; it provides material for advanced courses in which too few prisoners are interested to justify the organization of classes even if teachers were available; it provides a great diversity of courses and meets a variety of needs and interests; it provides well-organized vocational courses, which can be successfully coördinated with the practical work of the institution. The weaknesses of correspondence instruction, however, have double weight in prisons because so many of the students are not capable of making an intelligent, independent selection of courses or of completing difficult courses under their own momentum. The prison cell or dormitory is not an easy place in which to carry on individual study. Prisoners are easily discouraged, in education as in other things.

Limitations on Their Usefulness

The prisoner should be allowed to select a correspondence course only after careful analysis of his qualifications and his real needs and interests. It should be recognized that some subjects cannot be taught successfully by correspondence and that some men cannot successfully study any subject by this method. Except in unusual cases the prisoner should not be required to pay for courses from his own funds; the institution should either purchase individual courses or should adopt the policy of purchasing courses and textual material outright from the publishers with permission to reprint them. Courses should be broken into comparatively short units if they are not already so planned, in order to make the maintenance of interest as easy as possible and to give the student the satisfaction and encouragement of reaching

definite points of accomplishment from time to time. It should be remembered that most vocations cannot be learned by correspondence unless the student already has had considerable experience in the vocation or is finding, in his daily work or in special training projects, an opportunity to apply what he is studying. Access to the facilities of a good library is necessary in many correspondence courses. Others require fairly expensive textbooks, without which they are useless.

Necessity of Personal Instruction

Above all, correspondence instruction should be supplemented continually with personal instruction of some type, either in the classroom or by teachers who visit individual students periodically in their living quarters, discuss their work with them, help them over rough places, and supplement the written lesson by direct teaching or oral quizzing. In most cases correspondence instruction will never be entirely successful in prison or elsewhere without a higher degree of personal attention than can be given by even the most conscientious and interested absentee instructor. There are instructors in university extension correspondence courses who feel closer to the prisoners whose papers they correct than they do to the students in their classrooms. Many of them write long personal letters to their prison students. William B. Carver, Educational Secretary of the Welfare League Association in New York City, directs the correspondence work of prisoners in a dozen different states almost entirely by personal letter. A large percentage of those enrolled complete their courses. A thorough knowledge of prisoners and indefatigable energy enable him to write letters which interest prospective students, whip up the zeal of those whose interest is flagging or who are becoming discouraged, and combine discriminating advice and good-natured exhortation to a remarkable degree. It can be

done at long range, but Mr. Carver himself would be the first to admit that direct personal contact is necessary to the complete realization of the possibilities of correspondence instruction.

In the Wisconsin institutions Mr. Allen and his assistant supply a personal touch through their visits to the institutions, and the University instructors maintain unusually close touch with the prisoners. At San Quentin Mr. Stigers, dealing with a large number of prisoners, was able to give personal attention only to prisoners selecting courses and to those who needed special help, but he trained his staff of inmate instructors to inject the personal touch in their supervision of correspondence courses. Here too the University instructors established semi-personal working relations with many prisoners by mail. At the United States Penitentiary at McNeil Island the prisoners in charge of the educational work organized a group of cell block visitors or itinerant instructors, to each of whom a certain number of men was assigned.

Not only should there be individualized personal teaching or supervision, but correspondence instruction should also be supplemented by classroom instruction wherever possible. This may be instruction in branches related to the course being studied or may be instruction in the subject matter of the course itself. It is desirable to bring together occasionally men who are studying identical or similar courses, although it is difficult to give organized instruction in groups in view of the fact that ten men studying the same course may have started on ten different dates and may represent as many different stages of progress. There is always something that can be taken up with advantage in such a group and the psychological effect of bringing men with similar interests together is good. An effort should be made to have a specialist in the field being studied meet the group

occasionally and discuss the subject as a whole. This will give the students a proper perspective and will serve to interpret many points which they do not see in their general significance.

The Letter Box School

If the institution has an educational staff capable of directing the work the best method is to purchase the textual material of correspondence courses outright and to obtain permission to reprint or mimeograph the lesson sheets. Permission should also be obtained to make revisions in the courses necessitated by the geographical situation of the institution or by other considerations peculiar to the prison. Under this method the correspondence school becomes a local or letter box school. The papers are corrected at the institution itself, the instructor can drop into the cell of the student and discuss errors in his paper, prisoners who have enrolled in a course beyond their ability can easily and quickly be shifted to another one, and a highly individualized and thoroughly flexible system can be established. The textual material of correspondence courses, moreover, will often be found well adapted to use in academic or vocational courses conducted under the classroom method, to supplement the meager supply of textbooks suited to adults.

Commercial Correspondence Schools

A number of correspondence schools offer courses which can be effectively used in penal institutions, if selection is properly regulated and instruction is adequately supervised and supplemented. The largest and most successful of all the correspondence schools, the International Correspondence Schools, some years ago established a special rate for prisoners of $2 a month. It is probable that the I. C. S. courses now being studied in institutions outnumber those

of any other school. Their courses have been more widely used in the Ohio Penitentiary at Columbus than in any other institution, but the educational work there has never come up to the claims made for it. It is not fair to charge this against correspondence instruction or against the school whose courses are used, for it is probable that no educational program could function effectively under the conditions prevailing at this penitentiary in recent years. Advice on the courses offered by a number of well-known correspondence schools and a booklet describing them can be secured from the National Home Study Council (839 Seventeenth St., N. W., Washington, D. C.), an organization sponsored by these schools.

No attempt will be made in this book to undertake the dangerous task of compiling even a partial list of the correspondence schools whose courses can safely be purchased by penal institutions. It is urged that no course be purchased from a school conducted commercially until the course has been examined by a competent educator who knows the qualifications of the prisoner for whom it is intended. The writer is able to offer to all penal institutions the advisory service of the Welfare and Education Division of the U. S. Bureau of Prisons in the selection of correspondence material, if requests are specific and are accompanied by full information on prospective students.

University Extension Work

Probably the safest sources of correspondence instruction to which the penal institution can turn are the extension divisions of state universities and state departments of education throughout the country. One of the first steps the prison educational director should take is to get in touch with the representatives of these agencies in his own state. Hall-Quest's *The University Afield* (Macmillan, 1926) is

an exceptionally valuable book on the subject. The most valuable source of definite information as to where university extension courses can be obtained is United States Office of Education Bulletin, 1930, No. 10, just published. This bulletin, entitled *College and University Extension Helps in Adult Education, 1928-1929,* is based on a questionnaire sent to 1220 colleges, universities and normal schools and on a study of their catalogs and reports. More than 800 institutions answered the questionnaire and 443 of these reported that they give some form of extension service. More than 200 subjects offered through correspondence were reported by 150 colleges and universities. Of the 150 institutions reporting correspondence courses, 111 reported that they render such service to persons residing anywhere. During 1928-29, 291 colleges and universities offered extension courses by the classroom method. The bulletin not only gives information on what correspondence courses and extension classes are available and where, but also on the following types of university extension service: instruction by radio; institutes, conferences and short courses; library service; public lectures; home reading courses; visual instruction aids; publications educational in nature; parent-teacher association service; other club service; community drama; and promotion of debates. This bulletin will prove an invaluable aid to the prison educational director.

Value at Low Cost. One of the values of extension divisions for the prison is that they are operated for service and not for profit. Their fees are ordinarily reduced to the lowest possible figures. Hall-Quest reported average fees in forty universities offering extension courses to be $12.88 for courses conducted by correspondence and $14.93 for classroom courses conducted by instructors from the university. The courses represent a wide variety of subjects. Some universities and state departments do not offer correspondence courses of less than college grade and one must always be careful to avoid those that are too difficult for men of limited education. Others offer courses ranging all the way from elementary subjects through four years of college. The textual material of most of these courses is well organized, the content and the sequence have been worked out by trained teachers, and the correction and supervisory service is of a high order. It is believed that most prisoners will get better service from extension divisions than from private correspondence schools, especially if they have the good fortune to find satisfactory courses offered in their own states.

The prison educational director in any state may well examine with special care the catalogs of the extension divisions of the University of Wisconsin and the University of California, inasmuch as the courses of these universities have already proved their usefulness in prisons. The correspondence courses offered by the Extension Division of the Massachusetts State Department of Education have also proved unusually well suited to prison use, not only because of their quality but also because of the low price at which they can be secured. The Welfare League Association has used these courses for several years and they are now being used in the federal penal institutions. It has sometimes been found necessary to revise the subject matter slightly to suit special needs or to conform to local interests, but the Massachusetts authorities take a liberal attitude toward changes. Their textual material can be purchased outright.

Direct Teaching. A common form of university extension service is direct teaching by instructors from the university. Only one prison has made enough use of this method to afford any indication of its possibilities. Members of the faculty of the Pennsylvania State College have conducted a few courses in agricultural subjects at the State Prison at

Bellefonte. The work has not proved an entire success but it is believed that this is due to other faults than those inherent in this method of teaching. If a poultry plant, for example, were conducted as a definite educational project and if the inmates assigned to it were selected because they wished to take a course in poultry raising and were capable of pursuing it successfully, it does not seem reasonable that instructors from the usual state college of agriculture could not do effective teaching, even if they were able to visit the prison only once or twice a week. Extension teaching is particularly well adapted to the training of teachers, either inmate or official. Where distances are not so great as to make the cost prohibitive, penal institutions will find this form of university service an excellent way of providing part-time instruction and supervision for all types of educational work.

Other Services. University extension covers a variety of fields in addition to correspondence courses and direct teaching: museum service; library service; radio service; supplying visual material; assisting in community drama and music; coöperating with educational enterprises in agricultural fields; arranging institutes, lectures, exhibits and demonstrations; making educational surveys; and so on. Of all these the penal institution has need. It can expect from the university or department of education honest service at the lowest practicable cost.

Instruction by Radio. One of the newest forms of university extension service is instruction by radio. Seventy-seven colleges and universities own and operate broadcasting stations and approximately eighty other institutions of higher learning broadcast educational matter over commercial stations. The procedure for enrollment is made as simple as possible. Those who desire a certificate and personal correction of papers apply to the educational institution or broadcasting station for enrollment blanks. When

enrollment has been completed and a small fee paid, literature supplementing instruction given over the radio is sent to the student. After listening to the lecture and reading the instruction material, the student prepares a prescribed lesson and thesis and sends it to his instructor, who grades and returns it.

In the many penal institutions where radios are permitted this source of educational material may well be tapped. Where private radio sets or general systems are permitted the individual student can tune in, but it is better to arrange for a set in one of the classrooms and to make the broadcasting period a class affair. Radio students will not derive full benefit from instruction unless the broadcast is followed by further study and supplementary teaching.

The latest study of this question is *Education Tunes In; A Study of Radio Broadcasting in Adult Education* by Levering Tyson. This is the report of a study made for the American Association for Adult Education; * it was published in 1930 by the Association. The National Advisory Council on Radio and Education has since been organized with Mr. Tyson as its director. It will have headquarters in New York and will have a membership of fifty prominent persons interested in education. It will operate through local and regional councils and through an advisory and information service which will be supplied to all broadcasting stations. The plan has the coöperation of the radio industry and of the Advisory Committee on Education by Radio appointed by the Secretary of the Interior.

* Address 60 East 42nd Street, New York City.

CHAPTER XV

The Use of Visual Aids in Education

THE commonly used term "visual education" is not, strictly speaking, a correct one. Education is not distinctively visual or auditory; it is multisensory. A more correct reference is to "visual aids." There is nothing essentially new about the use of visual aids in education. Every teacher who uses a blackboard, a globe, a map, a textbook containing a picture or, in fact, a textbook itself is making use of a visual aid. What is new is the development of a new type of aid—motion pictures, sound films, film strips, etc.—and the new emphasis on a technique of using visual aids which will make them more truly educational.

The Value of Visual Aids

The validity of these new aids and especially of motion pictures, if intelligently used, has now been definitely established by a long series of scientific studies and experiments culminating, chronologically at least, in the recent study conducted by Wood and Freeman * under the auspices of the Eastman Teaching Films, Inc. Little attention is paid by experienced educators to the extravagant claims which have been made in the past as to the value of motion pictures in education: that motion pictures placed in the classroom

* Wood, Ben D., and Freeman, Frank N.: *Motion Pictures in the Classroom; An Experiment to Measure the Value of Motion Pictures as Supplementary Aids in Regular Classroom Instruction.* Houghton, Mifflin, 1929.

would advance civilization ten centuries in twenty years, that the film would eventually supplant the teacher and the text, and similar wild and unfounded claims.

These extravagant claims are being repeated now that sound films have become a reality. We have all been a little daft on the subject of motion pictures for a number of years. Because they have for some of us solved the problem of how to relieve the monotony of our lives we are inclined to give them credit for possessing the magic touch in all fields. Education is dull, we say, therefore let us take education to the movies, or rather take the movies to education. But the use of motion pictures will not sweep all other modes of teaching into the discard. The most important day in the history of visual education was the day on which printing was invented, not the day on which the motion picture was invented. The teacher is still the best talkie.

Their Use in Public Schools. It is now clearly recognized that motion pictures can never entirely replace the printed text or the teacher, that they can merely supplement them, but that these and other visual aids have a definite and valuable place in the teaching process. All over the country cities are making provisions for the use of these modern aids, installing projection apparatus in classrooms, establishing libraries of films and slides, purchased outright and used over and over again, instructing their teachers in the technique of supplementing instruction by the use of visual aids, and making constant use of the almost unlimited supply of scientifically worked out visual material available from hundreds of private and public sources. In Detroit, where the city schools have been carrying on an extensive program of visual education for a decade, the superintendent of schools says, "It is now a question of supplying the demands of teachers for this visual material rather than educating or encouraging them to use it in the classroom."

Value for Penal Institutions. The value of visual aids in the educational work of penal institutions is unquestionable. Here we are always looking for something that will help us get over the obstacles of indifference and inertia. We turn to any device or method which helps to vitalize instruction, to stimulate interest, to make the prisoner feel that education is real and significant. We are now likely to leap too eagerly at that new educational instrument, the moving picture, because we know that prisoners are interested in movies. If we make wise use of it, if we do not expect too much of it, if we use it to supplement other educational methods rather than as a substitute, if we do not expect the film to do all of the teaching, and if we do not fool ourselves as to what constitutes education and what does not, the moving picture will justify our eagerness.

Use in the Auditorium. Some institutions already claim that they are making use of moving pictures in education because they show a travel or industrial film in connection with the weekly moving picture show. They may or may not be educating by this method. If a film on Cape Cod fisheries gives the inmates of a prison in the Middle West the idea that all the residents of Cape Cod wear rubber boots, they have not been educated. Such a film, by contrast, could be used by an intelligent teacher in the classroom to give a comprehensive idea not only of the fisheries of New England but also of the whole process of feeding the nation and the world with food produced in different localities, preserved by modern canning methods and brought to the consumer by modern transportation methods. One might even get a few prisoners to read books of the type of Kipling's *Captains Courageous* and could open up a whole vista of clean sea adventure to readers who have previously been seeking their release in the reading of adventure stories dealing with crime. In this way a short film which otherwise

would be only a part of the evening's entertainment becomes a real educational aid.

Basis of Selection. Prison officials who plan to make use of films in education should not think first of the auditorium but of the classroom. Every weekly moving picture program in the prison auditorium should contain at least one carefully selected film having educational value, but it should be chosen not only on the basis of what information it gives, but also on the basis of what interest it stimulates. Many a man who cannot otherwise be lured into the prison school may get his first interest in history or geography or literature or physics or in some vocational course by seeing a short film at the weekly show.

Use in Classrooms. A picture must be more than bait, however; it must not only catch the student but hold him. This it cannot do if the classroom use of films degenerates into the mere showing of moving pictures inferior in interest to the feature films shown at the weekly performance. The educational film cannot compete with the feature film on the entertainment basis and it should not try to do so. The prisoner will be interested in classes in which films are used if he sees that they relieve the monotony of drill in subjects which he should have studied as a child, explain matters which he finds difficult of comprehension in the language of the textbook and the teacher, vitalize periods of history which seem to him in the textbook covered with cobwebs, show him interesting people, places, scientific processes and industrial operations, and in general enable him to assimilate easily and quickly through the eye things which he cannot get from textbooks because of lack of language skill or lack of patience.

Avoiding Juvenile Films. In the use of films the prison teacher will meet a familiar obstacle: the idea of the prisoners that the films are "kid stuff." Many instructional films

are. In the selection of films for use in the institution great care will have to be taken that films designed for juveniles are not selected. No teacher should show a film to a class without having first run it through once. He needs to do this in order to familiarize himself with it and to prepare his own supplementary teaching. In the prison he must do it to be sure that the film is adapted to the use of adults or to prepare himself for the few spots in some films which are juvenile in tone even though the whole film is not.

The Technique of Using Educational Films

The term "educational films," as used by distributors and producers, is misleading. This term is commonly applied to all sorts of short films except comedies. The significant development of recent years is that of *bona fide* educational or instructional films designed for classroom use and planned by educational experts. These films are worked into complete teaching periods in which the teacher and the pupils participate; the showing of the film is merely one part of the teaching process, taking up perhaps ten minutes of a half-hour period. Films may or may not contain extensive titles; the text is usually restricted because it uses up valuable footage. Outlines and suggestions for classroom discussion are supplied with many of the instructional films and the teacher is relied on to develop the subject matter. The teacher must be fully prepared before undertaking to teach with the aid of a motion picture or any other visual material. He should study the film as he would study a textbook. He decides what he will say in elaboration, what questions he will bring up for class discussion, how often and at what points he will stop the film to talk about it or to ask the class questions, what slides or other still pictures he will show on the screen from another projector to elaborate various points in the film, whether or not he will show it to

the class a second time, what written papers he will require on the subject matter, and so on.

Sometimes the teacher will decide to show the whole film to the class without commenting on it. At other times he will decide to stop it frequently in order to supplement it by showing still pictures or to amplify it by discussion or by asking for comments from members of the class. It is bad technique for the teacher to make his contribution merely a continuous stream of talk like that of a guide on an observation bus. He does not need to tell the students what they are looking at, except occasionally to call attention to significant points which may escape their attention or to correct possible misunderstandings. He must remember also that if he is talking at the same time that the film is being shown the students are likely to become confused by the reception of visual and auditory impressions at the same time. The most practicable projectors are those which make it possible to stop on the film but the teacher should make sparing use of this device, as the continuity of thought conveyed by the film as a visual agent is thus interrupted. In teaching with visual aids the teacher will always have to be careful to strike a satisfactory word-picture balance.

The Use of Still Pictures

The emphasis placed in this chapter on the use of moving picture films should not detract attention from other useful devices in the same field. Lantern slides and stereographs have been greatly improved in recent years and their number and quality have increased their long established effectiveness. A newer device is the film strip (also called film slide), which is a series of still pictures printed on a small film resembling a motion picture film. These films are more compact and less fragile than slides and serve the same purpose, although they lose something in clarity and do not lend

themselves so easily to coloring. Another useful aid in the visual field is ordinary opaque material—photographs, maps, diagrams, printed pages, etc.,—thrown on the screen by a reflectoscope. Slides, film strips and opaque material are useful not only in themselves but as supplements to motion picture films. If two projectors, one for motion pictures and one for still pictures, are set up side by side and if the teacher has carefully worked out the plan of instruction, they can be used to supplement each other most effectively. For example, when a film on exploration is being shown it can be supplemented by the projection of still pictures taken from the *National Geographic Magazine*. Newspapers, magazines, scientific journals, textbooks and other current material can be drawn on for a limitless supply of up-to-date pictures. The resourceful teacher can work out lesson after lesson illustrated entirely by material of this sort, although a great deal of thought will be required to produce a collection of pictures as well balanced and as well coördinated as the scientifically planned instructional film.

The Use of Visual Aids in Various Fields

There is hardly a subject which can be taught in prisons in which visual aids do not prove effective. It is true that there are many things which can be better taught by an actual demonstration than by the use of any visual aid, however good it may be. No film can teach one how to grind a valve as well as a skilled mechanic can by actually demonstrating the operation. On the other hand, visual aids have been found useful in fields in which the layman would not expect them to be. Films made up of animated drawings have been found useful in illustrating the principles of elementary mathematics, especially the concepts of percentage and fractions, although the humble blackboard will probably always be the best available visual aid in the teaching of mathematics.

English. Miss Beglinger * found the use of stereographs and slides effective in teaching oral language to adult foreigners. The possibilities of sound films in the teaching of spoken English have not yet been tested. In the teaching of English to beginners it is probable that the more elaborate aids will always have limited use, but such well-established visual aids as the blackboard and the flash-card are two of the teacher's most useful tools. In the higher branches of English, as a means of arousing interest in great literary works and stimulating self-expression through written composition, films prove exceedingly useful.

Moving pictures based on great works of literature should be used with care. Many of them deviate so far from the text as to give an entirely erroneous impression. There is always the danger that a person who has seen the film will think that there is no need of reading the book itself. If the film makes those who have seen it want to read the book or other books by the same author, or if it vitalizes one which has already been read, it serves a useful purpose. If all it does is to tell the story, it is little better than any other form of entertainment. The result of the entrance of the movie into the field of literature has not been an entirely happy one. Lovers of good books resent the appearance of moving pictures based on well-known novels in which some immortal character of literature is poorly played by a mortal movie star. When a great novel is beautifully and carefully dramatized, however, every lover of the book is grateful for the opportunity to see the characters live and move before his eyes in a faithful reproduction of their background.

* Beglinger, Nina J.: *Methods in Adult Elementary Education.* Scribner's, 1928.

History. The same considerations have weight in the field of history. In a poor historical film characters of history become more unreal than ever. In a good film they live as they once lived, with the same manners, the same clothes, the same environment. A street scene in Elizabethan England becomes alive when we actually see it on the screen instead of reading about it on a printed page or hearing about it from a teacher. Such historical films as the Yale Chronicles of America Series and the Lincoln Cycle, and the various feature films dealing with Lincoln's life have tremendous value as teaching aids. Even such entertainment films as *The Covered Wagon* give striking glimpses of significant historical periods and events. We cannot hope, however, to substitute the mere showing of historical films for the study of history. They can illumine the study of history but there must be some study to be illumined.

Government and Civics. In the allied fields of government and civics there is an ample supply of suitable visual aids. A series of films dealing with the workings of the national government has been developed and a few good films have been prepared for use in Americanization courses and in other courses stressing civic ideals. One of the most effective approaches to these subjects is through the avenue of current events. It will usually not be possible for institutions to get the latest news reels except as a part of their weekly movie program. Older news reels which still have current interest can be secured, and supplementary use can be made of newspaper and magazine pictures projected by the reflectoscope. It should be remembered that it is not enough to display material of this type. Pictures depicting current events are interesting and informative but they have their greatest usefulness only when they are used as a basis for a well-rounded instructional period. A news reel of a Presidential inauguration can be used as the basis for a complete lesson on the office and functions of the President. A reel showing Mussolini addressing his followers opens up a wide vista in the fields of history, politics and government. The start of a good-will flight or the opening of an air mail route suggest a study of the people with whom it will bring this country in touch. If we think of current events as contemporary history we can lead the minds of our students back into the past and forward into the future from the event taking place before their eyes.

Geography. It is hardly necessary to elaborate on the possibilities in the field of geography and travel. There is probably no field in which more visual material of interest and value is available. There are films which are made chiefly for entertainment but which have great educational value, such as *Nanook of the North* and *Chang*. The Byrd films and Commander MacMillan's Arctic films are invaluable educational material. There are thousands of travel films, dealing with foreign countries and their peoples and designed largely for information and entertainment but usable by a well-informed teacher as instructional films. There are, furthermore, large numbers of sets of slides, film strips and motion picture films specifically prepared for the teaching of geography. Such periodicals as the *National Geographic Magazine* and the daily and Sunday newspapers provide pictures of endless variety for projection. In the teaching of geography, as in other subjects, it is not sufficient merely to show the film or slides to a class; there should be definite instruction of which the showing is a part.

Science. In some branches of natural science actual demonstration is of more value than the use of visual aids in teaching, but a discriminating use of models, drawings and photographs, diagrams, colored slides, films making use of animated drawings, slow-motion films and superspeed films can make even the most abstract processes of natural science

vivid and graphic. Animated drawings show us the operation of complicated mechanical devices and the formation of chemical compounds. The superspeed film causes a flower to bloom before our eyes and the slow-motion film brings complex processes within the range of human understanding. It is significant that in the recent Eastman experiment half of the films used were in the field of natural science. Many of the wild animal films and the exploration films have pronounced scientific value. The first sound films of jungle life have just been produced.

Health. In the field of health visual aids have long since proved their worth. Here again animated drawings are especially effective. This type of film in the field of sex education has proved more successful than the motion picture films, such as *Fit to Fight,* which were developed during the World War for instruction in sex hygiene. Not only are there excellent films and slides for the teaching of personal hygiene, but also sanitation and other aspects of public health. Proper care of the teeth and eyes, proper ventilation, exercise habits, clothing, eating and sleeping are all graphically taught by scientifically planned films and slides. Models and exhibits are visual aids widely used in health education.

Vocational Guidance. No function of the prison educational program will be better served by the use of visual aids than that of vocational guidance and the stimulation of occupational interest. There are now available, partly from manufacturing concerns and other commercial sources and partly from governmental agencies, a large number of films and sets of slides depicting the basic agricultural, commercial and industrial enterprises of the country. Even those which are prepared largely for advertising purposes have marked educational value. The development of sound films is expected to add to the value of industrial films as the

reproduction of the characteristic sounds of the industrial plant makes the portrayal more vivid. In the field of agriculture, the films and slides available from governmental as well as private sources are especially good. The United States Department of Agriculture is now making its own sound films.

The showing of a varied selection of films and slides will acquaint prisoners with the occupational opportunities which the country has to offer. If made a part of a well-informed service of vocational guidance and advice, they may be the means of turning many an occupational drifter toward interesting and worth while employment. A competent vocational guidance expert should give a series of talks on the occupations depicted, the opportunities which they offer and what they require of workers. More interesting still will be a series of talks by representatives of a number of these occupations. After seeing a variety of vocational films prisoners will be in a better state of mind to receive advice in the choice of a vocational course to be followed in the prison. Whoever has charge of vocational guidance will have to be careful that prisoners in their leanings toward occupations are not influenced unduly by what has been most attractively pictured. This, however, is the same general problem that vocational advisers have to meet everywhere.

No attempt can be made in this chapter to cover all the branches of instruction in which visual aids can be used. The teacher's own imagination and reference to the material listed in the Appendix will indicate the endless possibilities of this type of instruction. It is safe to say that there is no field in which some use cannot be made of visual aids. Questions of the relative effectiveness of various types and of cost and availability of material will arise; these will have to be met by the prison educational director as they have been by the authorities of city schools. The chief problems for

the penal institution will be those of cost and of finding teachers with sufficient knowledge and skill to make effective use of visual aids. The fact that so many of the best films and slide sets are accompanied by carefully detailed teaching outlines will help clear up the latter difficulty.

Practical Considerations

Narrow vs. Standard Film. There are two problems facing city schools which most institutions will not have to decide for some time to come. The first involves the relative merits of narrow or 16-millimeter film and standard or 35-millimeter film. There is little question that standard film is better than 16-millimeter film in that it produces a clearer picture. But most prisons will be allowed to spend little money on visual material, if indeed they are allowed to spend any at all. The fact that standard films and projection apparatus cost more than the narrow film type will be sufficient to throw the decision to the latter. As a matter of fact, the 16-millimeter film is endorsed by a large number of experts; there are more instructional films available in this width than in the standard width; and they have been found perfectly satisfactory in schools throughout the country.

Sound Flims. The second problem involves the merits of sound films in teaching. One can only contemplate the future of the sound film, especially in the higher branches of education. George Bernard Shaw may yet lecture and Professor Millikan perform experiments in physics in a thousand American classrooms. One can imagine the interest added to the present films on radium if Madame Curie spoke even a few introductory words on the subject. It is a sound principle of visual instruction that nothing should be taught by the use of films that can better be taught by a living teacher present in the room. There are, however, superlative teachers in every field, and some day the most distinguished

teachers of science and history may be brought to the prison classroom on sound films just as the most distinguished actors and lecturers will be. In the meantime the prison teacher must supply the sound, for sound films and projection apparatus are today prohibitive in price, so far as the prison educational program is concerned. The federal institutions have sound apparatus as a part of their auditorium equipment, but the semiportable sets designed for classroom use are not to be found in any prison.

Purchase vs. Rental and Loan. Another financial problem will probably have to be settled on the basis of economizing to the absolute limit. The most desirable system is for any educational organization to purchase visual material outright and to maintain a library of films and slides which can be used over and over. In view of the difficulty of getting appropriations for educational purposes, penal institutions for some time to come will undoubtedly have to rely entirely on rental and loan films. This is unfortunate, for any satisfactory teaching film should be used many times in the course of the school year. This is especially true when the student turnover is as rapid as it is in penal institutions. An instructional film which costs $35 on a purchase basis rents for $1.50 to $3 plus shipping charges and can usually be kept only a day or two. Rental charges soon eat up the cost of the film. This does not alter the fact that penal institutions must face the practical situation that they cannot secure appropriations for large initial expenditures. Fortunately, a large supply of films and slides is available by loan from governmental and other sources on the payment of transportation charges. Various states are now building up film libraries either in the State Department of Education or in the Extension Division of the State University. Penal institutions should make arrangements to draw on this loan material just as educational institutions throughout the

states do. The directory of the National Academy of Visual Instruction, obtainable from the executive secretary, lists the directors of visual education and leading users of visual aids in most of the states. In the Appendix sources of free material are listed.

Facilities and Equipment

Rooms. The facilities and equipment necessary to introduce visual aids into the educational program of penal institutions are neither elaborate nor costly.* There should first of all be a classroom selected especially for visual instruction. This need not be larger than an ordinary classroom, although it is desirable to select a room capable of seating two or more classes at once. The room must be equipped with suitable shades and some arrangements will ordinarily have to be made to improve the ventilation. The room must be darker for moving pictures and opaque material than for slides. Base plugs should be conveniently placed if a new room is being designed but projection apparatus can be plugged into ordinary electric light sockets. Satisfactory screens are relatively inexpensive and it is possible to use the white surface of a wall or the reverse side of a large map as a screen. A table on which to place the projection apparatus can be made in the prison carpenter shop; it should be covered with metal. If films are purchased outright, storage space must be provided.

Projection Apparatus. At least two pieces of projection apparatus are necessary: a 16-millimeter projector, which will cost about $150, and a second projector equipped for slides and film strips and the reflection of opaque material. This can be purchased for about $135. For the combination projector can be substituted a standard stereopticon with an

* See *Educational Screen* for March, 1930.

attachment for showing film strips, which will cost about $65, but provision should also be made for projection of opaque material. In the Appendix satisfactory projectors of all types are listed; the companies manufacturing them will be glad to arrange demonstrations at any institution, and the one which seems best adapted to the uses of the institution can be selected. Projectors should be of the portable type, not only because they cost less but because they can be moved from one classroom to another if arrangements can be made to darken several rooms instead of concentrating all visual instruction in one room. If the institution can also afford to purchase a standard (35-millimeter) projector of the semiportable type, which can be purchased for less than $500, or a portable projector at $200 to $250, it will open up a wide choice of industrial, theatrical and news films not available in the narrow width. Sound equipment is made in the semiportable type but a satisfactory set costs over $3000. An institution can be sure it is well equipped on a minimum basis if it has the two projectors first described above, while the addition of a portable projector for standard width films makes the equipment complete for all ordinary uses.

Sources of Advice and Assistance

The educational director to whom the use of visual aids is a new and unfamiliar project can obtain advice and assistance from a large number of organizations and individuals. It is hoped that the material listed in the Appendix will be found suggestive. The most extensive and useful bibliography in the field is that compiled by Professor Weber and published by *Educational Screen,* the outstanding periodical in the field. Invaluable advice and printed material covering all phases of the problem from the technique of using visual aids to lists of satisfactory projectors and

sources of films have been received in the preparation of this chapter from the following individuals: Dr. Joseph J. Weber, Department of Education and Psychology, Valparaiso University, Valparaiso, Indiana; Alfred W. Abrams, Director of Visual Education, State Department of Education, Albany, N. Y.; Mr. B. A. Aughinbaugh, State Department of Education, Columbus, Ohio; and Dr. C. F. Hoban, Director of Visual Instruction, State Department of Education, Harrisburg, Pa. It is believed that these gentlemen will be equally generous in their treatment of inquiries from penal institutions, if the inquiries are specific. A large amount of material is now on file in the Welfare and Education Division of the Federal Bureau of Prisons, Department of Justice, Washington, D. C. Information is available to any penal institution from this source.

Conclusion

In conclusion, visual education, visual instruction or the use of visual aids in education, call it what you will, is neither a panacea for all the ills of education nor a mere educational frill. It represents the utilization of new devices and new methods in education which have tremendous possibilities for vitalizing the process. There are few fields in which it can prove more useful, if intelligently applied, than in penal institutions, which face the difficult problem of attempting to interest adult students in subjects which they look upon as juvenile, in other subjects which they consider too advanced for their comprehension, and in education in general, which they are inclined to look upon as having little practical significance and as promising fruitless drudgery rather than interest and satisfaction. Wherever one of the primary problems is that of arousing and sustaining interest, the use of visual aids, drawing on all the fascinating developments of recent years and resting on the characteristic predisposition of the undereducated adult to learn things by seeing them rather than by reading about them, becomes an important part of the educational program.

CHAPTER XVI

The Supervisory and Teaching Staff

FOR the success of any program of adult education the primary requisite is good teaching, which implies good administration and supervision also. This is particularly true of education for adult prisoners. It suffers from all the handicaps to which the education of adults in a free community is subject and has in addition many special handicaps to overcome because of the nature of the community being served, the limitations placed on the program by the routine of the institution, and the characteristic mind-set of the prisoner himself. In no part of the field of adult education is there greater need than in penal institutions for a large and well-balanced staff of trained supervisors and teachers who are possessed of exceptional qualities of personality.

Functions. The educational staff, supervisory and teaching, has two types of function to perform: (1) the organization of the curriculum, selection of courses and textual material, planning of the courses which the individual prisoner should follow, arrangement of schedules, training and supervision of teachers, and other duties coming under the head of administration and supervision, and (2) the actual teaching.

Inadequacy of Institution Staffs

The practical problem that the penal institution faces is that it is not permitted to finance the establishment of an

adequate educational staff. Practically all the reformatories for men have supervisors of education or head teachers, but they usually receive inadequate salaries and have small and poorly paid teaching staffs. Women's institutions are seldom allowed sufficient funds for trained personnel. Only a few prisons have qualified supervisors of education and almost invariably the prison educational staff is a one-man affair. The situation in the prisons * may be judged from the following facts:

The prisons of Arizona, Florida, Georgia, Idaho, Mississippi, Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, Oregon, South Carolina, the Brushy Mountain Penitentiary in Tennessee, and the Michigan prison at Marquette have no educational programs. Educational work in the California prison at Folsom is at a standstill at present because of overcrowding. In the Alabama penal system it is practically nonexistent. On the Louisiana prison plantations there is only the barest beginning of educational work. The only educational work in the North Carolina system is at the farm for juvenile prisoners.

In the following ten prisons there are trained, full-time educational directors who are paid comparatively adequate salaries: San Quentin (Cal.), Menard and Joliet (Ill.), Jackson (Mich.), Trenton (N. J.), the Western Penitentiary (Pa.), the Virginia Penitentiary, and the Federal Penitentiaries at Atlanta, Leavenworth and McNeil Island. Each of the New York prisons has a head teacher who is a trained schoolman, but he receives a low salary. The prisons of eight states employ local schoolmen on a part-time basis: Maine, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Missouri, Rhode Island, Utah, Wisconsin and Wyoming. Wisconsin also has the part-time services of two representatives of the State University Extension Division. Delaware employs a professor

* See also Chapter IV.

from the State University as educational director. The State Department of Education in Arkansas supervises such educational work as is carried on at the prison farms.

In the prisons of the following states the chaplain is in charge of educational work: Connecticut, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, New Hampshire, Ohio, Oklahoma, Tennessee (Nashville), Texas (central prison at Huntsville), and West Virginia. Educational work in the remaining prisons is supervised in a variety of ways. In South Dakota inmates are in charge. At Folsom (Cal.) there is an educational supervisor but he receives only the pay of a guard. The Colorado Penitentiary employs a civilian on a part-time basis. In Indiana there is a guard-teacher. In the Maryland Penitentiary educational work comes under the Welfare Worker, and in the Rockview Penitentiary of Pennsylvania under the Restoration Director. In Nebraska the chief clerk is in charge, in North Dakota the steward and in Vermont the clerk, all being former teachers. At the Eastern Penitentiary (Pa.) educational work comes under the psychologist. In Washington the Warden's secretary is in charge.

No state department of correction in the country, so far as the writer knows, employs an expert educational director for its institutional system. Even the populous and wealthy states have failed to provide adequate supervisory and teaching staffs. In New York the State Bureau of Special Schools is charged with direction of the educational work in the penal institutions, but in the prisons of that state the staff is limited to one head teacher (with the exception of Sing Sing, which has one assistant), and the educational program is exceedingly limited in scope and aim. In each of the three state penitentiaries of Pennsylvania the educational staff consists of one person only. Illinois has recently begun to place increased emphasis on educational work in its penal institutions, but in each of the two penitentiaries

there is a staff of only one member. In Ohio, to cite another of the larger states, the chaplain of the state penitentiary, without paid assistants, is charged with full responsibility for the educational work in an inmate population of over 4000 men. California provides one educational director, without paid assistants, for the 4000-man prison at San Quentin.

In contrast to the prisons, several reformatories for men have fairly large educational staffs, although they are not large enough in view of the emphasis which these institutions place on education; they are almost invariably underpaid and overworked. The practice sometimes followed in reformatories of using men in the double capacity of guard and teacher is a bad one. When the teacher wears a guard's clothing, has a club lying on his desk, marches his students back to their cells after school hours or stands guard over them in the mess hall, it is almost impossible to maintain a proper teacher-student relationship. Guard-teachers are usually so overworked that they can give little time to preparation outside the classroom and have insufficient energy for teaching. Teachers should wear civilian clothing, be freed from all disciplinary duties except those incidental to control of a class, and should be put on a working schedule that is within reason.

Assistance of Outside Agencies

State. The supervisory and teaching problem cannot be met under existing conditions by agencies outside the institutions. State departments of education, already faced with more projects than they can finance from existing appropriations and without special appropriations to enable them to serve penal institutions, with few exceptions have been unable to add these institutions to the list of their responsibilities. In very few states is the department charged by

law with responsibility for the penal institutions and in these states it is able to do little. The state universities, in spite of their growing emphasis on extension work, are in the same situation. The institutions have little money with which to pay instructors' fees and traveling expenses and the universities feel that they cannot afford to render service without reimbursement.* Only the University of Wisconsin supplies direct supervisory service in any appreciable degree and the University of California alone makes a general practice of providing prisoners with correspondence courses gratis. Penal institutions in almost every state are able to get advice and assistance from the state department or the state university or both, and in some cases such forms of special service as an educational survey or the conducting of psychological tests. But without a change in the attitude of state legislatures toward the problem of financing education in penal institutions it is too much to expect state agencies to render regular service.

Local. The school authorities of the town or city in which the institution is located do not consider it their problem, nor is it. Occasionally local teachers who need money will teach at the institution outside of school hours, or some teacher or layman will help the institution as a piece of social service. No institution can look to the local school authorities for continuous supervision and teaching service unless it can pay for them. A number of institutions, some of which are cited above, now follow this practice. The State Prison in Massachusetts employs teachers from the Boston schools on a part-time basis; this is most practicable for institutions which are located in or near large cities. A few institutions in comparatively small communities have also found it practicable to draw on the community for

* Note the courses given by Pennsylvania State College instructors at Rockview, cited in Chapter XIV.

teachers. The State Prison in Wyoming employs a few teachers from the Rawlins schools and also has on its teaching staff a young lawyer and a minister or two who are well-educated if not well-trained teachers. The superintendent of the Stillwater schools is supervisor of education at the Minnesota State Prison. The principal of one of the Waupun schools supervises part of the educational work at the Wisconsin Prison.

The Use of Inmates as Teachers

Lacking the funds with which to pay trained teachers, penal institutions must of necessity rely on inmates. In every institution there is a number of intelligent and comparatively well-educated prisoners. The educational department seldom has first call on their services; the clerical force is almost invariably given first choice in the selection of men of this type. The school is usually able, however, to assemble a staff of inmate teachers who partially compensate for their lack of experience by their conscientiousness. They are usually patient with poor students, poor texts, and poor working conditions. Some are good teachers by instinct, but one rarely finds an experienced teacher in prison and when he is encountered he very often has personality defects which unfit him for teaching his fellow prisoners. Many inmate teachers are only superficially well educated. It will sometimes be found that a prisoner who has been selected for the teaching staff on the basis of his previous education has in reality had no more than part of a high school course. Green young fellows with a year or two of college work are usually snapped up eagerly because even this limited education is so much more than the other prisoners have to offer.

Inmate teachers in general, lacking experience and training, are uncritical of textual material, methods and accomplishments. They need firm grounding in the subjects which

they are to teach, continual training in methods of teaching, and guidance in the choice of subject matter and the determination of modes of presenting lesson material. Given training and supervision, many prisoners would make excellent teachers and woud be able to render the type of service which they now try conscientiously to give without knowing how. In the meantime, they are entitled to encouragement. Where the state laws permit payment of wages to prisoners, inmate teachers should be paid just as those employed in productive industries are. South Dakota, for example, pays inmate teachers $10 to $20 a month. If teachers cannot be paid, there are numerous special privileges familiar to every institutional head which he is justified in granting them.

The Need of Trained Directors and Teachers

We cannot hope for success so long as practically unsupervised inmates constitute our educational staffs. The future of educational work in penal institutions depends largely on whether or not trained directors, supervisors and teachers are provided. This is the responsibility of executive authorities and state legislatures, without whose support in the form of sufficient appropriations we shall continue to stumble along on a disgracefully low level, as we are doing today. However hopeful we may be of the future, we may as well face the fact that penal institutions for many years to come will probably be denied adequate appropriations for educational work and will have to continue to make bricks not only without straw but also without expert brickmakers. This being so, the least we can do is to ask that each institution be given the expert leadership of one trained educator. If his training is broad enough, if he has initiative and resourcefulness, one man can do a great deal with the help of inmates and the part-time assistants whom he can secure by one means or another. It is not enough to employ an

ordinary public school teacher of orthodox experience and elevate him to the position of educational director. The field should be combed for a man who has the unique combination of qualities for which the position calls, and sufficient funds should be made available to pay a salary which will attract such a man. Specifically, he can be found in the $3000 to $4000 class in most states; the salary of a city school superintendent would not be an unreasonable amount to pay. The three federal penitentiaries and the reformatory for men have trained educational directors whose starting salary is $3500 a year, and several state institutions pay the same or larger salaries.

One-Man Staffs. One-man staffs have already accomplished notable results in a few institutions, but in these cases the educational director, usually trained in academic rather than vocational education, has made almost no attempt to meet the latter problem, having all that any one man could do to cover the field in which he feels himself to be especially competent. Because of the complexity of the problem presented by vocational education and the scarcely less difficult problem of organizing academic education, one cannot conscientiously recommend a minimum staff consisting of less than one director of academic education and one director of vocational education. If forced to limit the staff to only one man, it would be wise to choose a man whose specialty is vocational education, but who has also had experience in the academic field, especially in the teaching or supervision of courses in elementary subjects for adults. The expert in academic education has seldom had adequate training in vocational education; the vocational expert often has a sound foundation of experience in academic education.

Training Teachers. If he has to expend the greater part of his funds in paying the salaries of one or two men, the head of an institution should use the remainder to secure

the part-time services of outside teachers. They should be used less in actual teaching than in the training and supervision of inmate teachers. A part of the training process will naturally consist of demonstration teaching, and the outside teachers can teach some of the more difficult groups. Money expended on occasional visits to the institution by men from the state department of education, state university, state normal schools, or the schools of the nearest city for the purpose of training inmate teachers will go farther than the same amount of money spent on men engaged to conduct classes. When teachers are brought in from the outside, however, one has always to be careful to see that they do not apply stereotyped academic standards and methods too closely. The qualifications of a vocational instructor are outlined in the chapter on Vocational Education. Those of an academic teacher may be briefly stated: he must know his subject thoroughly, he must be able to teach it to adults, and he must be able to teach others to teach it.

Specialists. The services of training teachers will be more effective if they are selected on the basis of specialized skills. For example, one may be a specialist in the teaching of illiterates, another in the intermediate branches, and a third in advanced subjects, with further specialization perhaps in the individual fields of English, mathematics, and the social sciences. Similarly, in the vocational field, if the vocational director has to rely on such skilled artisans as he can find among the inmates and on his own resourcefulness in planning material for theoretical instruction to supplement the practical instruction which these inmates are capable of giving, he should select as his training or supervising teachers a specialist in the building trades, one in the metal trades, one in automobile mechanics, machine shop practice and allied branches, one in commercial subjects, one in agricultural subjects, and so on.

High-Grade Men. As a general principle, it would be better to employ men whose fees and travel expenses are so high that they can be brought to the institution only once a week than to employ incompetent men whose remuneration is low enough so that they can appear twice or three times as often. It is desirable, however, that part-time teachers be on duty every day; there is enough for them to do in training inmate teachers, supervising their work, teaching a few classes themselves, helping individual students and teachers over hard places, and preparing or organizing textual material for the use of the classes in their departments.

A Reasonably Complete Staff

The staffs outlined above are minimum staffs, so far below the requirements of the task that only a high degree of skill and a large measure of industry and devotion could possibly compensate for the shortage of personnel. Some day, when it is considered as much a matter of course to staff a penal institution with teachers as with shop foremen or guards, we shall see educational staffs that include expert administrators and supervisors, trained teachers and vocational instructors on a full-time basis, specialists on a part-time basis, and a full-time librarian who has had experience in adult education. It will not necessarily be the millennium when institutions of a thousand or more inmates have a paid staff as large as the following:

1 Director of Academic Education at $3500
1 Director of Vocational Education at $3500
10 vocational instructors at $2000 to $3000
5 to 10 teachers of academic subjects at $2000 to $3000
4 part-time teachers in special branches at $50 to $100 per month
1 Librarian at $2500 to $3000

Costs. At the risk of giving cold chills to every legislator in America it is admitted that the annual salaries of such a staff would total over $40,000. This is about the cost of four fair-sized robberies. One wonders if this staff could not turn at least four robbers a year into paths of rectitude. A staff of this size is not inconsistent with those which a few reformatories for men have already set up. In the New Jersey Reformatory for Men at Rahway academic education is in charge of an educational director assisted by five civilian teachers, all of whom are college or normal school graduates. Vocational education in a dozen different trades is given by seventeen vocational instructors. In the Pennsylvania Reformatory for Men at Huntingdon there are a trained superintendent of academic education and eight teachers, all of whom hold state licenses. The vocational program is in charge of a vocational director who has a staff of thirty-two trade instructors.

Additions Needed. If penal institutions are to make education one of their primary functions, it is not unreasonable to advocate the establishment of an educational staff at least as large as the one outlined above. Indeed, if the institution is not to rely more fully than is desirable on the services of inmates as teachers, this staff should be augmented by additional academic and vocational instructors and an assistant director for each of these major branches. If the medical staff does not include a psychologist or some other person competent to give mental tests, some provision should be made in the educational staff for a person to do this work. Giving mental and achievement tests can logically be included in the duties of that member of the staff whose chief duty is giving educational and vocational guidance. This combined work is at least a full-time one-man job.

A Minimum Staff

A genuine, well-rounded and effective educational program cannot be hoped for unless trained personnel is provided. In advance of the day when that fact is accepted, no institution should delay the appointment of one or more educational directors and instructors simply because it cannot secure funds enough to establish a complete staff. A modest beginning can be made by the appointment of an educational director, an assistant who is a specialist in vocational training, a full-time supervising teacher or two, and a few part-time teachers who can train inmate teachers, supervise their work, and do some teaching. Something will have been gained when every institution has an educational director. One good man can make a substantial showing and can arouse a considerable amount of interest in education among the inmates. It is too much to expect, however, that any man in so difficult a position can accomplish results which we would never dream of expecting of one man in our public day schools or evening schools or in any other educational enterprise outside the prison. We need, in our estimate of what constitutes a proper staff, as in all other phases of the problem, public acceptance of the fact that modern educational standards apply to the prison as well as to the free community.

CHAPTER XVII

Classrooms, Shops and Equipment

AMONG the first requisites for successful academic work are proper facilities for conducting classes and for quiet study outside of the classroom. It is necessary that classrooms be easily accessible from the living quarters. The ideal condition exists when a whole building, wing, or floor connected with the main buildings is devoted entirely to the school and library so that the facilities are available for use by any supervised group of prisoners either during the day or evening. Reformatories usually have this arrangement because classrooms were included in the original plans. At the New York and New Jersey reformatories they are in wings of the main group of buildings. The former has over thirty classrooms. At Huntingdon there are classrooms at the end of each cell block and at Cheshire they are in a wing which is a continuation of the cell house. In Kansas, Nebraska, Wisconsin and several other reformatories the classrooms can be reached without leaving the buildings in which the living quarters are located. A few reformatories have school buildings entirely separated from the other buildings and therefore, under usual institution rules, inaccessible at night. It is not only desirable that the space used by the school be easily reached from the cell houses or dormitories, but that it be also adjacent to the library and auditorium. A logical plan, if a new building is to be built, is to include the auditorium, library and classrooms under one roof.

Prisons, in contrast to the reformatories, usually have to utilize makeshift classrooms, none having been included in the original plans. In a few prisons there are two or three rooms in semi-basements under the main building group, or in odd corners not designed for classroom use but at least usable by all types of prisoners at all times of the day. Other prisons, notably Sing Sing, Auburn and Clinton in New York, the Eastern and Western Penitentiaries in Pennsylvania, the New Jersey Prison and the Ohio Penitentiary, have school quarters located in the main yards. They are not used at night and many prisoners are not allowed to attend school by day because of fear of escape.

The Use of Mess Halls and Chapels

In the greater number of prisons classes are conducted in the mess hall or chapel. This is far from ideal but it is better than nothing. In the Kentucky Prison and Reformatory tables with drop lights are set up along the lower corridors of the cell houses—"on the flats"—and the authorities state that it has not proved an impracticable arrangement. It seems clear, however, that it is far from a desirable one. At the Delaware Prison the educational director states that classes held in the mess hall do not interfere seriously with each other. In the Massachusetts Prison a chapel which has fixed seats and a sloping floor is used by the school, and even this unideal arrangement is found tolerably workable.

In prisons where the mess hall is large enough so that classes can be kept fairly well separated the chief difficulty does not appear to be the noise or the interference of classes with each other but rather the poor lighting and lack of blackboards. In the chapel there is added to these handicaps the necessity of jamming classes into fixed rows of seats which do not afford room enough for tables or desks. There

is little that can be done to improve the usual chapel except to provide better lights.

Mess halls, especially under the present condition of overcrowding which prevails in most prisons, are kept too busy to make their use by day practicable. At night they are usually too dimly lighted; it is not wise to require or permit prisoners to study under low-powered, unshaded bulbs swung high above the tables. This condition could be overcome by lengthening the light cords and providing larger bulbs and proper reflectors. The confusion could be greatly reduced if sufficient blackboards were provided so that they could be placed around the space allotted to each class in the form of a hollow square. At regular intervals mess tables should be fastened to the floor by easily removable fastenings instead of bolts. At the beginning of the classroom period these tables could be moved to one side and space thus provided for the teacher's desk, chair and blackboard. At best, mess hall tables of the usual type will always prove only partially satisfactory as school desks because of the fact that they are placed so closely together that the teacher has difficulty in passing between the rows to help individual students.

Other Makeshift Arrangements

Devices designed to increase the usefulness of the mess hall as quarters for the school should be considered as only makeshift arrangements, but the lack of separate classrooms cannot be accepted as an excuse for failure to carry on educational work. Other makeshifts are sometimes feasible, such as the conversion of an old shop, hospital building or wing, or an abandoned dormitory into school quarters. They can usually be converted with inmate labor at comparatively little expense. At the United States Industrial Reformatory at Chillicothe, Ohio, a section of an old laundry building

was converted into very satisfactory school quarters at little expense. The space used was 72 feet by 162 feet. Around the edge of this space a series of 15 to 20-man classrooms, 18 feet square, was arranged by putting up match-board and glass partitions which extend 7½ feet from the floor and reach to within 6½ feet of the ceiling. Match-board was used to a height of 4½ feet and the remaining 3 feet consists of ordinary window frames. It has been discovered that classes do not interfere with each other in spite of the fact that the partitions do not extend to the ceiling. The use of glass in the partitions facilitates inspection and guarding. At the United States Penitentiary at Atlanta part of a floor over the main corridor was converted into school space, and eleven classrooms and educational offices were made available at an expense of less than $1000.

The Need of Permanent Quarters

The above are temporary and unideal arrangements, made pending the completion of more satisfactory school quarters, but they show what can be done. To consider more ideal conditions, any prison or reformatory of a thousand inmates or more should have a school building or wing containing at least these facilities: 15 to 20 classrooms, an adequate library and reading room, and a small auditorium or large assembly room. The last-named can be formed by lifting movable partitions between two or more classrooms. Such a room is useful for lectures, the showing of educational films and slides to more than one class at a time, and for other small school assemblies. The plans for the new federal penitentiary at Lewisburg, Pennsylvania, devote the entire second floor of the administration building to the educational department and other departments closely allied to it. This floor, which is reached directly from the backbone corridor of the main building group, contains classrooms,

offices, and a library which is large enough to serve as a reading room; the auditorium is directly across the main corridor and a gymnasium adjoins the educational department.

Classrooms. The total number of classrooms needed must be computed on the basis of providing for a large number of classes to be conducted within a comparatively few hours. Classrooms should not be designed to seat more than twenty to thirty students unless they can be further divided by movable partitions when necessary. Such large classrooms as may be seen at Elmira and at the Ohio Reformatory for Men are far too large for effective teaching. Few prison classes can be successfully conducted with more than twenty students, even with professional teachers, and beginners must usually be taught in groups of ten to fifteen because of the large amount of individual instruction required. This is particularly true when inexperienced inmates are serving as teachers.

Necessary Equipment

Desks and Chairs. It is a mistake to equip classrooms with ordinary school desks if they are to be used by adults. The psychological effect of juvenile furnishings is bad. For some of the classes standard lecture-room chairs, with broad arms on which to rest writing material and books, can be used. For classes where there is much writing, tables are more satisfactory. These can be long tables, at which several students sit, or small individual tables having a top surface about the size of a desk blotter. Tables and chairs of various types can be made in any institution. At Chillicothe the classrooms, which are used for the most part by beginners, are equipped with tables 14 feet long and 22 inches wide, made of two-inch stock and so designed as to achieve the maximum of sturdiness. A backless seat runs the length

of the table and is attached to it. Students sit on both sides of the table but can easily turn around to face the teacher's desk and blackboard, which are at the front of the room. At Atlanta wooden desks are being made in the prison shops at a cost of $2.50 each. These are individual tables about the size of the small table usually found in a hotel writing room. An elevated shelf at the back edge of the top surface provides a place on which to put books and papers without wasting working space. As a practicable design for school desks it is suggested that the general design of hotel writing desks be followed, heavier material being used. A vertical rack, similar to that provided for paper and envelopes in desks of this type, can be used for books and papers and will keep the desk from presenting an unfinished appearance. Plain wooden chairs to match can be made in the carpenter shop.

Blackboards. In every classroom there should be blackboards enough for the whole class and for the teacher. Not all classes will have use for them, but it is desirable to have every room furnished with standard equipment so that it can be used by any class. Crowding a large amount of teaching into a few hours necessitates flexible facilities. To accommodate all the classes in elementary subjects it may be necessary at times to use rooms ordinarily allotted to advanced classes. There are, as a matter of fact, few subjects in which blackboards do not prove useful at one time or another. They should be of good slate; the use of painted wood is poor economy.

Special Rooms. At least one room should be equipped for the projection of films and slides, with all the necessary apparatus: projection tables, special wiring, window shades, etc. The requirements for this room are discussed in Chapter XV. Rooms which are usually allotted to classes in history and geography need special equipment of maps and

charts which should be in standard cabinets. For the use of all divisions of the educational department a duplicator of the mimeograph type is needed. A small room should be set aside for its operation. Its chief use is in the duplication of lesson sheets, job instructions, instructions and guides for teachers, school notices, book lists, course outlines, and other material which does not need to be printed and which must be produced quickly and inexpensively.

Study Rooms

In addition to satisfactory classrooms there should be some place in which prisoners can study. It is too much to expect that full benefit can be derived from any course if there is no opportunity for satisfactory study outside of class hours. Wisconsin is planning a series of study rooms for men taking vocational courses. The ordinary cell, if occupied by only one man, and if droplights and tables or desks are permitted, is satisfactory for study. If it is occupied by two men, as is the case in so many institutions today, study is practically impossible even if both occupants of the cell wish to study. Large cells designed for four to eight men, such as are found in the federal penitentiaries and one or two state prisons, can be equipped with a table and a droplight. If the cell is not too crowded, and if men who wish to study are assigned to the same cell, fairly satisfactory study conditions can be provided in this way. Men assigned to dormitories can hope to accomplish very little unless they are capable of a high degree of concentration. Dormitories are usually crowded, confused, noisy, and poorly lighted. A few tables equipped with adequate lights at one end of the room should be set aside for the use of men attending school, as in the Indiana Prison, if no better arrangements can be made. At best, with the exception of single, well-lighted cells, living quarters provide poor facil-

ities for study. An attempt should be made to establish a study room either in connection with the living quarters or with the school quarters. If it can be near the library, so much the better. A guard or, better yet, an experienced teacher should be placed in charge of this room. A man attending school for three hours may, for example, spend one of those hours in the study room. A man taking a correspondence or cell-study course may be permitted to spend a whole evening there. Study rooms should be equipped with drafting tables as well as with ordinary study tables. The establishment of such a room and permitting men to go there for study obviously imply a more liberal attitude than most institutions now adopt toward allowing men to be out of their cells.

Vocational School Facilities

Buildings. It is impossible to conduct a program of vocational education successfully without adequate facilities and equipment. Some use can be made of makeshift quarters, but we should not expect satisfactory results in the skilled trades, for example, unless we come as near as possible to duplicating working conditions obtaining in the trade in outside shops. This is true also of shops in which industrial training is given. The department of vocational education needs one or more buildings devoted exclusively to its use. Buildings for this purpose are sometimes placed in the shop area; they may better be located so that they are connected with the group of buildings containing the living quarters and can be reached easily at all hours of the day. There is something to be said in favor of the idea of having the academic school and the vocational schools in the same building so as to facilitate easy correlation of the two types of education. In the Gary system the school buildings are so planned that the student on his way to a classroom for

academic work passes the doors of rooms in which students are working on blueprints or on machine-shop practice, printing or electrical wiring. Conversely, the vocational students are continually passing the doors of academic classrooms. The effect is to stimulate interest in various types of education and to emphasize the interrelation of all types.

Vocational schools need ample space but the type of construction used in providing facilities for them is not expensive. The cost of providing buildings enough to house a well-rounded vocational education program is reduced considerably by the fact that they can and should be built by the students themselves. The construction of new buildings is a training project for draftsmen, carpenters, bricklayers, concrete workers, electricians, plumbers, steamfitters, and all the other students of the building trades.

Equipment. Vocational schools need adequate standard equipment. The vocational program of most institutions is handicapped by insufficient, obsolete or worn-out equipment. One cannot hope to give satisfactory instruction to automobile mechanics if only a few second-hand Fords and a part or two taken from some larger car are available as demonstration and practice material. In a number of trades there is a variety of special machines the operation of which is a distinct vocation. Just as an office worker learns how to run a special type of tabulator and knows little else about office practice, so the skilled artisan becomes a specialist in one branch of printing, automobile repair, foundry work, or sheet-metal work. This means the installation of many pieces of special equipment if the institution is to meet the actual demand of the trades. Plumbing classes in city trade schools, for example, set up complete bathrooms and kitchens, with duplicates of various floor levels designed to give practice in working under floors. The attempt to simulate actual working conditions often means elaborate and expensive equipment.

It is assumed that any man competent to direct the vocational education program of an institution will know what facilities and equipment are needed. The institutional official who is making a survey of the situation with a view to initiating a program of vocational education or improving one already in operation can obtain expert advice from the offices of the State Directors of Vocational Education, from state universities, from large city trade schools, from national organizations representing the various trades, and from such federal agencies as the Federal Board for Vocational Education. Plans of typical shop layouts can be obtained from a variety of sources. Excellent plans are included in Bruce's School Shop Annual.*

In addition to the main vocational schools it is desirable to have a few rooms equipped with tables, drafting boards, benches, tools, small lathes, power saws, etc., in which men can carry on independent projects in which they are interested: building design, metal or woodworking, radio construction or repair, work on ignition systems or carburetors, and other projects either related to courses they are studying or leisure-time hobbies. Permission to use a small room for such work can be made a special privilege for men whose work in a vocational class merits it.

* See Appendix.

CHAPTER XVIII

Education in Reformatories for Men

REFORMATORIES for men, usually designed for prisoners between the ages of sixteen and thirty, have been established by the federal government and the following states: Colorado, Connecticut, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Nebraska, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, Washington, and Wisconsin. The total population of these institutions is well over 20,000; ten of the number have over 1000 inmates, at least four have over 2000, and one (the Ohio Reformatory) has over 3000. The Kentucky Reformatory is in reality a state prison and several others are little more than junior prisons. Missouri is now establishing a reformatory for men. A reformatory for men has been authorized by law in Rhode Island, but no separate institution has been established.

Reformatories for men came into the American penal system as the embodiment of a new idea in penology. From the first education was the backbone of the program. "Schools of letters" and trade schools were established. Industrial education was established as one of the major aims, but productive industries were barred out, apparently on the theory that young prisoners need education more than they need participation in productive labor, that these two are distinct and even antithetical, and that there is something essentially noble in the reformatory as an edu-

cational institution in contrast to the prison with its theoretical routine of hard labor. High hopes were held for the reformatories and exaggerated claims were made as to their efficacy in turning young prisoners from crime.

Significance of the Massachusetts Study

Finally, as increasing numbers of reformatory graduates appeared in the prisons, penologists began to recognize the fact that these institutions were failing not only as educational institutions but also as reformatories. The probable extent of their failure was not brought to public attention until the Gluecks published their notable book, *500 Criminal Careers*. In his introduction to this book Dr. Richard Cabot says, "The important fact established in this book is that out of 510 men who left the Massachusetts Reformatory during the years 1911-22, *eighty per cent were not reformed* five to fifteen years later but went right on committing crimes after their discharge. This is a damning piece of evidence—not against that Reformatory in particular, which probably stands high among institutions of this kind, but against the reformatory system in general. Here it does not work. No one knows that it works any better elsewhere." The educational work of the Massachusetts Reformatory has been greatly improved in the last two years, and it seems probable that the institution is showing better results today than in the period studied. This period was not a typical one and the group studied was not typical of reformatory inmates throughout the country. A number of reformatories present evidence of greater success than that of Massachusetts. After the Gluecks' figures are liberally discounted, however, there is every reason to believe that this institution has failed to perform its function of reform and that its failure is approximated in the great majority of the reformatories for men throughout the country.

Reasons for Failure

Difficulty of the Task. Why have the reformatories failed? Partly because, from the first, they have had an exceedingly difficult task. Experienced penologists know that in many ways the reformatory inmate is a more difficult person to reform than the inmate of the prison. He is inclined to be unstable, unresponsive and apathetic toward good influences. He is notoriously indifferent to benefits than can be derived only by hard work and steady application. He is more prone than the older prisoner to be hostile to education because the recollection of his school days, usually unsuccessful, is fresh in his mind. He usually looks on education as merely another form of penal routine. He often shows to his fellow prisoners and his officers a front of indifference, passive resistance or reckless, devil-may-care, "improve me if you can" bravado. The atmosphere of the reformatory is not conducive to progress in education or to the strengthening of character. It contains too many restless and reckless young fellows who present a problem calling for personnel and program of a type rarely found in these institutions. Today especially, when probation is so widely extended to the more hopeful cases, the inmates of our reformatories are a group from which one may expect a large percentage of failures to emerge under even the most favorable circumstances.

Mass Treatment in Educational Programs. Aside from their failure from the standpoint of reform, with few exceptions the reformatories have failed as educational institutions. In the greater number this is due to the fact that education has become a mass treatment process in which a stereotyped routine is followed. Individualization is almost totally lacking. The program of academic education is patterned after the standard public school course and is prescribed unselectively on some such cut-and-dried basis as requiring every inmate to complete the eighth grade.* The program of vocational education is also unselective and is often limited to training in relatively few trades, taught in unit trade schools without sufficient opportunity for practical application. Undue emphasis is placed on the skilled trades. Few industries have been established and some of those selected lack vocational training value. The industries are not sufficiently diversified and they tend to dominate the whole program of the institution. Such training as is given in the industries, on the farms and in the varied maintenance details is haphazard and incidental rather than carefully planned. The educational authorities have little jurisdiction over the working details of the institution and these details are not properly correlated with the training program.

There are in the reformatories too many prisoners engaged in practical work which is not utilized for training and too many others who are going through the motions of getting an education: sitting listlessly in the classroom, taking academic courses which possess neither interest nor significance for them, or dawdling through stereotyped vocational courses in which they are required to perform endless and monotonous training exercises unrelated to real jobs. And finally, those types of education, informal and otherwise, which have a definitely socializing influence on the prisoner receive insufficient attention, while the routine and atmosphere characteristic of the reformatory tend to make the inmates nonsocial if not antisocial.

The reason for this condition is not that reformatory officials believe in the type of education described above. They cannot believe in it, for they have seen it fail year after year with their prisoners. They know that many of the

* In practice, many exceptions are made, often on bases as unselective as the original requirement.

prisoners look on educational work as something to be avoided and to be got through as easily as possible if one cannot avoid it. They know that many of their graduates never follow the trades in which they have been instructed while in the reformatory and that others find themselves unable to meet the standards of competitive production because they have been inadequately trained. Reformatory officials are placed in a position of unwilling insincerity in that they must claim to be operating educational institutions, knowing that they are failing.

Lack of Funds. It is only fair to say that the reformatory, having been given a difficult task and a high aim established by tradition, has never been given a fair chance to achieve that aim. The traditional function of the reformatory is to reform, largely through education, young offenders whose reclamation by any means is exceedingly difficult and whose education can be accomplished only with the greatest difficulty. No reformatory in America has ever been adequately staffed with a sufficient number of well-trained and well-paid academic and vocational instructors, or supplied with the physical facilities and equipment necessary for the establishment of a complete educational program. No reformatory has ever been given appropriations sufficient for its needs as an educational institution. While a number of the older reformatories have become sterile with the passing of years, some of those established in recent years have been reduced to comparative futility from the very first by failure on the part of legislatures to grant adequate appropriations and on the part of state administrative authorities to establish forward-looking policies or to appoint officials capable of carrying out such policies. In only two of the twenty reformatories, for example, does the person in charge of either academic or vocational education

receive over $3000 a year. In ten reformatories he receives less than $2000 a year.

Lack of Productive Industries. The policy of not permitting the establishment of a variety of productive industries has had two bad results: it has eliminated one of the best agencies of vocational training, and it has forced on the reformatories a condition of unemployment which they have met by sending a larger proportion of their inmates into the academic and trade schools than should really attend them. This is one of the chief reasons for the present state of affairs. It is the reason why classes of all types are cluttered with dead wood, why hundreds of men continue to attend grade schools under compulsion when they have already acquired as much general education as they need in their daily lives, why men who will never touch a trowel again after they leave the institution spend day after day in the bricklayers' school, building up and tearing down small sections of brick walls as a training exercise. The monotonous and almost valueless military drill which still persists in some reformatories would probably not have survived if it were not such a useful way of killing a few hours of the prisoner's day. The routine of the reformatory is partly the result of desperation on the part of the officials, who do not know how better to employ the prisoners. The reformatory would be a better educational institution if it were a better industrial institution.

Two Plans of Organization

There are two tenable hypotheses for the reformatory: (1) that it be organized as a high-grade school, and (2) that it be organized as a community of employed young men. The American reformatory of today is neither one nor the other: it professes to be a high-grade school but in reality it is a mediocre one; it is gradually becoming a

working community and is introducing industries and other useful enterprises whenever authorization can be obtained, but it does not utilize them as centers of organized training. This change from one concept to the other is being made without any change in the avowed philosophy.

As a Training School. If the reformatory is to be a training school, it should be a good one. It should have a complete, adequately financed and well-organized program of academic and vocational education and all the wholesome semi-educational and recreational activities characteristic of the fine school: a first-class library and reading room, an organized program of physical education with athletic fields and a gymnasium, and provisions for debates, lectures, dramatics, musical organizations, publications and inmate community organizations. This is, in fact, the ideal at which a number of the reformatories still aim.

As a Working Community. Analysis of the weakness of their present programs leads to the belief that reformatories will be more successful if the effort to create a school atmosphere, recognized by prisoners and officers alike as bogus, is abandoned and the institution is not organized primarily as a training school but as a community of employed young workers. Under such a plan a variety of types of employment and of educational opportunities is offered without any pretense that formal education is the sole function of the community. This does not imply a neglect of academic education, but an attempt to make it more purposeful by basing it on the actual life interests of the prisoner rather than on a routine that the philosophy of public school education says is essential for all of us. Vocational education is stressed for the practical reason that young prisoners are more interested in it than in any other type, and because it can act as a motivating force for the whole educational program. Productive industries having

vocational training value are established, the farm and its allied activities are developed, and maintenance details are so organized that they offer the maximum training facilities. Training in all these productive and maintenance activities is not left to chance but is carefully planned, organized and directed by the educational authorities. The prisoner has a working assignment based on his occupational needs and interests as revealed by individual analysis, and education is a part of his life much as it is of the life of the young worker in the city. He has a regular job, but he goes to part-time day or evening school, takes a training course in the manufacturing plant where he is employed, learns a trade while working at it, works at one occupation while taking a preparatory course for entrance into another, divides his time between work on his job and attendance in a training class conducted on the part-time coöperative plan, or in some other way takes advantage of the educational opportunities which the community offers or requires. These opportunities are not exclusively vocational but include all types that meet the needs and interests of the young worker. Academic education is organized to supply needs ranging all the way from that of attaining bare literacy to finishing a complete school course.

All of the semi-educational and recreational activities mentioned above as desirable in the "school reformatory" will properly be set up in the "working reformatory." They can more safely be expanded than under the present system because of the fact that the inmates can be required to earn their privileges. For some reformatories acceptance of the working community idea does not involve any change in the principle under which they now operate. It merely means a frank and honest statement of the fact that they cannot attain their highest usefulness if they continue to pose as training schools in which the prisoners' chief job is "going

to school." It is probable that the working community organization has greater socializing possibilities than the training school organization, for the prisoners are being trained in a type of community life more nearly comparable to that into which they will go on release.

Industries Essential. Under this plan of organization the establishment of a variety of productive industries is essential. This does not mean cutting down the number of vocational courses, but rather enhancing their effectiveness by providing opportunities for practical industrial training and by injecting the working spirit rather than the dawdling spirit into the whole institution. If the industries are not sufficiently varied and if they are poorly selected, however, they can do the institution more harm than good. The single industry in the Nebraska Reformatory, a pants factory, nullifies any attempt to establish a program of either academic or vocational education. In the Iowa Reformatory 40 per cent of the inmates are engaged in making women's clothing. Concord is a two-industry reformatory, as are several others. Among the more desirable industries are the shoe shops, furniture factories, metal shops and foundries to be found in a number of reformatories. No industry is a good one if it turns out a shoddy product. It is not good education for a prisoner to make cheap but pretentious furniture which falls apart after a few months' use. There are moral as well as vocational considerations involved in such education.

The establishment of new industries is not readily authorized by legislatures. If the plea is made for funds for any industry at all, no matter what so long as it provides a dumping ground for the excess population, it does not deserve to succeed. If the plea is for industries that will show a profit in dollars and cents regardless of their vocational training value, it is an unworthy plea based on a

false conception of economy. But if the plea is made that vocational education cannot properly be given without participation in practical work and that prisoners will benefit more surely by academic education when attending school is not their only job, it should find response from both administrative officials and legislators.

Organization of Training

If the reformatory is organized primarily as a working community it will be necessary to excuse some men from working assignments in order that they may devote full time to academic or vocational courses, but in the latter case productive or useful work will be a part of the course. Other prisoners, for various reasons, will work all day and will receive very little formal education of any sort. Between these two extremes will lie the greater number of prisoners, whose educational work can be on a part-time basis. The part-time coöperative plan described in the chapter on Vocational Education appears to be especially well suited to the program of the reformatory; that chapter as a whole is applicable to its problem.

Correlation of Work and Training. The most desirable situation exists when every man's work assignment gives him an opportunity to apply the instruction which he is receiving in a vocational course and in his related fundamental academic work. Even with a great diversity of productive industries, agricultural projects, maintenance details and trade schools, it is not possible to meet the varied vocational training needs of all the prisoners. On many of the working details, especially in the industries, there will be prisoners who wish to prepare for some other occupation. In the reformatory there must be a great many part-time trade preparatory courses which prisoners can attend during a part of the day or during the evening. A man assigned

to the shoe shop, for example, wishes to take a preparatory course for the trade of automobile mechanic. Perhaps the garage detail is filled to capacity or for other reasons it is not feasible to put him in the trade extension course for mechanics or in the full-time trade school. In this case, he works during the greater part of the day on the regular job to which he has been assigned and takes a preparatory course outside of working hours. Trade preparatory courses should always be short-unit courses, designed to fit the student for rapid entrance into the trade on a wage-earning basis. As is pointed out in the chapter on Vocational Education, fair skill in a number of trades can be obtained in a few weeks if the training course is well organized. Preparatory industrial courses can similarly be given. A prisoner wishes to become an operative in a shoe shop, for example, but that shop has no vacancies. He is assigned to the cleaning detail or as a messenger but during a part of every day is instructed at the shoe shop in the operation of some machine as preparation for entrance into the industry.

Tryout and Short-Unit Courses. It is obvious that preparatory courses of all sorts are very useful as tryout courses. In this connection, a method used during the World War may be tried. Brief courses were devised to prepare men and women for entrance into trades and industries. When candidates for these courses were tested their training was sometimes begun with the more difficult operations which they would be called on to perform. If they were not able to master these operations after a reasonable length of time, the instructors knew that it was useless to train them in the less difficult operations, as they could never attain full competence in the trade. Whenever young workers are being given a tryout, however, they should be tried successively in a number of courses before they are finally rejected as being incapable of profiting by training. Constant emphasis needs to be put on the short-unit intensive course. It is one of the weaknesses of the federally-aided state programs that the young worker must follow a course during a nine-month period or longer, when what he most needs is rapid training that fits him as quickly as possible to earn a wage. Some full-time intensive courses can be given during slack seasons, especially in agricultural pursuits.

Differences in Prison and Reformatory Problems

The educational program of the reformatory on this basis will differ little from that advocated for the prisons. In this book there is nothing written with the prison primarily in mind that does not apply with almost equal force to the reformatories for men. The reader who is primarily interested in the reformatory is urged to consider the whole book, with certain obvious exceptions, as applicable to his field. The differences between the program of the prison and that of the reformatory will be largely differences of degree and of emphasis only. In the academic field reformatory prisoners are able to make better progress in elementary courses than older prisoners, largely because their school days are not so far behind them and they are less rusty. They are, however, more inclined to be uninterested in such courses. They will probably take less interest than older prisoners in advanced courses also, especially in those courses having only cultural value and those which require concentration over a long period. Their reading will be less often in the nonfiction field. In the vocational field, because of their lack of experience, they will need trade preparatory courses more often than trade extension courses. Forms of organization adopted by large corporations and city trade schools and the standard types of organization established under the federally-aided state programs of vocational education will be found particularly helpful as guides to the

reformatory because many of these programs are designed primarily for young workers. A useful book for the reformatory official is Evans' *Educational Opportunities for Young Workers.** Many of the bulletins published by the Federal Board for Vocational Education will also prove particularly helpful.

Individual Treatment Necessary. Individual analysis and guidance is even more necessary in the reformatory than in the prison because the young prisoner is more likely to have high-flown ideas about his occupational future. He tends especially to incline towards trades which only a few can follow successfully. Guidance is equally necessary in the academic field; the younger man has not yet learned how seriously he will be handicapped in life, especially in meeting employment requirements, if he lacks the fundamentals of education. But proper guidance will mean prescribing the fundamental education which he, as an individual, actually needs and not compliance with any fixed standard applied to the whole population of the institution. Beyond this, guidance will take him as far as he cares to go either for practical reasons or for nonutilitarian reasons unrelated to jobs, promotions and pay envelopes.

Present Practice

The weaknesses in our reformatories which have been described above and the possibilities which have been held out for them are amply illustrated in the current practice of a number of institutions. Practically all of the reformatories have some points of excellence worth noting, although few have really effective programs of education.

Pennsylvania. Taking it as a whole, the educational program of the Pennsylvania Industrial Reformatory at Huntingdon is probably the best in the country. On the academic side, there has been too much emphasis on standard grade school education and too pronounced an insistence that every prisoner complete an eighth grade course, but the institution is now making more selective prescriptions. The teachers in charge of the academic work are trained men and are continuing their training under the auspices of the Pennsylvania State College. The academic and vocational work are correlated to an unusual degree. The program of vocational education appears to be more successful than that of any other penal institution. There are both trade schools and productive industries, and actual use is made of the work of the institution for vocational training. This is particularly true of the farm, dairy and other agricultural enterprises, in which assistance has been received from an agriculturist from the State Department of Welfare, from the county extension agents, and from representatives of the School of Agriculture at Pennsylvania State College.

Over thirty occupations are taught by thirty-two qualified instructors in well-equipped schools and shops. There is a genuine attempt to give vocational guidance: prisoners are not assigned until they have been thoroughly analyzed at a staff meeting, and have been taken on a preliminary tour of the shops and trade schools in order that their interests and preferences may be taken into account in the determination of assignments. The vocational instructors are taking a course in teacher-training under the direction of the head of the School of Industrial Education at Pennsylvania State College. Such activities as physical education and instruction in music are stressed and are directed by trained men. The recreational activities in the institution are diverse and well organized. The educational program of this reformatory and the trades taught are described in booklets printed

* Evans, Owen D.: *Educational Opportunities for Young Workers.* Macmillan, 1926.

at the institution. These are supplied to inquirers on request.

New Jersey, Connecticut and Massachusetts. The program of both academic and vocational education at the New Jersey State Reformatory for Men at Rahway is also worthy of note, although the vocational training appears to be rather stereotyped and prescribed without sufficient attention to individual needs and abilities. The academic work, on the other hand, is equal to that of any other reformatory. The presence of a full-time psychologist adds to the effectiveness of educational and vocational guidance. The Connecticut Reformatory at Cheshire is chiefly distinguished for its success in combining practical work and theoretical instruction. Few reformatories have shown greater improvement in their educational program in recent years than the Massachusetts Reformatory, where a trained educational director is doing notable work in spite of an inadequate staff and insufficient funds.

Federal Reformatory. The Federal Industrial Reformatory for Men at Chillicothe, Ohio, is now initiating an extensive program of vocational and academic education under a director who was formerly head of one of the largest trade schools in the country. The new $3,000,000 plant is being built in part by inmate labor and the construction work is being used as a training project. A staff of trained trade instructors has been assembled and competent academic teachers are to be appointed. A full-time trained librarian has been appointed and generous appropriations have been made available to round out the library, especially on the nonfiction side.

Central and Western States. In the central and western states a number of reformatories suffer from concentration on one or two badly chosen industries. The pants factory in Nebraska and the garment factory in the Iowa Reformatory at Anamosa, cited above, are representative of the type of industry which has no training value for male prisoners and which has a deadening effect on all inmates assigned to it. By contrast, the latter institution has a sheet-metal shop whose equipment is as good as that of any outside establishment. The stone shops in the Minnesota Reformatory at St. Cloud have little training value and employ a disproportionate number of men, but this institution makes a sincere attempt to promote both academic and vocational education and has developed an unusually fine library.

Much of the work in the Wisconsin Reformatory at Green Bay supplies vocational training. This is especially true of its excellent farm. The quarry and stone shop of this institution are working on a large order for the State Capitol Annex. The needlessly repressive rules which handicapped educational work at Green Bay have now been relaxed. The authorization of a new recreation hall and gymnasium is indicative of its present spirit. The academic work in the Indiana Reformatory, in spite of the efforts of a conscientious educational director and an intelligent superintendent, suffers from emphasis on routine and the program of vocational education is handicapped by the size of the population. Some of its industries have excellent possibilities. Educational work in the Ohio Reformatory at Mansfield is defeated at the start by the terrific overcrowding and unemployment. This reformatory, the largest in the country and in reality little more than a junior prison, is at least 100 per cent overcrowded. The educational work is largely meaningless routine, designed apparently to keep part of the hordes of prisoners occupied. The "Monitor Training Conferences" conducted there under state vocational authorities are notable.

In the Michigan Reformatory there is no academic school and very little effective vocational education, although some

training is afforded by the industries. In the Illinois Reformatory the program of academic education is elaborate, but it has been in the past of the routine, unselective variety. There is evidence of improvement under the present management. The system of using teachers as guards has recently been abandoned; this is a progressive step. In the Kansas Reformatory increased emphasis is now being placed on education and the program has recently been expanded greatly. At first glance, it would appear that too great faith is being placed in the value of the public school curriculum as a standard requirement. This appears to be justified in some degree by the comparatively high level of schooling shown by prisoners admitted to this reformatory and the insistence placed by Kansas employers on completion of common schooling. In practically all the reformatories mentioned above agricultural and allied activities have been extensively developed. The prisoners assigned to this work receive considerable training incidentally, but there is rarely any attempt at organized instruction in these departments, which offer such an excellent opportunity for vocational education.

New York. Considering only those reformatories which have an educational program, one is compelled to put at the bottom of the educational scale the oldest and the most important historically of all the reformatories: the New York Reformatory at Elmira. Here one finds illustrated practically every fault that has been charged against reformatories in general. The plant of the institution is huge, forbidding and prisonlike. The program is stereotyped to the last degree. The old system of military discipline still prevails and many hours of the week are spent in close-order drills. Both academic and vocational education are compulsory, the inmates attending the school of letters in the morning and about half of them going to trade schools

in the afternoon. In no other reformatory is mass treatment so obviously the rule.

The school of letters is little more than an educational treadmill to which the prisoners are held by the same devices used to keep them at distasteful labor of any sort. The only teachers, other than inmates, are the head teacher, the athletic instructor, who teaches some of the eighth grade subjects, the two chaplains, and the vice president of the Elmira College for Women.* The three last-named lecture to some of the advanced classes. Most of the classes are entirely too large and are taught by untrained inmates, with a guard perched on a high stool in the classroom to keep order.

This is what the writer saw there in a civics class. The inmate in charge of the class was requiring the prisoners to read in succession from a printed lesson sheet copied from a textbook. The second paragraph of the lesson sheet in use read as follows, the subject being *The Origin and Growth of Communities:* "Watch the boys and girls as they arrive at your school and see how naturally they form little groups and begin to do things together. One group is enjoying a game of baseball, another is listening to an interesting story, while a third is working in the school garden." Another lesson sheet on the subject of healthy living was headed *Your Wonderful Body* and began as follows: "The flowers, butterflies, birds, squirrels, cats and dogs are all alive; and life is, after all, the most wonderful thing in the world; but the most wonderful of all kinds of living things are men and women (and of course boys and girls)." Comments on an educational system which permits the use of textual material and methods of this sort are superfluous.

* Appropriations for six additional teachers have been requested of the legislature.

The head of the vocational school is a well-trained man of long experience. Almost unlimited space and fair equipment for vocational instruction are available. In spite of these facts, the program of vocational education appears to be almost as futile as the school of letters. Many of the instructors are plainly incompetent and much of the vocational training consists of routine exercises with little opportunity for participation in productive or useful work. Inmates are taken out of the trade schools before they have completed their courses and are assigned to the maintenance details of the institution. They then leave the control of the vocational director and receive no further training worthy of the name. There are only two productive industries, the print shop and the bindery, which lack work and employ only a small number of prisoners. The vocational director would welcome the establishment of productive industries, but the authorities of the institution state that they do not consider it desirable and the backward industrial policy of the State of New York does not encourage hopes of their establishment.

The Elmira library is large but the figures on circulation are misleading. At each weekly distribution of books one volume of fiction and one of nonfiction are given to each man whether he wants them or not, and the total figures are reported as library circulation. There is little attempt to stimulate reading interest and practically no effort to furnish reader-guidance.

Here then is the institution in which the reformatory idea in America had its birth and in which it is now slowly and surely going to its death. At Elmira one may see the full application of the ideas that lie back of the comparative failure of our reformatories as educational institutions. It is not a matter of age, for Huntingdon is nearly as old as Elmira. Some of the more recently established reformatories are failing just as surely as Elmira, though with somewhat less impressive rumbling of outworn machinery. In the reformatories, as in the whole penal field, there is need of a restatement of aims, or perhaps rather a redefinition of the methods by which the ancient and worthy aim of reform can be achieved. There is reassuring indication that the heads of a number of reformatories are aware of that necessity and that they are steadily working away from outworn ideas and methods.

CHAPTER XIX

The Education of Women Prisoners

FROM the standpoint of education in the broadest sense, the reformatories for women are the most hopeful of all our American penal institutions. They make an honest and intelligent attempt to prepare their charges not only for greater competence in making a living but also for greater satisfaction and interest in life. In the socialized program which is usually found in these institutions women prisoners are encouraged to participate in activities possessing high moral and social value. In the educational work, which is the backbone of the institution's program, they are given academic and vocational education closely related to their real needs and interests. In all types of education the reformatories for women have aimed consciously and for the most part successfully at individualization of the program.

In social education they have pointed the way to every other type of penal institution in America. Only when institutions for men accept the socialized viewpoint characteristic of women's institutions and establish programs of education which seek to go beyond the mere acquirement of knowledge and skill, will they attain the degree of effectiveness which the reformatories for women have already attained. In vocational education, largely perhaps because of the fortuitous circumstance that the routine work of the institution provides training for women's occupations, they have been more successful than either the prisons or the

reformatories for men although their range has been more limited than that of the latter. In academic education they have had less significant success than in vocational training, but they tend to avoid the stereotyped mass instruction so often found in institutions for men. Health education is stressed and cultural education is offered directly and indirectly.

The physical plants of these institutions contribute to their educational effectiveness. The newer reformatories for women have splendid buildings and their plants more closely resemble those of fine schools than of penal institutions. The buildings and grounds of the Federal Industrial Institution for Women at Alderson, W. Va., would do credit to a women's college. The older reformatories, although their buildings are designed in accordance with the ideas of several decades ago, maintain a high standard of housekeeping which makes up in part for the deficiencies of the buildings themselves. Both the new and the old seek to produce a humanized and almost homelike atmosphere rather than a penal atmosphere.

Domestic and Agricultural Occupations

It is the good fortune of the women's institutions that their maintenance work and industries fit the inmates naturally for occupations in which they find employment on release. Particularly is this true of those women who are returning to their homes or are entering domestic service, and those who live on or are employed on farms. Contrary to the usual belief, domestic occupations contribute the majority of women offenders. Statistical evidence appears to disprove the idea commonly held that the entrance of women into industrial life is responsible for a great increase in female criminality. Evans says, "The traditional pursuits of women—housework, sewing, laundry work, nursing,

and the keeping of boarders—furnish more than four-fifths of all the female criminals compared with only about one-tenth furnished by all the newer pursuits, including mills, factories, shops, offices, and the professions. And the number of criminals who have never been wage earners in any pursuit but who come directly from their own homes into the courts and penal institutions is more than twice as large as that coming from all the newer industrial pursuits together. The Government investigation into *The Relation Between Occupation and Criminality of Women* showed that nearly three-fourths of the women criminals come from among domestic servants and waitresses, although less than one-fourth of our gainfully employed girls and women are in those two occupations." *

In practically all reformatories for women there are opportunities for teaching the various branches of domestic work and for giving training in truck and market gardening, canning and preserving, the care of stock and poultry, dairy work, and other types of home and farm work. Many reformatories also teach such household arts as elementary interior decoration. They allow considerable latitude in the decoration of the inmates' rooms and encourage initiative in this respect. Several require each inmate to make her own Sunday dress before she is allowed to wear anything but the uniform of the institution, and teach her to make and repair clothing of several types before her release. Because of the emphasis which is already placed in women's institutions on training for farm life and domestic occupations and because they are so generally successful in this branch of vocational education, it is not discussed at length in this chapter. The technique of domestic science is well understood, competent teachers are available everywhere,

* Evans, Owen D.: *Educational Opportunities for Young Workers.* Macmillan, 1926.

the opportunities for practical application are ready at hand, and information on the subject is available from a large number of sources.

Many women's vocations can best be taught in the actual work of the institution by a proper combination of theory and practice, but there is danger of relying too implicitly on participation in institutional work to educate automatically. One reformatory, that of Ohio, requires the women to do practically all the maintenance work of the institution, even such heavy operations as wheeling ashes, tending boilers, and other work customarily done by male employees. It would seem that the State of Ohio errs on the side of economy in this regard. It is true that many women are strong enough for hard manual labor and that they are likely to do heavy work all their lives. It is also true that by work of this sort they are trained to be less dependent on labor-saving devices. Its value as a katharsis is obvious in cases of emotional instability. Many women enjoy doing heavy work because they feel satisfaction when they have to flex their muscles instead of concentrating mentally on light but exacting tasks. In general, however, heavy manual work has little definite training value.

Need of Varied Training

Vocational education for women prisoners should not consist of training in farm work and domestic occupations alone, although these must ordinarily be emphasized. The number of women going into commercial occupations and into trade and industry is increasing yearly. Especially in institutions near large cities, the women prisoners who are recruited from the industrial group cannot be disregarded. The reason for the emphasis which institutions for women have placed on training in domestic science is undoubtedly to be found in the fact that they have very little opportu-

nity to give effective training in commercial occupations and in the trades and industries. The great variety of occupations in the latter field for which women may be trained is discussed in Bulletin 58 of the Federal Board for Vocational Education, referred to hereafter. We need to recognize the worth of trade and industrial education for women, just as we need to place the stamp of social approval more whole-heartedly on domestic occupations. Some women are best fitted for domestic occupations and will be most happy in them; others are happy and successful only in commercial and industrial life. For the latter group domestic science is a grim specter which haunts them at every turn. Both in the reformatories and in the world outside they find it difficult to get training for the occupations from which they came and to which they wish to return with greater skill and earning power.

Commercial Training

To the so-called "brighter girls" women's institutions usually offer some instruction in stenography and typewriting. It should be remembered that these are only two of the many hundreds of commercial occupations. There is a large number of specialized occupations in the commercial world in which it is much easier for the average graduate of an institution to find employment than in stenography and typewriting. These include the varied positions in mercantile establishments and, in business offices, such occupations as bookkeeping, filing, and the operation of a great variety of tabulating and computing machines and other mechanical devices. Only a small percentage of women commercial workers, in fact, need stenography and typewriting. The difficulty of teaching commercial subjects in institutions is discussed in the chapter on Vocational Education. In our guidance of women workers today we tend to obliterate

the lines of demarcation between commercial and industrial employment because both are essentially mechanical operations suited to the technically inclined worker. Another point of importance arises in guidance: graduates of women's reformatories may well be guided into occupations where the personal relations are less close than in the occupation of stenographer. It is also recognized that the day dreaming or "wishful thinking" which causes so many former prisoners to give up their jobs and get into trouble again is not as likely to take place in an industrial occupation as in an office because of the concentration demanded.

Trade and Industrial Training

It is unfortunately very difficult to give adequate training for the trades and industries in women's institutions. They are usually so small that it is difficult to establish diversified productive industries whose conditions are comparable to those in outside industries. It is a well-recognized principle of industrial training that it is not effective unless there is an opportunity to participate in productive or useful work. A number of reformatories for women successfully combine production and instruction in sewing industries. The Massachusetts Reformatory at Framingham operates successful sewing industries on the state-use basis. Such industries can be set up in either small or large units. They must be well equipped and well organized and must produce satisfactory goods. When women are being taught power sewing they must learn to set the pace and achieve the quality demanded by outside industry if they are to make good at similar jobs on release. It might prove practicable for the institution to contract with outside manufacturers for part-production work to be used as an industrial training project. In the teaching of power sewing it should be remembered that the skill lies in the handling of the

material rather than in the mechanical operation of the machine. Effective instruction in hand sewing can also be given in women's institutions. A good living can always be made by the woman who is skilled in needlework: in the smocking characteristic of Czecho-Slovakian dresses, for example. Hand sewing and power sewing together constitute a broad training field.

A Popular Vocation. There is one occupation, that of beauty culturist, which appears to have the same fascination for women prisoners that the trade of automobile mechanic has for men prisoners. It is a well-paid occupation and failure to give training for it in reformatories for women is not justifiable on superficial grounds. It is difficult to give adequate training for this vocation unless the students have actual customers on whom to work in addition to their fellow prisoners. Elaborate and expensive equipment and supplies are needed, and expert direction. Increasingly high standards are being established for entrance into the trade. In California, for example, the requirements are so high that the trainee appears almost to be preparing for the profession of registered nurse. Twenty-two states now require 625 to 1200 hours of training with related science. In spite of these facts, as complete a course as can be financed should be offered to a limited number of inmates.

Unskilled Workers

A large number of the operations performed by women in industry do not need to be taught in the institution. A characteristic job for the unskilled woman worker is the operation of an automatic press which stamps out pieces of metal. She feeds the press, pushes levers or pedals, and is required to make only the most elementary adjustments of the machine. These jobs, in which women easily find employment, can be learned very quickly. They can best be

learned by the pick-up method on the job itself, although every industry should provide a short-unit "vestibule course" for its workers. Women who are headed for such industrial occupations can well concentrate on other types of education while they are in the institution. Many of this group will be immediately indicated when intelligence tests are given, although they should not be barred from consideration for better occupations by a low intelligence quotient. Skill and intelligence do not always go exactly hand in hand.

The time of these women can be effectively spent in improving their academic education and in learning those things which will be generally useful to them as independent individuals or as members of a home and which will enable them to live more satisfyingly or more economically: how to make and repair clothing, how to plan, cook and serve a good meal, how to decorate their rooms or homes, and even how to wash their own hair. These prospective industrial workers should also be given instruction in safety and health, training in their proper relation to their fellow workers, and a guidance course which will acquaint them with the opportunities existing in the industrial world, the qualifications which are demanded, the wage scales, the possibilities of rising, their legal status, the difficulties which they will meet, and from what organizations, such as the Y.W.C.A. and similar Catholic and Hebrew organizations, advice and assistance can be obtained.

Vocational Guidance. Vocational guidance should be individual. It is not economical vocational practice to require every woman prisoner to serve a certain period in each of the different branches of institution work: housework, farm work, power sewing or other industries, etc. She may happen to discover what she likes best to do and is best fitted to do by trying everything, but this is a waste of the very short time which she will spend in the institution. A properly

trained vocational guidance expert or even a person of reasonably extensive experience and sound common sense, with the aid of a staff conference, should be able to analyze each woman soon after she is received at the institution and by studying her individual characteristics and her occupational history should be able to decide in what occupation she is most likely to succeed and find satisfaction. Her vocational training during the whole of her term, which is ordinarily brief enough, should then be devoted to that field.

There is one definite obstacle to this direct approach: many women prisoners are received in very bad physical condition and for a few weeks need outdoor work or other work that is not closely confining. A large percentage have active venereal disease and cannot, until they are cured, be used in domestic operations which involve the handling of food. The latter group, however, can be safely used in the laundry and in the cleaning details. During the period when they are undergoing medical treatment they can be taking a pre-vocational course in some branch of domestic science, even if it consists largely of demonstrations conducted by the instructor and not actively participated in by the students. They can begin trade and industrial training at once.

Weaknesses of Vocational Programs

The real weakness of vocational education programs in women's reformatories is that they are haphazard; too much is left to chance and there is too little definite, organized instruction and training under competent teachers. Although all sorts of occupations are continually recruiting women who are "green hands," the woman who is leaving a reformatory needs as much vocational skill as she can muster in order to compensate for her undesirable record when she faces a prospective employer. Into some occupations she cannot go without definite training: in many cities women with no preliminary training in power sewing machine operation find that the occupation is practically closed to them. The reformatory parolee should be able to present herself to employers with something more than the statement, "I am bright and willing and I can learn quickly." She should be able to say, instead, "I have taken a training course for six months, and I have been employed for six months under expert supervision. I can do this and this type of work, I know how to operate these types of machines, and my productive speed is so many pieces a day." In domestic operations similarly she should be able to say, "I am a trained waitress" or, "I am a competent meat cook" or, "I have been trained for general household service and can do the cooking and general housework for a family, including waiting on table and doing as much of the laundry as is required." She should be supplied with a card or certificate from the institution testifying to her training.

The women's reformatories do not focus sharply enough on vocational training objectives and tend to give general rather than specific training. For example, a woman is assigned to a cottage kitchen where she is to receive instruction in cooking. As a matter of fact, she may receive instruction in peeling potatoes, washing dishes, and nothing else. In one large reformatory for women only one woman in each cottage kitchen is doing any significant amount of cooking, and she is usually a person chosen for the kitchen detail because she is already a competent cook. In this institution a few women are actually learning something about cooking in a class conducted by a domestic science teacher, but this class is not in any true sense a preparatory course for further practical training in the cottage kitchens, nor are the two agencies of instruction closely correlated. It is so easy to say that a woman is learning poultry raising

because she is assigned to the poultry plant that one is tempted to neglect definite and organized training. This is true of practically every working detail about the institution. Women often learn only by the pick-up method, which is wasteful of time and which leaves large gaps in the knowledge required.

As in all vocational education, the training of women should be based on scientific job analyses and time studies. The requirements of every occupation in which they are to be trained must be studied, the necessary skill and knowledge defined, the most effective methods of imparting them worked out, and the training schedule planned on the basis of the time available, the capabilities of the trainee and similar factors. The need for job analyses applies to the most simple as well as to the most complex processes: to dish washing as well as to functioning as a forewoman in a canning plant. The reformatories are to be commended for trying to teach every woman some vocation, but they have not yet made their training effective by putting modern vocational training methods into complete operation.

Weaknesses of Academic Programs

In the same way academic education tends to be inexact. On the assumption that women need or care for very little of this type of education they are not given enough. The exact knowledge of reading, writing and arithmetic necessary as a supplement to specific vocational skills is not carefully worked out and systematically given. Determination of these facts should be a routine part of any job analysis. How much English or arithmetic does the waitress need? the family cook? the farmer's wife? the stenographer? the salesgirl? the power machine operator? the beauty culturist? How much ability to read? to write? How worth while is it for any woman, aside from her job, to be able

to read magazines, newspapers and books or to keep personal and family budgets? In short, the aim should not be vaguely to eliminate illiteracy or to give every woman a third grade education, but to meet specific needs and desires revealed by individual analyses and job analyses, including an analysis of the job of living.

The program of academic education in most reformatories for women is regrettably weak. This is largely due to the fact that vocational training makes a stronger appeal, that the two types of education are not sufficiently coördinated, and that many of the women are of low intelligence and find academic instruction difficult and dull. In view of the shortness of sentences, if one has to choose between academic and vocational education she may well lean strongly toward the latter, but there should be individual prescription rather than mass prescription. Some women would like to fill in the gaps in their schooling or to brush up the points on which they are rusty. Others would like to comply with the educational requirements for positions which they hope to get on release. Others are interested in academic work without any relation to their vocational advancement. All of these women should be given an opportunity for as much education as they can assimilate and have time for.

It seems wise, as in institutions for men, to aim at helping each inmate to acquire at least a minimum set of intellectual tools. These, as indicated in Chapter V, include ability to read, speak and write simple English, an elementary knowledge of American history and geography, some understanding of civic ideals, and a knowledge of the fundamental principles of health. The last-named is particularly applicable to women's institutions and may include nursing, child care, etc. Classes can well be established in all the fundamental subjects. For those who are capable of going

beyond the minimum course use can profitably be made of simple university extension or other correspondence courses, or of advanced classroom instruction where there are enough women interested in any subject to make it feasible.

The Teaching Staff

Many reformatories find it necessary to use members of the staff as teachers, lacking sufficient funds for an adequate teaching staff. The superintendent's secretary teaches a course in stenography and typewriting; the steward and dietitian give courses in food values, meal planning and preparation; the physician and nurses give courses in first aid, baby care, etc. If the institution is near a fair-sized town or city, it is usually possible to employ teachers on a part-time basis, although they are not available during the day and are often too tired after a day's work to be effective as teachers in the evening. Fewer inmates capable of acting as teachers are found in women's institutions than in those for men. To set up an effective educational program there should be a full-time staff of both academic and vocational teachers.

The Library

In any program of education a good library under a trained librarian is essential. What has been written about the library as an agency of education has applicability to institutions for women as well as for men, although women prisoners read less than men and within a narrower range. The many well-illustrated magazines for women which have both fiction and nonfiction articles should be subscribed for liberally by the institution. The advertisements are of particular interest to women prisoners. The institution library should be made easily accessible to the prisoners and an attractive reading room should be provided. The library room in the Massachusetts Reformatory for Women at

Framingham is the most attractive to be found in all the institutions of the country. When the institution is organized under the cottage system, small cottage libraries should be established. They should not consist of discards from the main library but should be carefully selected books which are frequently changed. All the devices for interesting and guiding readers suggested in the chapter on the library should be used in women's institutions. It is possible to find a large number of women prisoners who enjoy making decorative posters and other eye-arresting material.

Social Education

The greatest contribution made by the reformatories for women is their development of programs of social education. This is not accomplished by formal instruction but in the activities of the institution. Great emphasis is placed on dramatics, pageants, chorus singing, supervised recreation, and other types of group activity which tend to socialize the individual. The best of the reformatories have a well-organized and intelligently directed inmate community organization, sometimes called the "student government." Inmate community organizations have been found uniformly successful in these institutions. They are of unquestioned value not only because of their effect on the morale but also because of the training in social group relationships which they give. Institutions for women are fortunately free from many of the restrictions which are placed on those for men and are allowed to organize their programs from the socialized viewpoint. The value of the social training given is incalculable.

Women in Prisons and Jails

Not all women prisoners are in reformatories; only the federal government and thirteen states have established such

institutions. These states are Connecticut, Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Maine, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Nebraska, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and Rhode Island.* Illinois, Indiana and New York have prisons for women where there are only the beginnings of an educational program. The Vermont House of Correction has much of the reformatory spirit and program. In the remaining states women are confined in a department of the men's prison, often under very poor conditions and almost always with inadequate staffs. Educational work of all sorts is practically nonexistent, although the small numbers of inmates would make individual attention possible. Every state confines women in jails and workhouses, usually under the abominable conditions indicated in the chapter on education for jail prisoners. In only a few short-term institutions is any attempt made to provide educational opportunities.

Aids in Planning Educational Work

In planning academic work the chapters devoted to that subject in this book will be found helpful; they have validity for women prisoners, with obvious adaptations. The new manual for teachers of adult illiterates should be noted especially. On the subject of vocational education for women, institutions can get advice and printed material from a number of governmental sources and from such organizations as the American Home Economics Association and the National Council of the Y.W.C.A. A useful booklet relating specifically to prisoners is *Industries for Correctional Institutions for Women,*** the report of a survey made by the committee on the care and training of

* The establishment of a women's reformatory in California has been authorized.

** Address National Committee on Prisons and Prison Labor, Room 2209, 250 West 57th Street, New York City.

delinquent women and girls of the National Committee on Prisons and Prison Labor. The emphasis which this organization places on the state-use system of inmate labor must be taken into account in using the bulletin, but it will be found especially helpful in its definition of the minimum essentials in household care, cooking and the care of clothing, its description of industries in operation in women's institutions, and a list of industries in which more than 50 per cent of wage earners are women (based on 1919 figures). Proper training methods as well as possibilities for profitable production are discussed.

Useful and concise government publications can be obtained by writing direct to the Government Printing Office in Washington or by applying to the Bureau of Home Economics in the Department of Agriculture, the Federal Board for Vocational Education, and the Women's Bureau in the Department of Labor. In the field of trade and industrial education the most valuable book available is Bulletin No. 58 (1920) of the Federal Board for Vocational Education, entitled *Trade and Industrial Education for Girls and Women.* Although ten years old, it is still valid today. Part 1 discusses the economic and social aspects of vocational education for girls and women; Part 2 describes ways and means of establishing and operating a program. It should be read from cover to cover, although it contains a convenient detailed synopsis of the subject matter. The following references from the annual reports of the Federal Board have special bearing on vocational education for girls and women:

Third Annual Report, 1919, pages 64 to 70 inclusive.
Fourth Annual Report, 1920, pages 40 to 45 inclusive.
Fifth Annual Report, 1921, pages 40 to 47 inclusive.

Special consideration is given in this report to training for the following industries: silk, hosiery, garment, light metal trades, textiles, woodworking, laundry, hotel, and fireside industries.

Sixth Annual Report, 1922, pages 52 to 57 inclusive.

Seventh Annual Report, 1923,* pages 65 and 66.

The Year Book, 1923, Section on trade and industrial education for girls and women, pages 274 to 287 inclusive.

Conclusion

In conclusion, certain considerations may well be emphasized:

1. The shortness of time available for instruction, in view of the short sentences women prisoners usually receive, must always be taken into account. By skilled analysis and guidance each prisoner should be placed as soon as possible in the training course best suited to her needs. Her program of work and education should be based on individual analysis rather than on group requirements.

2. The institution should set up as diversified a program of training as possible. With full recognition of the practical impossibility and the lack of necessity of giving training for many trades and industries, an attempt should be made to fit women for entrance into a variety of commercial and industrial occupations as well as domestic and agricultural life.

3. Vocational training should be organized, not haphazard; and specific, not general.

4. Every work detail about the institution should be considered as supplying an opportunity for training. For example, even the women who do nothing but clean floors

* Last year in which separate reports were made on trade and industrial education for girls and women.

and woodwork should be given practical instruction on such points as what cleaning compounds are most effective, how to remove stains from woodwork, what mechanical equipment is useful and how to operate it, and other points which will suggest themselves to the intelligent teacher.

5. Academic education should be designed to meet individual needs and each prisoner should be encouraged to go as far as time, interest and capabilities permit. For many women prisoners this will mean only elementary instruction. Compulsion will not be found effective. Reformatories for women find it more effective to make their schools so interesting and attractive that the women ask to go to them. This was done at the Pennsylvania Reformatory, for example, by the simple device of giving a series of school parties.

6. It is desirable to break all instruction into short-unit courses. Prisoners are encouraged if from time to time they know that they have reached some definite objective. Credit cards, indicating the points earned or the progress made, should be issued periodically.

7. The project method is particularly well adapted to women's institutions. The operation of a home-management house similar to those used in the instruction of teachers of home economics in the federal-state program would provide many projects of greater value than the institutional work.

8. As with all prisoners, the use of visual aids will be found effective with women if intelligently worked into the whole teaching process.

9. In planning a program of education for women prisoners, many of whom are of limited intelligence, and the greater number of whom have had little formal schooling or vocational training, one should not overshoot the mark and, on the other hand, should not undershoot it. The pro-

gram should not be spread out too thin, but not all the women should be crammed into courses training for a few occupations.

10. Among the reformatories for women whose programs are particularly worth studying are those of Connecticut (East Lyme), Massachusetts (Framingham), New Jersey (Clinton Farms), New York (Bedford Hills), Pennsylvania (Muncy), and the Federal Reformatory at Alderson, West Virginia. There are few institutions for women in which something of value cannot be learned.

CHAPTER XX

Education in Jails

THERE is a common assumption that education is impossible in jails, workhouses and other institutions whose prisoners are principally short-termers. It is true that it is difficult to make education effective in such institutions and that the program must be limited in aim and scope, but it is not impossible. The chief obstacle does not lie in the shortness of the terms but in conditions which are characteristic of the American jail and workhouse and which are removable. These are overcrowding and idleness, filth and corruption, both physical and moral, official incompetence, indifference and dishonesty, and public apathy toward these institutions, which are nearer to our doors than any other penal institutions but about which we know less and apparently care less than about any other type. Of all American penal institutions the jails are the worst and most neglected. The jail prisoner is not educated chiefly because nobody bothers to educate him. The writer once knew a little county jail of which a college graduate and three illiterates were the only occupants for a whole winter; not the slightest attempt was made to have the former teach the latter.

One is not justified in feeling hopeful of even the merest rudiments of education being promoted in the hundreds of jails and workhouses throughout the country where prisoners lie in filthy, overcrowded cells all day long or congregate in dingy, congested bullpens, where vice flourishes and

officials profit by it, where those without money are neglected and starved while those who can pay for them receive special food and undue liberties, where the whole atmosphere is destructive of any interest in self-improvement even if there were facilities for it. There are, however, here and there in the country short-term institutions which have decent physical facilities and officers who are honest, humane and desirous of improving their charges. Some of them are situated where there is sufficient public interest to make the assistance of individuals and of local educational and social agencies available. To these institutions we can turn in the hope that they may demonstrate what can be done with short-term prisoners of the low-grade types ordinarily found in the jail and workhouse. Among others, for example, the Cincinnati Work House, under the stimulus of the City Department of Public Welfare and with the aid of local agencies, makes an honest attempt to offer its prisoners some educational opportunities. Educational work in the Detroit House of Correction is supervised and financed by the city schools. At the Holmesburg Prison in Philadelphia local agencies coöperate in the educational and library program.

Vocational Training

There are certain obstacles which, given decent conditions and the best of intentions, it is still difficult to overcome. Only a few types of vocational education can be given in an institution where most of the sentences are for thirty, sixty or ninety days. But instruction can be given in a few trades and semiskilled occupations, especially to those prisoners who already have some foundation in them and can make effective use of short-unit courses. The garage mechanic who is just getting started in his trade can in the course of a short sentence learn two or three new technical

processes, such as grinding valves or repairing ignition systems or complete oiling and greasing, which will add to his earning capacity when he gets out. A man who aspires to be a janitor can learn something in thirty days about how to care for small boilers, how to make minor plumbing and electrical wiring repairs, and what cleaning equipment and compounds are most effective. Because of the frequent turnover practically all vocational instruction will have to be individual, but is likely to be all the more effective for that reason.

The above are obviously exceptional cases. The problem of the jail is not what to do with the occasional skilled or semiskilled worker who is committed to it, but what to do with the drifter, the bum and the jack-of-no-trade who make up the bulk of the population. It is almost impossible to set up productive industries that have any vocational training value, because only those industries can be operated in which it is possible to absorb new workers constantly and to train them quickly. This is the type of industry in which the worker does not need to have any particular skill to get employment in a plant outside. Agricultural education is also handicapped. In only the rural institutions, and there very seldom, is there an opportunity to employ more than a few prisoners on farm work and to make this a medium of training. In some of the larger city institutions it is possible to operate productive industries in spite of the constant turnover, but we cannot expect them to give any very useful training. If they are properly operated they may have some effect in strengthening or developing habits of industry.

As jail industries are ordinarily operated, the prisoner, working at a slow pace in a poorly equipped shop, performing an operation which is quickly learned and is thereafter entirely mechanical, and turning out a product of inferior quality, is bound to receive poor training. In jails the larger

percentage of those prisoners who are employed at all is usually on such maintenance details as cooks, bakers, cleaners, clerks and firemen; a few are in the skilled trades as plumbers, electricians and carpenters. Although they will find little opportunity for varied experience in the work of the institution it is possible, with some ingenuity, to organize vocational instruction on an individual basis in connection with these working details.

Interest and Guidance. For the mass of prisoners it is necessary to concentrate on stimulating vocational interest and giving vocational guidance rather than on attempting to give direct vocational training. This can probably be accomplished most effectively by securing from the nearest large community the help of trained men representing a variety of vocations to give a series of informal lectures, supplemented by a liberal use of trade and industrial films and other visual aids. The talks or lectures should not be primarily inspirational but informative. They should give a general survey of the employment opportunities which the country has to offer and a definite idea of the requirements which are standard for each vocation, the wages which are paid, the parts of the state or the country as a whole where specific types of employment are to be found, and the agencies through which one can secure help in finding employment. The word lecture does not properly describe the type of informal talk which will prove effective. Gradually a staff of speakers can be brought together who not only know the vocations which they represent, but also know how to talk to the type of men who are found in jails. Some men can be induced to do this sort of work on a voluntary basis as a piece of social service, and others can be secured for a nominal fee. The program should not be a haphazard one, but should follow a regular schedule and should complete during each cycle an orderly and balanced presentation

of the group of vocations selected for the discussion. The cycles of talks can be so arranged that they will be repeated every thirty, sixty or ninety days. The attempt should be made to find at least one vocational guidance expert who will give advice to individual prisoners.

Health Education

A second cycle of talks and demonstrations in the field of health can be arranged, again with extensive use of films, slides and other visual material. The program of health education need not be too ambitious, for the cardinal points can be presented in brief form within a thirty-day period. In this field outside help will also be necessary but it will prove more easy to secure than in the academic or vocational field because of the fact that the promotion of personal and public health is recognized to be a function of the state and of the community. Organized recreation can be made an agency of health education. When space is limited, prisoners can be permitted to use it in relays.

Academic Education

In the planning of any program of academic education, one must recognize the fact that only a start can be made in the course of sentences ranging from one to three months, and that there is little likelihood that even those who have shown considerable interest in academic education while serving sentence will continue after they leave the institution. It will be almost impossible to organize classes because of the rapid turnover; instruction on an individual basis will be necessary. It is possible, however, to devise a course covering sixty to ninety days in which illiterates can make some progress in reading, writing and other fundamentals. Some of this group can be encouraged to continue after they are released by bringing them in contact with evening

schools or other local educational agencies and asking individual members of service clubs or fraternal organizations to act as big brothers to the extent of trying to keep in touch with released prisoners and encouraging them to attend evening school.

Correspondence Courses. Use can be made of correspondence courses, conducted by the institution itself on the letter box basis or by outside educational organizations, although the living conditions of most jails are not conducive to study in the cells. If possible, a study room should be made available. This type of instruction also calls for follow-up work after release, as very little more than a start toward the completion of a correspondence course of any value can be made in one or two months. Except in the case of especially devised short-unit courses correspondence instruction is ill-adapted to jail use. Released prisoners are almost certain to drop long courses.

The Library

The library as an educational agency has a valid place in the jail as well as in the prison. A few jails have extensive although not well-rounded libraries. The Los Angeles County Jail has recently accumulated a large collection of books with the help of the Elks, who have made this a social service project. There is an officer-librarian, and two members of the County Library staff give part-time aid. Most of the reading in short-term institutions is of newspapers, magazines and fiction. By supplying reading lists and courses and giving individual reader-guidance, the jail can make the reading of its inmates more purposeful and profitable. The help of outside librarians will be necessary to carry on this phase of the program. They can often be recruited for this interesting piece of social service. A number of city libraries are already helping local institutions by loans of books and by a limited amount of service.

Citizenship

Courses in citizenship are ordinarily advocated for short-time prisoners on the correct assumption that few of them have any conception of civic ideals. It does not seem probable that instruction in this field will prove profitable if it is conducted in a formal way. Prisoners of all types are indifferent toward talks on citizenship or civic ideals. Subject matter that is both informative and inspirational can best be given in connection with courses in reading and writing and by encouraging the reading of library books in which this material is presented indirectly. Occasional talks which are not too "preachy" in tone, especially if they are illustrated and deal with the development of civic ideals incidentally as a factor in American history and government or are part of a discussion of current events, can be utilized to implant worth while ideas. The instruction suggested under the heading of adjustment in the new manual of the National Advisory Committee on Illiteracy could be given to advantage in jails.

Classrooms

The physical facilities of the jail are not an insuperable bar to educational work, even if there are no classrooms. No matter how small the mess hall or the room where prisoners are allowed to gather in the daytime may be, it can be used for class or individual instruction at certain hours of the day if an honest attempt is made to adjust the routine to make this possible. The lower corridor of a small cell house can be used by installing a few lights and tables and requiring prisoners who are not interested in education to

keep quiet while those who are interested take advantage of their opportunities.

TEACHERS

Even the meager educational effort described above will seem ambitious to most jail officials. They are justified in thinking that making education a real factor in the jail is an exceedingly difficult task. They have a right to ask that they be allowed to add to their staff at least one competent educational director, even if he is on only a part-time basis. It will be his task to plan and provide individual instruction and to secure the help of the organizations and individuals without whose assistance the program cannot be carried on. The educational director in a jail cannot count on using inmates as teachers because of their short sentences, and funds for paid teachers will be limited or nonexistent. Education in the short-term institution must therefore become a community project to succeed. It is a project that may well command the attention and interest of any community as a protective and constructive enterprise.

APPENDIX I

AIDS FOR THE INSTITUTION LIBRARIAN

Prepared by

JOHN CHANCELLOR

Supervising Librarian, United States Bureau of Prisons

I. BOOK SELECTION
- (a) Aids in the Selection of Books for the Library
- (b) State and Public Library Aids
- (c) Cheap Reprints
- (d) Other Useful Publishers' Series—Informational Books
- (e) Reference Books
- (f) Publishers
- (g) Book Jobbers
- (h) Federal Government Publications
- (i) Miscellaneous Pamphlets

II. READER GUIDANCE

III. TECHNICAL CARE OF THE LIBRARY
- (a) Aids in Classifying, Cataloging and Bookbinding
- (b) Library Supplies
- (c) Bookbinding Supplies
- (d) Dealers in Bookbinding Supplies

IV. LIST OF MINIMUM ESSENTIALS

I. Book Selection

(a) Aids in the Selection of Books for the Library

Readable Books in Many Subjects, by Emma Felsenthal. (American Library Association, 520 N. Michigan Ave., Chicago, Ill., 1927. 40¢.)

A 32-page pamphlet which describes the qualities needed in a nonfiction book by the reader of little education and background, and lists, with helpful comments, approximately 300 available nonfiction books which meet this need in the judgment of a number of public librarians throughout the country who have had special experience in the field concerned. Most of the relatively inexpensive books it lists should be in the prison library. Gives publisher and price for each book.

One Thousand Useful Books, compiled by the Detroit Public Library. (American Library Association, Chicago, Ill., 1924. 10¢, or free by sending 2¢ stamp to Haskin Newspaper Information Bureau, 21st & C Sts., N. W., Washington, D. C.)

A 63-page pamphlet. Lists practical, informative books on subjects such as business, agriculture, philosophy, hygiene, science, history, travel, biography, literature, arts, sports and technical trades and processes, of a type that will appeal to the layman rather than the specialist. Gives good descriptive note, publisher, and price on each book.

The Standard Catalog. (The H. W. Wilson Co.)
Biography Section, 1927, with 1929 supplement ($2).
Social Sciences Section, 1927, with 1929 supplement ($2.50).
History and Travel Section, 1929 ($3).
Fiction Section, 1924, with 1928 supplement ($1).

Extensive, carefully selected list of the kind of books found in the average up-to-date public library with publishers, prices, Dewey decimal classification numbers and very full descriptive and evaluative notes for each book. *Fiction Section* is especially valuable to prison librarians.

The Wilson Bulletin. (The H. W. Wilson Co. Free to librarians and institutions.)

A monthly magazine for librarians which contains in each issue The Standard Catalog Monthly which keeps up-to-date the *Standard Catalog* mentioned above by listing current new books with the same detailed information and descriptive notes. Also contains helpful articles, news and bibliographies.

The A.L.A. Catalog, 1926. (American Library Assn., 1926. $6.)

A basic list of over 10,000 books in practically every field of knowledge, fiction and nonfiction, for the general library. Similar in many respects to the Standard Catalog previously mentioned but the titles selected are on the whole perhaps less suited to prison libraries and the descriptive notes are briefer though more fields are covered. Gives publishers, prices and Dewey classification numbers.

The A.L.A. Booklist; a Guide to New Books. (Published monthly by American Library Assn. $2.50 per year.)

Unusually helpful monthly list of about 200 current books in practically all fields, fiction and nonfiction, well adapted to selection for prison libraries. Its descriptive notes on each book are designed to answer the queries which come naturally to the mind of a careful library book selector. It gives publishers, prices, classification, and has a useful yearly index. The monthly feature of "adult books for young people" is of especial value to prison librarians in that it picks out of the month's new books those that are adult in approach and form and are yet simple and interesting enough to be read understandingly and enjoyably by the person of little education and background. It also gives a "small library list," a selection out of the month's books of about twenty-five of the most worth while for purchase by the library of limited funds or of only popular patronage. Gives a list of free or inexpensive pamphlets of use in the library every other month. The selection of the books to be included in this monthly as well as in the annual summary noted below is the coöperative work of over sixty librarians and not of one person.

Booklist Books; a Selection. (Published annually by the American Library Assn., 1926, 45¢; 1927, 65¢; 1928, 65¢; 1929, 65¢.)

A 50- to 60-page pamphlet whose notes and form are identical with the *Booklist* just described. It selects out of the 2000 or so books listed

each year in the monthly publication the 200 (approximately) which are most outstanding. This and the monthly *Booklist* supplement in a sense the *A.L.A. Catalog, 1926*.

List of Books Available for Issue to the Ship and Station Libraries of the U. S. Navy. (Published by the Bureau of Navigation, Navy Dept., Washington, D. C., 1928. Free.)

No descriptive notes, prices, publishers or other detail is given in this 73-page pamphlet but its selection of popular fiction is especially adapted to the taste of the majority of prisoners. Mimeographed sheets listing the books added since the printing of the pamphlet may be had in limited quantities upon request.

List of New Books Compiled as an Aid to Book Selection in Hospital Libraries, by the Library Section, Medical Service, U. S. Veterans' Bureau. (Free from the Bureau, Washington, D. C.)

Mimeographed lists issued quarterly. In these lists the Library Section of the Bureau carefully reviews the new books, selects those suitable for hospital patients, giving especial attention to reading for mental disease patients, and summarizes its judgments on each book in a brief note addressed to the hospital librarian. Mostly fiction, travel, and interest-holding general literature. Well adapted to use by prison librarians.

Subscription Books Bulletin. (Published quarterly by the American Library Assn. $1 per year.)

Much money can be wasted in the buying of "sets," especially those sold by traveling agents. The Committee on Subscription Books of the American Library Association has undertaken in this Bulletin, begun in January, 1930, to give a careful description and estimate of the various "sets" of all kinds on the market—including encyclopedias—for the guidance of librarians. The Committee will also answer individual inquiries on such matters.

Easy Books for New Americans. (American Library Assn., 1927. 20¢.)

An eight-page folder listing textbooks for learning English adapted to adult immigrants and illiterates. Includes also books on American

citizenship and history and easy versions of standard literature and biography adapted to the same purpose.

The Italian Immigrant and His Reading, by M. M. Sweet, 1925. 50¢.

The Polish Immigrant and His Reading, by E. E. Ledbetter, 1924. 50¢.

The Greek Immigrant and His Reading, by A. B. Alessios, 1926. 50¢.

The German Immigrant and His Reading, by M. D. Peschke, 1929. 50¢.

A List of Swedish Books, 1875-1925, by A. G. S. Josephson, 1927. 75¢. (All published by American Library Assn.)

Selections of books in the several foreign languages that are found popular with the immigrant reading public in large city libraries. The descriptive notes, in English, are addressed to the librarian selecting the books. In the introductory pages helpful general comment is given on the racial traits and reading tastes of the several nationalities as well as information on purchasing foreign language books.

Periodicals for the Small Library, by F. K. Walter. (American Library Assn., 1928. Paper, 65¢.)

A 94-page pamphlet giving critical estimates of 198 current magazines selected by over 200 library workers as most suited for purchase by small libraries. Includes not only the general and popular magazines but also business, technical, agricultural and educational periodicals. Also some indication of those to be considered for first choice.

(b) State and Public Library Aids

A number of state libraries and library commissions issue regular bulletins containing lists of selected new books, annotated and otherwise, as well as helpful suggestions and bibliographies on various subjects. These may be had free or for a nominal charge by addressing the state library (or commission or department) at the respective state capitals. These state library commissions frequently give individual aid to institution libraries in book selection, organization of technical routine, preparation of reading

courses and loaning of special books. Most of the following state commissions may be expected to coöperate in some way with prison libraries within their respective states. Those starred either render some degree of book loaning service to institutions or may do so on request.

Alabama Library Association: Field agent, Fannie T. Taber, 601 Adams St., Montgomery, Ala.

*Arkansas Free Library Service Bureau, Department of Education: Librarian, Christine Sanders, Little Rock, Ark.

*California State Library: State librarian, Milton J. Ferguson, Sacramento, Cal.

Colorado Library Commission: President, Malcolm G. Wyer, Denver Public Library, Denver, Colo. (No funds. May later be able to coöperate.)

Connecticut Public Library Committee, Department of Education, Visitor, Mrs. Belle Holcomb Johnson, Hartford, Conn.

*Delaware State Library Commission: Librarian, Mrs. Bernice W. Hammond, Dover, Del.

Florida State Library: Secretary, W. T. Cash, Tallahassee, Fla.

*Georgia Library Commission: Secretary, Beverly Wheatcroft, Atlanta, Ga.

Idaho State Traveling Library Commission: Librarian, Margaret S. Roberts, Boise, Idaho.

*Illinois Library Extension Division, State Library: Superintendent, Anna May Price, Springfield, Ill.

*Indiana Library and Historical Department: Director Library Division, Louis J. Bailey, Indianapolis, Ind.

*Iowa Library Commission: Secretary, Julia A. Robinson, Historical, Memorial and Art Building, Des Moines, Iowa.

*Kansas State Library: Librarian, Louise McNeal; Traveling Libraries Commission: Secretary, Henrietta Alexander, Topeka, Kan.

*Kentucky Library Commission: Secretary and Director, Fannie C. Rawson, Louisville Public Library.

*Louisiana Library Commission: Secretary, Essae M. Culver, Baton Rouge, La.

*Maine State Library: State librarian, Henry E. Dunnack, Augusta, Me. (Bureau of Library Extension.)

*Maryland Public Library Advisory Commission: Director, Adelene J. Pratt, 520 N. Charles St., Baltimore, Md.

Massachusetts Board of Free Public Library Commissioners, Division of Public Libraries, Department of Education: General secretary and library adviser, E. Kathleen Jones, Boston, Mass.

*Michigan State Library: State librarian, Mrs. Mary E. Frankhauser; Director Extension Division, Constance Bement, Lansing, Mich.

*Minnesota Library Division, Department of Education: Library director, Clara F. Baldwin, St. Paul; Supervisor of Institution Libraries, Miss Perrie Jones, St. Paul, Minn.

Mississippi Library Commission: Secretary, Elizabeth Robinson, New Capitol, Jackson, Miss.

*Missouri Library Commission: Secretary, Jane Morey, Jefferson City, Mo.

Montana State Library Extension Commission: Chairman, M. Gertrude Buckhous, Librarian, University of Montana, Missoula, Mont. (No funds. May later be able to coöperate.)

*Nebraska Public Library Commission: Secretary, Nellie Williams, Lincoln, Neb.

*New Hampshire Public Library Commission: Secretary, Dorothy Annable, State Library Building, Concord, N. H.

*New Jersey Public Library Commission: Librarian, Sarah B. Askew, Trenton, N. J.

New Mexico State Library Extension Service: Director, Mrs. Julia Brown Asplund, State Museum, Santa Fé, N. M.

*New York Library Extension Division: Director, Frank L. Tolman, State Education Building, Albany, N. Y.

*North Carolina Library Commission: Secretary and Director, Mrs. Lillian B. Griggs, Raleigh, N. C.

*North Dakota State Library Commission: Secretary and Director, Lillian E. Cook, Bismarck, N. D.

*Ohio State Library: State librarian, George E. McCormick; Library organizer, Mary E. Downey, Columbus, O.

*Oklahoma Library Commission: Secretary, Mrs. J. R. Dale, Oklahoma City, Okla.

*Oregon State Library: Librarian, Harriet C. Long, Salem, Ore.

*Pennsylvania State Library and Museum: Director, Frederick A. Godcharles; Library Extension Division; Chief, Anna A. MacDonald, Harrisburg, Pa. (Welfare Department, Bureau of Restoration, in charge of prison libraries.)

Rhode Island State Board of Education: Library visitor, Mrs. Anne W. Congdon, State House, Providence, R. I.

South Carolina State Library Board: Secretary, Parmalee Cheves, State Capitol, Columbia, S. C.

*South Dakota Free Library Commission: Director, Leora J. Lewis, Pierre, S. D.

*Texas Library and Historical Commission, State Library: Acting librarian, Fannie N. Wilcox, Austin, Tex.

Utah Library Division, Department of Public Instruction: Library secretary and organizer, Mosiah Hall, Salt Lake City, Utah.

*Vermont Free Public Library Department, State Board of Education, Acting secretary, Elizabeth T. Williams, Montpelier, Vt.

*Virginia State Library: State librarian, H. R. McIlwaine, Richmond, Va. Head of Extension Division, Leslie W. Stevens.

*Washington State Library: State librarian, J. M. Hitt, Olympia, Wash.

West Virginia Library Commission, Library members: L. D. Arnett, Univ. of West Va. Library, Morgantown, W. Va.; Etta M. Roberts, Wheeling Public Library. (No funds. May later be able to coöperate.)

*Wisconsin Free Library Commission: Secretary, C. B. Lester, Madison, Wis.

*Wyoming State Library: Librarian, Clare E. Ausherman, Cheyenne, Wyo.

Noteworthy for their helpful bulletins and booklists are the public libraries of the following large cities: New York, Cleveland, St. Louis, Chicago, Boston, Brooklyn, Detroit, Pittsburgh, Providence. Most public libraries of any size have helpful booklists of some kind for free distribution.

(c) Cheap Reprints

Books, mostly fiction, which have had a popular run in the regular edition for a year or two, and the old standard classics of literature, are usually reprinted in one of the various "reprint series" issued by publishers at often less than half the prices of the regular editions. Write the pub-

lishers (addresses in special list of publishers given later) for free lists of the books in such series as the following:

Popular Fiction. (The A. L. Burt Co. 75¢ each.)

Popular Copyrights. (The Grosset and Dunlap Co. 75¢ each.)

These two series are especially to be noted as they contain the books of most of the favorite adventure and western story-writers as well as the best selling general fiction. The paper and binding are not of the most durable type but they hold up under ordinary library use sufficiently well. They are also issued in new resewed and rebound editions by certain jobbers (see below) at about twice the cost. Their life in this reinforced new binding is estimated at about three times that of the ordinary edition.

Novels of Distinction. (The Grosset and Dunlap Co. $1 each.)

Books of modern writers, appealing to those with critical and literary taste. Less suited, as a whole, to a prisoners' library.

The Sun Dial Library. (The Modern Library, Inc. $1 each.)

Fiction and essays of the better modern authors reprinted from the original plates.

The Star Dollar Library. (Garden City Publishing Co. $1 each.)

Popular biography, science, travel and exploration, history, essays, humor, etc., of a type well suited to prison library collections, in good, full-size editions.

Everyman's Library. (E. P. Dutton & Co. Cloth binding, 80¢ each. Reinforced cloth binding, $1 each.)

The most comprehensive series of reprints of classics of all literatures (contains over 800 titles). Well edited and attractive except that print is sometimes small and page margins are somewhat narrow for rebinding. It will pay to get the "reinforced" or "library binding" at $1 each. Most of the famous books of English and American as well as many foreign literatures may be had in this edition. Does not include writings of many living authors. Publisher will furnish a special catalog with descriptive book notes on each title in the series upon request.

The World's Classics. (Oxford University Press. 80¢ each.)

Similar to Everyman's Library but not as comprehensive (about 350 titles). Slightly smaller size volume (6" x 4").

Bohn's Popular Library. (Harcourt, Brace & Co. 85¢ each.)

Good reprints of classics similar to Everyman's Library and The World's Classics and about same size as latter. About 60 titles in the series.

The Riverside Library. (Houghton Mifflin Co. $1 each.)

A new series of reprints of classics and modern general literature, well printed and bound and a full-size book. About 15 titles in the series at present.

Modern Readers' Series. (The Macmillan Co. Cloth edition, 80¢ each.)

Another new series of reprints of classics, comprising over 80 titles and being rapidly added to. Good print, page, binding and size.

Appleton Dollar Library. (D. Appleton & Co. $1 each.)

About 50 titles of miscellaneous nonfiction and fiction, some of which are adapted to prison use.

Burt's Home Library. (The A. L. Burt Co. $1.25 each.)

Contains a selection of 400 titles of classics of literature similar to that of Everyman's Library. Good library binding and a full-size volume. Contains some useful books for prisons not to be had in the other series.

Modern Student's Library. (Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1 each.)

Contains about 70 titles of literary classics a few of which are not found in the other series previously mentioned. An attractive book physically and well adapted for prison library use.

The Modern Library. (The Modern Library, Inc. 95¢ each.)

Reprints of the writings of some of the best writers of all nations and times, mostly modern, of a thought-provoking type appealing mainly to the more intelligent reader with a modern point of view. Pocket size (6½" x 4¼") with limp cloth cover.

The Big Type Library. (Wm. Bradford Press, 207 W. 25th St., New York, N. Y. 10¢ each.)

Reprints of chapters and brief writings of famous writers of the past in pamphlet form with paper covers which can be reinforced. Notable for large type, attractive format, brevity and choice of interesting though worth while material. Useful in inciting interest in the complete book from which the selection is made.

The Vagabond Books. (The Century Co. $1.50 each.)

A new series of reprints by modern well-known adventurers and travelers. Large size, well printed and bound; illustrated.

The physical qualities and appearance of books in the Modern Readers' Series, The Riverside Library, The Star Dollar Library, The Sun Dial Library, The Appleton Dollar Series, Burt's Home Library, the Modern Student's Library and The Vagabond Books, make them well adapted to ordinary library use.

(*d*) *Other Useful Publishers' Series—*
Informational Books

Many publishers issue series of inexpensive introductions to various fields of knowledge, both cultural and practical, written by good authorities for the general reader which are often well suited for inclusion in prison libraries. In the following partial list of such series the selector must use discrimination and not make the assumption that every book in each series is useful to his purpose.

Home University Library. (Holt. $1.25 each.)

Brief introductions by excellent authorities to various topics in history, science, literature, art, philosophy, religion, sociology and political economy for readers of fair educational background.

Oxford World's Manuals. (Oxford University Press. $1 each.)

Quite brief introductions to a number of subjects of literature, history and general knowledge for readers of fair educational background.

Cambridge Manuals of Science and Literature. (Macmillan. $1 to $1.60 each.)

Brief introductions to various fields of study for the person of fair educational background. Ninety titles.

One Hour Series. (Lippincott. $1 each.)

Brief, easily read sketches on such topics as the American novel, American music, American history, American drama, American poetry, movies, health, Christianity, etc.

The New Library. (Cape and Smith. 60¢ each.)

"Pocket size, compact, and readable. . . . Subjects covered include politics, economics, psychology, religion, literature, art, human sciences and history; later to include travel, belles-lettres, and fiction." *A.L.A. Booklist.*

Workers' Educational Association Outlines. (Longmans, Green & Co. 75¢ each.)

Very brief, simplified, readable introductions on cultural and economic topics prepared by scholars for workers taking courses sponsored by the Workers' Educational Association of England.

The World Today Bookshelf. (Macmillan. $1.50 each.)

Identical in contents with the Workers' Bookshelf which is published by The Workers Education Bureau Press in paper covers. Readable introductions on economic and governmental subjects, by capable writers, addressed to the general reader. Excellent format.

Handbook Series. (Wilson. $1.25 to $2.40 each.)

Collections of articles, debate outlines, bibliographies and study outlines on timely subjects for debate and discussion.

The Reference Shelf. (Wilson. 90¢ each.)

Similar to the Handbook Series, but briefer.

Carpenter's World Travels. (Doubleday, Doran. 20 Vols. $4 each to libraries.)

Popular, well-illustrated, informative and readable travel description by a well-known traveler. Each volume covers several countries, as, *France to Scandinavia, Lands of the Caribbean,* etc. Standard-size books.

Story of the Nations Series. (Putnam. $2.50 each.)

About 35 readable, fairly brief histories of as many different nations.

The Chronicles of America Series. (Yale University Press. Roosevelt edition. $1.50 each.)

Brief, story-like volumes on the various phases and periods of American life and history written by scholars but addressed to the general reader.

Pageant of America. (Yale University Press. $5.50 each.)

Fifteen volumes, each on the history of a particular phase of American life such as literature, drama, sports, commerce, etc. A picture history with brief comment, useful because of its wealth of illustration.

Hugo's Foreign Languages Simplified. (David McKay Co. $1.50 each.)

Simple, practical, popular guides to grammar, pronunciation and conversation in German, French, Italian, Spanish, Norwegian, Danish, Russian and Portuguese. Adapted to self-study.

Humanizing of Knowledge Series. (Doubleday, Doran. $1 to $1.50 each.)

A few brief, readable introductions on several sciences.

The Marvel Library. (Lippincott. $2.50 each.)
The Romance Series. (Lippincott. $3 each.)
The Today Series. (Lippincott. $3 each.)

The above three series are all similar. They contain together about 50 readable, popular, illustrated books on the marvels and romance of various applied arts, sciences and fields of work and study.

The Useful Knowledge Books. (Little, Brown. $2 each.)

Full-size, well-bound introductions on such subjects as electricity, radio, photography, in fairly nontechnical style addressed to the general reader.

University of Wisconsin Extension Series. (Univ. of Wisconsin, Extension Div., Madison. Wis. McGraw-Hill Co. publishes many of the volumes on technical and engineering subjects. 5¢ to $3 each.)

A series of pamphlets and books used as texts in the numerous extension and correspondence courses of the University of Wisconsin. Direct, readable, practical and simple. Well adapted to self-study. Large variety of subjects.

Popular Mechanics Handbooks. (Popular Mechanics Press. Varying prices, 50¢ and up.)

Very popular, nontechnical, practical guides for amateurs and tradesmen on mechanical, electrical, aeronautical and agricultural topics.

Audel's Helping Hand Guides. (T. Audel & Co. Varying prices.)

Practical guides and reference handbooks on carpentry, plumbing, mechanics, etc., for the tradesman. Comes in sets of four or more volumes. Clearly and profusely illustrated and relatively inexpensive.

Wiley Technical Series. (John Wiley & Sons. Average price $2 each.)

Practical, elementary texts for vocational schools and self-study written in simple, direct style. Covers topics in agriculture, art, chemistry, electricity, drafting, mechanical trades, engineering, mathematics, printing and home economics.

[*Machinery's* Mechanical Books.] (The Industrial Press. $3 each.)

An unnamed series of books on various topics of machine shop practice, detailed and complete but in plain English and addressed to the working mechanic. F. D. Jones, assistant editor of "Machinery," writes most of them.

American Technical Society Publications. (American Technical Society. $1.50 to $3 each.)

Handbooks and introductory texts by practical experts in simple, readable, direct style well adapted to self-study, on engineering, trade, and business topics. Durable, attractive books physically.

The Woodworker Series. (Lippincott. $1.75 each.)

Seven practical, well-illustrated books on various kinds of woodworking and wood-finishing for the beginner.

Lippincott's Farm Life Text Series. (Lippincott. $2 each.)

Well-illustrated, comprehensive, standard textbooks on applied botany, horticulture, plant husbandry, soils and agricultural chemistry.

Lippincott's Farm Manuals. (Lippincott. $3 each.)

Excellent, comprehensive, well-illustrated books giving practical information on 18 different phases of farming.

Farm and Garden Library. (Orange Judd Pub. Co. $1.25 each.)

Practical books on general farming topics and vegetable and flower production. About 30 titles.

Appleton's Popular Health Series. (Appleton. $1 each.)

Compact, readable, nontechnical and practical advice for the layman by competent authorities.

National Health Series. (Funk & Wagnalls. 30¢ each.)

Very small, limp cover booklets, poor for library use from a physical standpoint but excellent in content.

Lippincott's Home Manuals. (Lippincott, $3 each.)

Standard, practical, comprehensive, well-illustrated booklets on several phases of home economics.

Lippincott's Training Series. (Lippincott. $1.75 each.)

Vocational advice on training for forestry, journalism, salesmanship, drama, librarianship, and secretarial and electrical railway work by men prominent in these several fields.

The Vocational Series. (Macmillan. $1.60 to $2.50 each.)

Brief, practical information for young men on several of the well-known professions by men who have risen to high places in each of them.

The Vocational Series. (Scribner. $1.25 each.)

Information and advice for the young man on the training, work and rewards of engineering, teaching, journalism, the ministry and medicine by men prominent in these fields.

(*e*) *Reference Books* *

The reference books in the following list are intended mainly for the use of prisoners, although some of them may also be useful in connection with office work. Reference books in general are expensive but it does not pay to economize in prices too much in this field. If funds are unusually limited, preference should be given to general books for circulation and not to reference books. Reference books should rarely be loaned to individual prisoners for cell use but should be kept in the library for consultation there. Those starred in the following list may be considered the more essential ones.

* Mr. Roland Mulhauser, Librarian of the U. S. Industrial Reformatory, Chillicothe, O., and Mr. E. M. Stigers, Educational Director of the U. S. Penitentiary, Atlanta, Ga., have collaborated in the preparation of these suggestions on reference books.

ENCYCLOPEDIAS.

New International Encyclopedia. 2nd edition [Popular Edition]. 13 vols. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1925. $105.
—Supplement, 1930. 2 vols. $22.

**Encyclopedia Americana.* 30 vols. Encyclopedia Americana Corp. 1927. $180.

**Encyclopaedia Britannica.* 14th Edition. 24 vols. Encyclopaedia Britannica Co. 1929. By subscription; apply to publisher for price.

**International Year Book.* Current year. Dodd, Mead & Co. $4.

**World Book Encyclopedia.* 13 vols. Quarrie, 154 E. Erie St., Chicago, Ill. 1927. $62.50.

**Lincoln Library of Essential Information.* 1 vol. edition. Frontier Press Co., 800 Lafayette St., Buffalo, N. Y. 1929. $15.50.

A good encyclopedia is perhaps the most essential of all reference books for the library. If possible, purchase one of the three larger encyclopedias. The *Britannica* is perhaps the best and most scholarly from a general viewpoint. It is, however, less adapted to the prison library than the *New International* or the *Americana,* both excellent works. The new edition of the *Britannica* still remains essentially British in its viewpoint and emphasis. The articles in the other two are briefer, more applicable to American interests, and more understandable to the general reader.

The second edition of the *New International* appeared in 1914 to 1916. Since then various reprintings with supplements bringing it up to date have been issued. The 1930 is the latest of these. The encyclopedia is usually sold in a 23-volume set at higher prices. The edition listed above, in 13 double volumes, is the same in content and is cheaper.

The last thorough revision of the *Americana* was made in 1918-1920. Since then there have been several reprintings from the same plates with minor revisions. The 1927 printing is the latest of these.

The International Year Book, issued annually, is a survey of the events of the current year and is an especially useful reference book. It supplements the encyclopedia to a certain extent.

If funds are too limited to buy one of the larger encyclopedias, get either the *World Book Encyclopedia* or the *Lincoln Library of Essential Information.* These serve a similar purpose but are in no sense substitutes. The *Lincoln Library* in one or two volumes is preferable to many of the very small encyclopedias in several volumes. The *World Book Encyclopedia* is perhaps the best of those intended for young people and for high school use but is sufficiently adult in tone for use in prisons. It is reliable, copiously illustrated and relatively simple in its treatment. If they can be afforded, both of these works are useful in addition to one of the larger encyclopedias.

DICTIONARIES.

**Webster's Collegiate Dictionary.* 3rd Edition of the Merriam series. Merriam. 1916. $5.

**College Standard Dictionary of the English Language* (published also under the title *Practical Standard Dictionary of the English Language.* Funk. 1922. $5.

**Winston Simplified Dictionary.* Advanced edition. Winston. $2.64.

Get any one of the above three dictionaries, which are approximately equivalent in their scope. If the library has an encyclopedia it is not practical to buy one of the expensive large unabridged dictionaries. The *Webster Collegiate,* and the *College Standard* are the best abridgements of the big

unabridged dictionaries and are quite satisfactory for most purposes. The *Standard* emphasizes new usage. The *Winston* is notable for its large, clear type and its complete yet simple definitions. The *Webster* is an excellent dependable standard work.

Each of the publishers of the above dictionaries issues one or more smaller abridgements of these dictionaries at a comparatively low price. It is advisable to buy a considerable quantity of these to circulate for cell use in the same way as any other library book so that the men may have a dictionary for use while they are reading and writing.

FOREIGN LANGUAGE DICTIONARIES.

Breul, Karl H.—*New German and English Dictionary;* compiled from the best authorities in both languages. Rev. and enl. edition. Funk. $3.

Casell's New French-English and English-French Dictionary. J. Boielle and J. B. de V. Payen-Payne, editors. Funk. $3.

Cuyas, Arturo—*Appleton's New Spanish-English and English-Spanish Dictionary.* Appleton, 1914. 2 vols. in 1, $3.50.

James, Wm., and Grassi, G.—*Dictionary of the English and Italian Languages;* Italian-English and English-Italian. 15th Edition. E. A. Cook, Inc., 1350 N. Clark St., Chicago. 1923. $2.50.

In every prison where courses are being conducted in foreign languages, either locally or by correspondence, there should be foreign language dictionaries in the library. The four mentioned above are chosen as being inexpensive and yet adequate for ordinary student needs and as covering those languages which are most likely to be in demand. Where there is any particularly large percentage of inmates

of other nationalities than those suggested above, dictionaries giving English meanings of foreign words as well as foreign meanings of English words in those particular languages should be supplied.

ATLASES.

**Rand-McNally International Atlas of the World.* Rand-McNally Co. 1929. Cloth binding, $8.50. Size 11 x 14", 391 pp.

**Rand-McNally Premier Atlas of the World.* Rand-McNally Co. 1927. Fabrikoid binding, $4.75. Size 11 x 14", 280 pp.

**Hammond Modern Atlas of the World.* C. S. Hammond & Co. 1924. $3.

Bartholomew, John G.—*Literary and Historical Atlas of Europe.* Dutton (Everyman's Library). Reinforced edition. $1.25.

Bartholomew, John G.—*Literary and Historical Atlas of America.* New edition. Dutton (Everyman's Library). Reinforced binding. $1.25.

Most prisons cannot afford large commercial atlases. The atlases mentioned above are smaller, less expensive, and quite adequate. The *International Atlas of the World* contains essentially the same maps as the *Premier Atlas of the World,* with the addition of text and illustrations descriptive of climate, history, resources, products, industries, and places of interest in connection with each map. Both atlases serve partially as gazeteers and give population figures. There are other special features such as tables, economic maps, air mail and express information, etc.

The inexpensive literary and historical atlases listed above will be useful mainly to those whose interest has been stirred in reading or studying history and the older literatures.

SPECIAL REFERENCE BOOKS FOR THE STUDIOUS READER.

Benham, Wm. C.—*Casell's Classified Quotations* from authors of all nations and periods, grouped under subject-headings, with full index of cross references and annotated list of authors. Crowell. 1921. $5.

Brewer, Ebenezer C.—*Dictionary of Phrase and Fable.* New edition, revised and enlarged. Lippincott. 1923. $6.50.

Smith, Sir Wm.—*Smaller Classical Dictionary,* edited by E. H. Blakeney. Dutton (Everyman's Library). 1910. Reinforced binding, $1.

Chambers' Biographical Dictionary; the great of all times and nations. Originally compiled by David Patrick and F. Hindes Groome. New edition, edited by Wm. Geddie and J. Liddell Geddie. Lippincott. 1926. $6.

Smith, Eric F.—*Dictionary of Dates.* Dutton (Everyman's Library). 1911. Reinforced binding, $1.

Ploetz, Karl J.—*Ploetz' Manual of Universal History.* Trans. and enl. by W. H. Tillinghast; revised under the editorship of H. E. Barnes *et al.* Houghton. 1925. $5.

Dickinson, Asa D., compiler—*One Thousand Best Books.* Doubleday. 1924. $5.

Dickinson, Asa D., compiler—*Best Books of Our Time, 1901-1925.* Doubleday, Doran. 1928. $5.

For ordinary purposes most of the topics covered by the above books are taken care of by the encyclopedias, dictionaries and atlases. The above, however, are worth having if any attempt is made to stimulate interest in better reading and study and to encourage reading of the standard books of great literature and history. The last two books are particularly useful in stimulating interest in the better writings of both past and present and in acting as a rough

guide for the person who wants to explore these fields. The other books on the list are useful as sources of information on various topics, places, and people which come up after he has begun his reading exploration.

MISCELLANEOUS REFERENCE BOOKS.

**World Almanac.* Pub. by The World, New York City. Current year. Cloth binding, $1.

Perhaps one of the most useful reference books, containing a great miscellany of information statistical and otherwise.

*Pence, Raymond W.—*Manual of the Mechanics of Writing.* Macmillan. 1921. $1.10.

"A desk book providing rules and illustrations for punctuation, capitalization, abbreviation, spelling, letter writing, manuscript preparation, copy editing, and other bibliographical details."—*A.L.A. Catalog 1926*

Statistical Abstract of the United States [Annual]. Issued by U. S. Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. Sold by Supt. of Documents, Washington, D. C. $1.

Contains in addition to the census population tables many useful and interesting statistical tables.

United States Official Postal Guide. Current year. Supt. of Documents, Washington, D. C. $1; with monthly supplements, $1.25.

In addition to postal rules and information, gives lists of post offices by state and county as well as alphabetically. Occasionally useful.

*Schumaker, Walter A., and Longsdorf, George F.—*Cyclopedic Law Dictionary;* comprising the terms and phrases of American jurisprudence, including ancient and modern common law, international law and numerous select titles from the civil law, the French and Spanish law, etc., etc., with an exhaustive collection of legal maxims. 2nd Edition by James C.

Cahill. Callaghan, 401 E. Ohio St., Chicago. 1922. $6.

(*f*) *Publishers*

The following publishers issue books of a type useful in prison libraries. A file of their catalogs and periodic announcements of new books (free on request) will be helpful to the prison librarian.

American Book Company, 88 Lexington Ave., New York, N. Y. (Including dictionaries.)
American Public Health Association, 370 Seventh Ave., New York, N. Y.
American Library Association, 520 N. Michigan Ave., Chicago, Ill.
American Technical Society, Drexel Ave. & 58th St., Chicago, Ill.
American Viewpoint Society, Inc., 13 Astor Place, New York, N. Y.
Americana Corporation, Peoples Gas Building, Chicago, Ill. (Encyclopedias.)
Appleton & Company, D., 35 W. 32nd St., New York, N. Y.
Audel, Theodore & Co., 72 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y.
Bobbs-Merrill Co., 724 Meridian Ave., Indianapolis, Ind.
Boni, Albert & Charles, 66 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y.
Brentano's, 1-11 W. 47th St., New York, N. Y.
Bridgman Publishers, Pelham, N. Y. (Issue several inexpensive self-instruction books on drawing, art, etc.)
Bruce Publishing Company, 354 Milwaukee St., Milwaukee, Wis.
Burt, A. L., and Company, 114 E. 23rd St., New York, N. Y.
Cape & Smith Inc., 139 E. 46th St., New York, N. Y.

Century Company, 353 Fourth Ave., New York, N. Y.
Clode, Edward J., 156 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y.
Covici-Friede, 79 W. 45th St., New York, N. Y.
Coward-McCann, Inc., 425 Fourth Ave., New York, N. Y.
Crowell Co., T. Y., 393 Fourth Ave., New York, N. Y.
Dodd, Mead & Co., 449 Fourth Ave., New York, N. Y. (Including encyclopedias.)
Doubleday, Doran & Co., Garden City, N. Y.
Drake, Frederick J. & Co., Inc., 179 N. Michigan Ave., Chicago, Ill.
Duffield & Co., 200 Madison Ave., New York, N. Y.
Dutton & Co., E. P., 286 Fourth Ave., New York, N. Y.
Encyclopædia Britannica, Inc., 157 N. Michigan Ave., Chicago, Ill. (Encyclopedias.)
Funk & Wagnalls Co., 354 Fourth Ave., New York, N. Y. (Including dictionaries.)
Garden City Publishing Co., Garden City, N. Y.
Ginn & Co., 15 Ashburton Place, Boston, Mass.
Goodheart-Willcox Co., 2009 S. Michigan Ave., Chicago, Ill.
Gregg Publishing Co., 20 W. 47th St., New York, N. Y.
Grosset & Dunlap, 1140 Broadway, New York, N. Y.
Hammond & Co., G. S., 30 Church St., New York, N. Y. (Maps, atlases, etc.)
Harcourt, Brace & Co., 383 Madison Ave., New York, N. Y.
Harper & Brothers, 49 E. 33rd St., New York, N. Y.
Heath & Co., D. C., 231 W. 39th St., New York, N. Y.
Henley Co., Normal W., 2 W. 45th St., New York, N. Y.
Holt & Co., Henry, 1 Park Ave., New York, N. Y.
Houghton Mifflin Co., 386 Fourth Ave., New York, N. Y.
Industrial Press, 140 Lafayette St., New York, N. Y.
International Textbook Co., 1001 Wyoming Ave., Scranton, Pa.

Knopf, Alfred A., 730 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y.
LaNueva Democracia (The Book Department), 419 Fourth Ave., New York, N. Y. (Spanish books.)
Lippincott Co., J. B., Washington Square, Philadelphia, Pa.
Little, Brown & Co., 34 Beacon St., Boston, Mass.
Longmans, Green & Co., 55 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y.
Macaulay Co., 257 Fourth Ave., New York, N. Y.
Macmillan Company, The, 60 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y.
McClurg & Co., A. C., 329 E. Ontario St., Chicago, Ill.
McGraw-Hill Publishing Co., 370 Seventh Ave., New York, N. Y.
McKay Company, David, 604 S. Washington St., Philadelphia, Pa. (Including dictionaries.)
Manual Arts Press, 237 N. Monroe St., Peoria, Ill.
Merriam Co., G. & C., Springfield, Mass. (Dictionaries.)
Minton, Balch & Co., 205 E. 42nd St., New York, N. Y.
Modern Library, The, 20 E. 57th St., New York, N. Y.
Nelson & Sons, Thos., 381 Fourth Ave., New York, N. Y. (Including encyclopedias.)
Norton & Co., W. W., 70 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y.
Open Court Publishing Co., 337 E. Chicago Ave., Chicago, Ill.
Orange Judd Publishing Co., 15 E. 26th St., New York, N. Y.
Oxford University Press, 114 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y.
Pitman & Sons, Isaac, 2 W. 45th St., New York, N. Y.
Popular Mechanics Press, 200 E. Ontario St., Chicago, Ill.
Putnam's Sons & Co., G. P., Putnam Bldg., 2-6 W. 45th St., New York, N. Y.
Rand, McNally & Co., 536 S. Clark St., Chicago, Ill. (Including maps, atlases, etc.)
Revell & Co., Fleming H., 158 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y.
Ronald Press Co., The, 15 E. 26th St., New York, N. Y.
Scientific Book Corp. 15 E. 26th St., New York, N. Y.

Scribner's Sons, Charles, 597 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y.
Simon & Schuster, 37 W. 57th St., New York, N. Y.
Stokes Co., Frederick A., 443 Fourth Ave., New York, N. Y.
Vanguard Press, Inc., 80 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y.
Van Nostrand Co., Inc., D., 250 Fourth Ave., New York, N. Y.
Viking Press, 18 E. 48th St., New York, N. Y.
Wiley & Sons, Inc., John, 440 Fourth Ave., New York, N. Y.
Wilson Company, H. W., 950-972 University Ave., New York, N. Y.
Winston Company, John C., 1006 Arch St., Philadelphia, Pa. (Dictionaries.)
Workers Education Bureau Press, Inc., 1440 Broadway, New York, N. Y.
World Peace Foundation, 20 Mt. Vernon St., Boston, Mass.
Yale University Press, New Haven, Conn.

(*g*) *Book Jobbers*

The following are some of the principal book jobbers, dealing in books of all publishers, who specialize in service to libraries. They allow discounts on the published book price of 10% to 33% varying with the type of book. On large orders, including books of a number of different publishers, it is advantageous to deal with a jobber. Single books may be ordered direct from their publishers at usually the best discount.

The Baker & Taylor Co., 55 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y.
The Putnam Library Department, 2 W. 45th St., New York, N. Y.
Chas. Scribner's Sons, Library Department, 597 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y.

A. C. McClurg & Co., 333 E. Ontario St., Chicago, Ill.
American News Co., Inc., 131 Varick St., New York, N. Y.
The H. R. Huntting Co., 29 Worthington St., Springfield, Mass. (New books of all publishers in original bindings as well as in resewed and reinforced bindings.)
Wm. H. Rademaekers, Son & Co., Newark, N. J., and Brooklyn, N. Y. (New books of all publishers in original bindings as well as in resewed and reinforced bindings.)
G. E. Stechert & Co., 31-33 E. 10th St., New York, N. Y. (Foreign as well as domestic publications.)
Union Library Association, 118-20 E. 25th St., New York, N. Y.
Ritter, Clement V., 812 Garland Bldg., 58 E. Washington St., Chicago, Ill.
J. G. Gill Co., Portland, Ore.
Vroman's Library Service, 329 E. Colorado St., Pasadena, Cal.
Sather Gate Bookshop, Berkeley, Cal.

(*h*) *Federal Government Publications*

The Federal Government issues much informational material which is frequently of general interest and quite readable. These publications can often be obtained free from the government department issuing them and from senators and congressmen or, if such free supplies are exhausted, from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., at small cost. The following free price lists, obtainable from the Superintendent of Documents, will provide good guides and check lists to such material as is of interest:

Agricultural Chemistry and Soils and Fertilizers (Price list no. 46); *Alaska and Hawaii* (no. 60); *American History and Biography* (no. 50); *Animal Industry* (no. 38); *Army and Militia, Aviation and Pensions* (no. 19); *A Bibliography for Debaters* (no. 74); *Birds and Wild Animals* (no. 39); *Census Publications* (no. 70); *Commerce and Manufacture* (no. 62); *Education* (no. 31); *Engineering and Surveying* (no. 18); *Farmers' Bulletins, Etc.* (no. 16); *Farm Management* (no. 68); *Finance* (*Banking, Budget, Accounting*) (no. 28); *Fishes* (no. 21); *Foods and Cooking* (no. 11); *Foreign Relations of the United States* (no. 65); *Forestry* (no. 43); *Geography and Explorations* (*Natural wonders, scenery, national parks*) (no. 35); *Government Periodicals* (no. 36); *Handy Books* (no. 73); *Health, Diseases, Drugs and Sanitation* (no. 51); *Immigration, Naturalization, Citizenship, Chinese, Japanese, Negroes and Aliens* (no. 67); *Indians* (no. 24); *Insects* (*bees and injurious insects*) (no. 41); *Insular Possessions* (*Philippines, Porto Rico, Guam, Samoa, Virgin Islands, Cuba and Panama Canal*) (no. 32); *Irrigation, Drainage and Water Power* (no. 42); *Labor* (*Wages, Employers' Liability, Insurance, Women, Strikes, Etc.*) (no. 33); *Laws* (*Federal and State*) (no. 10); *Maps* (no. 53); *Pacific States* (no. 69); *Plants* (*Culture of fruits, vegetables, grain, grasses and seeds*) (no. 44); *The Public Domain* (*Public lands, conservation, oil leases*) (no. 20); *Roads* (no. 45); *Transportation* (*Railroads, shipping, postal service, telegraphs, telephones*) (no. 25); *Weather, Astronomy and Meteorology* (no. 48).

For lists of newly issued government publications, request from the Superintendent of Documents *The Weekly List of Selected U. S. Government Publications.*

(*i*) *Miscellaneous Pamphlets*

Many informative, well-illustrated and useful pamphlets may be had from commercial organizations, societies and

institutions free or at small cost. The following articles in periodicals list such pamphlets and their sources:

Booth, M. J. *Pamphlets.* (Illinois Libraries, Supplement, vol. 11, pages 137-141, October 1929.)

Herron, Miriam. *A Next-to-Nothing Library.* (Wilson Bulletin, vol. 3, pages 182-184, February 1928.)

Sources of Material for Library Extension Service with Special Reference to Pamphlets. (American Library Association Bulletin, vol. 16, pages 353-359, July 1922.)

Wilson Bulletin, vol. 3, March 1928. Pamphlet material.

Woodring, M. N., and Benson, R. T. *Enriched Teaching of English in the High School.* (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927. $1.) List of pamphlets and visual aids which may be secured free or at small cost. Other books in series are on science, mathematics, and commercial subjects.

A.L.A. Booklist; a Guide to New Books. Monthly. (American Library Association.) Lists pamphlets every other month.

Publishers' Weekly. (R. R. Bowker Co., 62 W. 45th St., New York, N. Y. $5 per year.) Lists pamphlets in footnotes.

II. Reader Guidance

A few references are given below to books which discuss reader guidance in general terms. Those wishing to follow the subject further are referred to the extensive bibliographies in the first two books and to the Board on the Library and Adult Education of the American Library Association (520 N. Michigan Ave., Chicago) which will give further references or send samples of reading courses that

various libraries have prepared for individuals. The Board issues a quarterly periodical, *Adult Education and the Library,* which contains news of developments in this rather new field. This is free to members of the Association. To others the subscription price is $1 per year. The Free Library Commission of Wisconsin can also supply a limited number of suggestive sample copies of reading courses prepared for individual prisoners.

Attention is also called to the book notes, helpful to those preparing reading courses, to be found in the various book-lists mentioned under section I (a) Aids in the Selection of Books for the Library. The A.L.A. Board mentioned above can supply to those interested a longer list of book-list aids for readers' advisers.

Libraries and Adult Education. (Macmillan, 1926. $2.50.)

Contains several suggestive chapters on reader guidance and the preparation of reading courses, a survey of the policies and methods of various public libraries in this field, and extensive bibliographies. Issued by the Commission on the Library and Adult Education of the American Library Association.

The Reading Interests and Habits of Adults; A Preliminary Report, by Wm. S. Gray and Ruth Munroe. (Macmillan, 1929. $3.50.)

A report of a recent interesting survey helpful to an adviser in reading. Detailed references for further study of reading habits.

Readable Books in Many Subjects, by Emma Felsenthal. (American Library Association, 1929. 40¢.)

This pamphlet was previously mentioned as containing an excellent list of readable nonfiction for the person of limited reading experience or education. The introductory pages preceding the list are especially helpful to a reading adviser in that they discuss and analyze the qualities that make a book readable and appealing to this type of reader.

The Reading With a Purpose Reading Courses. (American Library Association. Cloth: single copy 50¢ each; 10

or more, 45¢ each. Paper: single copy, 35¢; 4 copies, $1; 10, $2.25; 25, $4.50; 50, $6.50; 100 or more, 11¢ each. Prices apply to any assortment of titles. Paper copies may be purchased from many public libraries at 10¢ to 20¢ each.)

A series of about 50 attractive pamphlets on a variety of subjects, each written by a well-known and authoritative writer in his field, giving a brief, readable introduction to the subject and outlining six to a dozen books for further reading and study. The books recommended are of a type which will be best appreciated and understood by readers with at least high school education.

III. Technical Care of the Library

(*a*) *Aids in Classifying, Cataloging and Bookbinding*

Simple Library Cataloging, by S. G. Akers. (American Library Assn., Chicago, 1927. $1.25.)

Gives practically all the information needed in cataloging a prison library correctly. For help on occasional questions not covered in detail in this book, consult *An Introduction to Cataloging and the Classification of Books* by M. Mann or *A.L.A. Catalog Rules,* either of which may be borrowed from most public libraries.

Decimal Classification and Relative Index. Abridged edition, by Melvil Dewey. 4th ed. rev. (H. W. Wilson Co., 1929. $2.50.)

Gives this scheme of classification numbers, the one adopted by the great majority of American libraries, in sufficient detail for book collections of the size usually found in prisons. This book gives only the class numbers for various subjects. The scheme of the Dewey Decimal Classification and how to use it is briefly explained in Akers' *Simple Library Cataloging* mentioned previously.

Cutter-Sanborn Three-Figure Alphabetic Order Table (Remington Rand Business Service, Inc., Library Bureau Division. $4.50.)

In addition to a class number obtained from the book just mentioned, every book should have its "book number" which more definitely assigns its place on the shelf. Each book has a separate and distinct book number. The *Three-Figure Alphabetic Order Table* helps in the assigning of these book numbers. It utilizes the first letters of an author's name and a numeral in such a way that ample space is always left for the insertion of new books in their proper place in the collection without having to add additional figures which make the book number unduly long.

List of Subject Headings for Small Libraries, by M. E. Sears. 2nd edition, revised and enlarged. (H. W. Wilson Co., 1926. $2.75.)

A practical aid in selecting subject headings or topics under which to list the library books in either a card or printed catalog. Will help toward a more thorough, accurate, and less haphazard accomplishment of this important job.

Care and Binding of Books and Magazines, by the A.L.A. Committee on Bookbinding. (American Library Association, 1928. 50¢.)

A useful 60-page pamphlet on general care of library books, methods of preparing books for the binder, mending methods and materials, etc.

A Course in Bookbinding for Vocational Training; Part I, Elementary Section, by E. W. Palmer. (Employing Bookbinders of America, Inc., 151 Broadway, New York, 1927. $4.)

A useful and clearly illustrated instruction book and guide to methods, equipment and materials for beginners in bookbinding.

Lettering on Library Books. (Published by the Bookbinding Committee of the American Library Assn., 1919. 25¢ each. 10 or more, 10¢ each.)

A 4-page, heavy cardboard folder of practical advice on materials and methods with illustrations and sample alphabets.

(*b*) *Library Supplies*

From the following dealers may be obtained such supplies as cards, indexes, filing equipment, book mending and marking equipment, book lacquer, etc.:

Demco Library Supplies, 114 S. Carroll St., Madison, Wis. (Including electric stylus.)

Gaylord Bros., Inc., 155 Gifford St., Syracuse, N. Y., and 44 N. Stanislaus St., Stockton, Cal. (Including electric stylus.)

The H. R. Huntting Co., 29 Worthington St., Springfield, Mass.

The Remington Rand Business Service, Library Bureau Division, 118 Federal St., Boston, Mass.; 205 E. 42nd St., New York, N. Y.; 214 W. Monroe St., Chicago, Ill.

(*c*) *Bookbinding Supplies*

Following is a suggestive list of materials and equipment for rebinding prison library books. Some of the equipment can probably be improvised in the prison and the rest purchased new or second-hand from the dealers listed below.

Sewing bench 32"
Board shears, small
Small hand-power cutting machine
Lettering pallet
Five fonts brass type—125 type to a font
Gold cushion
1 Bookbinder's hammer
2 Pair shears 10"
2 Bone folders 10"
2 Bookbinder's awls
2 Paring knives
1 Package large darning needles, oval eye
1 Package gold leaf (xx)
1 Lb. egg albumen
10 Lbs. flax bookbinding twine
10 Lbs. linen thread no. 25, 3 cord for bookbinding

1 Bundle (50 lbs.) each—binders board (best grade) 22" x 26", no. 20, no. 25, no. 30, no. 35
25 Lbs. bookbinding glue (good quality)
25 Lbs. good flour for paste
1 Double boiler electric gluepot (2-quart size)
10 Yards bookbinder's crash
1 Hand backing machine (small)
1 Small hand press

(*d*) *Dealers in Bookbinding Supplies*

Slade, Hipp & Meloy, Inc., 119 W. Lake St., Chicago, Ill. (Equipment, tools and materials.)

Gane Bros. & Lane, 1515 Pine St., St. Louis, Mo., and 1335 W. Lake St., Chicago, Ill. (Equipment, tools and materials.)

Louis DeJonge & Co., 69 Duane St., New York, N. Y. (Equipment, tools and materials.)

J. L. Shoemaker & Co., 15 S. 6th St., Philadelphia, Pa. (Equipment, tools and materials.)

Thomas Garnar & Co., 181 William St., New York, N. Y. (Materials.)

John Campbell & Co., 37 Murray St., New York, N. Y. (Materials.)

The Holliston Mills, Inc., Norwood, Mass. (Buckrams and book cloths.)

The Interlaken Mills, 18 Thomas St., New York, N. Y. (Buckrams and book cloths.)

Siegbert Book Cloth Corp., 349 Broadway, New York, N. Y. (Buckrams and book cloths.)

Jos. Bancroft & Sons Co., Wilmington, Del. (Buckrams and book cloths.)

IV. List of Minimum Essentials

For prison librarians whose funds are too limited to purchase all the library aids or tools suggested in the previous lists a selection of the more essential ones may be helpful. The following selection omits mention of most free or very inexpensive items. The cost of these essential items totals a little under $20.

Readable Books in Many Subjects—Felsenthal. (40¢)
The Standard Catalog.
  Fiction Section, with supplement. ($1)
  Biography Section, with supplement. ($2)
  History and Travel Section. ($3)
A.L.A. Booklist. ($2.50 per year)
Booklist Books; a Selection, 1926, 1928, 1929. ($1.75 for the three)
Periodicals for the Small Library—Walter. (65¢)
Simple Library Cataloging—Akers. ($1.25)
Decimal Classification and Relative Index; Abridged edition—Dewey. ($2.50)
Cutter-Sanborn Three-Figure Alphabetic Order Table. ($4.50)
Lettering on Library Books. (25¢)

If satisfactory bookbinding has not already been established in the prison, there should be added to the above list:

A Course in Bookbinding for Vocational Training, by E. W. Palmer. ($4)

APPENDIX II

PRACTICAL SUGGESTIONS FOR THE OPERATION OF INSTITUTION LIBRARIES

Prepared by

Roland Mulhauser
Librarian, United States Industrial Reformatory

The methods described below are those used by the library of the U. S. Industrial Reformatory at Chillicothe, Ohio. They are designed primarily to fit local conditions. Inasmuch as alternative methods are not given to fit conditions in every kind of institution, inquiries will be welcomed by the librarian. The use by an untrained librarian of the methods suggested necessitates study of some of the aids listed in the preceding section of the Appendix, and the assistance or advice from time to time of a trained librarian.

Outline

I. Preparation of books for use
II. Classification
III. Cataloging
IV. Filing of catalog cards
V. Circulation records

I. PREPARATION OF BOOKS FOR USE

Every book should go through each of the following steps:

1. *Classification* (detailed instructions given below)
2. *Cataloging* (detailed instructions given below)
3. *Identification*
   a. *Library's name.* Stamp the library's name on the back of the front cover (inside), on the title-page

as near the center as possible, on page 49 at least one-fourth of an inch from the edge of the page (in case the margins are cut when the book is rebound), and at several other places throughout the book.

b. Call number on back (outside). Write the call number (nonfiction books) on the back (the part of the book seen when on the shelf) so that the book may be kept easily in its proper place on the shelf. Use an electric stylus or pen and colored ink.

c. Other marks. Write the call number, copy number, and volume number (if there is one) of nonfiction books on the back of the title-page and also on the inside of the back cover at the top above the book pocket. For books of fiction write the copy number and volume number (if there is one) on the back of the title-page. On the inside of the back cover at the top above the book pocket write the copy number, the volume number (if there is one), the author's name (last name only), and a brief title.

Examples:

(Nonfiction)	365-A23	Copy 2
(Fiction)	Grey	Copy 3
	Last of the plainsmen	

Before writing up a book with this information it is desirable to check up with the shelf list to see if another copy of the book in question has already been cataloged. In case it has, the only additional work to be done is to enter another copy on the shelf list and prepare the book for circulation, since the rest of the cataloging has already been done.

4. *Date-due slip.* Paste a date-due slip inside the back cover on the end paper opposite the book pocket. If a map or

important illustration is on this end paper and is not duplicated in the front of the book or inside, put the date-due slip and the book pocket one page in from the back cover. Date-due slips can be purchased or run off on a multigraph machine. Blank slips of paper will serve almost as well. Sample:

DATE DUE		

FORM 7

5. *Book pocket.* Paste a book pocket (for the book card) on the inside of the back cover opposite the date-due slip. Various kinds can be purchased or simple pockets can be cut out of Manila paper. They should be pasted at both ends diagonally across the lower right-hand corner.
6. *Book card.* Make up a card for each book containing the following information.

   Call number (if a book of nonfiction) or
   The name of the language (if foreign)
   Copy number
   Volume number (if there is one)
   Author's last name
   Title (brief)

Sample book cards (only part of each 3″ x 5″ card is indicated):

Fiction

```
                         Cop. 1
Twain
  Man that corrupted Hadley-
burg
```

Nonfiction

```
512-W49                  Cop. 1
Wentworth
  New school algebra
```


Foreign

```
Spanish                  Cop. 1
Marden
  First Spanish grammar
```

Book cards can be purchased or run off on a multigraph machine.

The purpose of each of these operations is explained in the following sections.

II. CLASSIFICATION

Only nonfiction is classified. Fiction is identified and arranged on the shelves by author and title.

The purpose of classification is to assign to each book of nonfiction a number (or letter) which stands for the subject and which places all the books on the same or similar subjects near each other on the shelves.

Use for this work Melvil Dewey's *Decimal Classification and Relative Index* (listed above). The fourth abridged and revised edition is sufficiently complete. If the decimal arrangement seems too complicated, the three digits only of each number before the decimal point may be used, thus making a straight numerical scheme out of the original decimal one. This corresponds to the third summary of the complete scheme. In case this simplification is used it would be desirable to make the following change as well:

Discard the entire section 400-499 and use this for books of travel and description. The various geographic divisions

may be indicated by using the last two digits of the history numbers (900-999) and placing a 4 in front of them. A book on American history would be classified as 973. A book on travel in America would be classified as 473. This revision, as well as the few mentioned below, is suggested whether the full or abridged scheme is used.

The section on literature (800-899) divides essays, dramas, poetry, etc., into many separate sections according to the nationality of the writer. This is too academic even for public libraries. The usual custom is to put all books of essays in a single sequence arranged by author, likewise with dramas, poetry, and biography. Instead of numbers the letter P (or PC if it is a collection by various poets) may be used for poetry, D or DC for dramas, E or EC for essays, and B or BC for biography. If numbers are preferred these may be selected from the 800-899 division which would have been abandoned. Number 920 would be better for biography than any in the literature division. Further reassignment of numbers from the literature division would also have to be made for such topics as grammar, composition, letter writing, history and criticism of literature and whatever would otherwise have gone into the original 400-499 section (providing it too had been reorganized).

If all these changes are made the sections from 910 to 929 will not be used.

Foreign language books, including those teaching the language, might well be cataloged in the same way as ordinary fiction books, being identified only by the name of the language, the author, title, copy and volume numbers.

Regardless of the revisions made it is essential for the sake of consistency to assign the most specific number possible. If a book is on a special phase of a subject and there is a number for the special phase, use that number rather than the one for the general field of knowledge concerned.

Always avoid using the alphabetic index to the classification scheme as it is often misleading and incomplete. In case the index is used, always check back with the classified tables, making certain that the number being used falls within the proper general heading of that group of numbers.

III. CATALOGING

The purpose of a card catalog is to furnish an alphabetical index to all the books in the library. Each card in the catalog describes only one book. Each book in the library is listed in the catalog in two or more places (author, title, and subject entries). There are three parts to the catalog: one section in which every book is listed by author, another in which every book is listed by title, and a third in which all nonfiction (and some of the fiction) is entered under the various subjects discussed in the book.

All of these various catalog cards are made up on the typewriter as soon as possible but the book itself may be put into circulation before they are made up providing a shelf list record card is made up first. The procedure for making the catalog cards from the basic shelf list record is described below.

Three books, listed in the preceding section of the Appendix, are necessary to catalog according to the method described here. The Dewey decimal classification scheme is used for assigning classification numbers to nonfiction books as described above. The Cutter-Sanborn author numbers are used in finding numbers which correspond to authors' names and which are used as part of the call numbers of books, described below. Sears' list of subject headings is used in assigning subject headings under which nonfiction books are entered in the catalog.

It is desirable that the borrowers have access to the cata-

log even though they may not be allowed to browse among the books; the latter privilege, however, should be granted.

Shelf List

The shelf list is a general inventory card record; it contains the following items:

- Call number or
- The word "Fiction" or
- The name of the language (if foreign)
- Author's name
- Title
- Publisher
- Pages or
- Number of volumes
- Date
- The words "illus." and "maps" if the book has any
- List of copies
- Subject headings (listed on the back of the card)

The arrangement of these items is indicated on the sample cards. Specific directions concerning each item are given below.

```
368
H88    Huebner, S. S.
         Property insurance; comprising fire and marine
        insurance, corporate surety bonding, title in-
        surance and credit insurance.  Appleton.  421p.
        1911.  illus.

Cop. 1
Cop. 2
```



```
Fiction
        Churchill, W.
          Inside of the cup.  Grosset.  513p.  1913.

Cop. 1
Cop. 2
Cop. 3
```

The shelf list, like the books on the shelves, is arranged according to the classification scheme. Fiction and foreign entries may be filed at the beginning or the end, being arranged by author.

Call number

This is a symbol used to identify each book of nonfiction. It indicates the relative position of the book on the shelf along with other books on the same or similar subjects. Every nonfiction book has a call number which is different from that of every other book. It consists of two parts: the subject number (see directions for "classification" for the method of finding this number) and an author number, which is found in the Cutter-Sanborn author number tables. These author number tables are arranged alphabetically somewhat like a telephone book.

If a number cannot be found to correspond exactly with the name of the author, determine where in the tables the name would be placed if it were included and then use the number immediately above this place. The author number

that goes with all numerical subject numbers consists of the initial letter of the author's last name and the first two digits (from the left) of the number found in the Cutter-Sanborn author tables. For books classified with a letter (B, D, E, or P) use an author number which consists of the initial letter of the author's last name and three digits found in the tables. If only two digits are printed in the table and three are needed, add a zero at the end to make up the three digits. If two different books get the same call number by working out the above scheme, change the author number up or down one number so that they do not.

Following are several typical call numbers: 150-T77 is a book on psychology (indicated by the 150) written by Trapp (indicated by the T77). P-T774 is a book of poems written by Trapp. Here all three digits of the Cutter-Sanborn tables are used. B-T774 is a biography or autobiography *about* Trapp. In the case of biography (and only in the case of biography) the second part of the call number (usually the author number) is a number which stands for the name of the person *written about* and not the person doing the writing. In the case of a collection of essays, poems, etc., written by a number of authors and collected by an editor or compiler, the author part of the call number stands for the editor or compiler. Do not mistake this rule for such a case as that where the Works of Plato are edited by Durant. In this instance the author part of the call number should correspond with Plato and not Durant.

Author's name

Use the author's last name followed by a comma and only the initials of his other names.

Title

Give the exact title as it is written on the title page. Omit the introductory articles, i.e., if a title starts with

"the," "an," or "a" do not copy this word but *do* copy all the rest of the words following this, including all the "the's," "an's," and "a's." Separate the subtitles from the main part of the title with a semicolon, e.g., "American family; a novel of today." Alternative titles should be written thus: "Cloister and the hearth; or, Maid, wife and widow." Notice that the first part of the title is followed by a semicolon, the word "or," a comma, and the alternative title starting with a capital. When several works by the same author are bound together and both are mentioned on the title-page write the title thus: "Soldiers three; and Just so stories." If all the works are not mentioned on the title-page or if several works by different authors (not more than four or five) are bound together, list these in a note two lines below the main entry with this caption, "Published in same binding:" In this case, if each work is paged separately, add the number of pages after each entry under this note.

Capitals

Do not capitalize any words anywhere except proper names (people and places), the first word in a title, and corporate names (organizations, companies, clubs, etc.).

Quotation marks

Use quotation marks only when they appear on the title-page.

Publisher

Only the significant words of a publisher's name need be given, e.g., write Houghton for Houghton Mifflin Company. The publisher's name is always printed at the bottom of the title-page.

Pages

Count only the last page numbered in Arabic numerals unless an excessively long introduction or index is numbered separately in Roman numerals.

Date

Use the latest copyright date found on the back of the title-page. If none appears there, use the date on the title-page or the date at the end of the introduction if no other date can be found.

Copy number

List each copy separately so that any additional information (such as cost, price, date of purchase, source, withdrawn, etc.) may be placed immediately after the copy number which is concerned, if such information is desired.

Subject headings

Write these on the back of the *shelf list* card only. Before selecting the headings from the Sears list of subject headings study carefully the way the list is organized. Notice particularly:

1). That the arrangement is alphabetical and in heavy type.
2). That all headings are followed by
   a). No additional data whatsoever (e.g., Louisiana purchase); or
   b). Another heading or group of headings which are introduced by the word "see"—thus indicating that the heading or headings following the word "see" *must* be used *instead* of the one originally looked up in the list; or
   c). Another heading or group of headings which are introduced by the words "see also"—thus indicating that these other headings *may* be used *in addition to or instead of* the heading originally looked up in the list.
   d). Cross references from other headings to the one now under consideration. These are of two kinds:
      (1). Those introduced with the caption "Refer from (see ref.)"
      (2). Those introduced with the caption "Refer from (see also ref.)"

Use for the average book one or two (seldom more than four) subject headings, making a separate card entry in the subject catalog for each heading used. Use any headings listed in the alphabetical list *except* such headings as are followed by the data described in 2 b above.

Check those headings which have been used and also such other cross references (described in 2 d 1 and 2 d 2 above) as are appropriate. Do not check any headings such as those described in 2 b or 2 c above. If such headings are to be used, then turn to the place in the list where they are entered and check them there. Example of checking:

√**Dyes and dyeing**
    See also Bleaching; Indigo
    Refer from (see ref.) √Dyestuffs
    Refer from (see also ref.) √Chemistry

Interpreting these particular checks one would understand that a book (or books) is entered in the subject catalog under the heading DYES AND DYEING and that cross reference cards are made out from the subject headings CHEMISTRY and DYESTUFFS.

Cross reference cards for those cross reference headings (described in 2 d 1 and 2 d 2 above) which have been selected for use are to be made up according to these samples:

CHEMISTRY see also
DYES AND DYEING

DYESTUFFS see
DYES AND DYEING

Additions or alterations of the Sears list are seldom necessary. Several general subheadings, however, are frequently usable after geographic names, e.g.:

U. S.—Description and travel
U. S.—Social life and customs
U. S.—Politics and government.

Enter all these additions in the list in their proper places if used.

Author, title, and subject entry cards

The original shelf list card, described in detail above, contains all the information necessary in making all the catalog cards. If the original shelf list card has not been typewritten or was written up hastily for a temporary record make a good copy for permanent use.

Author card

This contains the following information (see sample):

Call number or
The word "Fiction" or
The name of a foreign language
Author's name
Title (complete)
Pages or
Number of volumes
Date
The words "illus." and "maps" if on shelf list card

343
C45 Chancellor, W. E.
History and government of the United States.
120p. 1912. illus.

Title card

This contains the following information (see sample):

Call number or
The word "Fiction" or
The name of a foreign language
Title (brief)
Author's name

```
343
C45  History and government of the United States
     Chancellor, W. E.
```

Subject card (one for each subject heading)

This contains the following information (see sample):

Call number or
The word "Fiction" or
The name of a foreign language
Subject heading
Author's name
Title (complete)
Pages or
Number of volumes
Date
The words "illus." or "maps" if on shelf list card


```
343   U. S. - POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT
C45  Chancellor, W. E.
       History and government of the United States.
     120p.  1912.  illus.
```

IV. FILING OF CATALOG CARDS

General rules *

There are three distinctly different parts to the catalog: an author file, a title file, and a subject file, each being arranged alphabetically. Every book is entered in the author and title files, and all of the nonfiction and a few of the fiction books are entered in the subject file.

Alphabet letter by letter to the end of the word, and then word by word, beginning with the first word on the top line. Every word (articles and prepositions included) is to be regarded. Introductory articles (the, a, an) have already been omitted in the cataloging. Examples:

Art of living
Art of the Greeks
Arthur and the round table

Abbreviations are arranged as if spelled out in full: Mc or M', S., St., Dr., Mr., Mrs., Mlle., as Mac, Sanctus,

* Some of the rules and examples on filing were taken from those used by the Cleveland Public Library.

Saint, Doctor, Mister, Mistress, Mademoiselle, etc. Names beginning with D', L', O', are arranged as they stand. Initials standing for names of organizations are to be treated as initials, not as abbreviations. Examples:

A.E.F.
A.L.A. booklist
A.L.A. in Siberia
A la mode cookery
Aaron

Elisions are arranged as they are written. Regard as one word contractions of two words resulting from an elision, e.g., Who's for Who is. Examples:

Flower o' the grass
Flower o' the lily
Flower of destiny
Flower of the mind
Who is who in insurance
Wholesale prices
Whom the gods destroy
Who's the author
Who's who
Whose . . .

Hyphenated words are arranged as if separate. Examples:

Book and its story
Book-binding
Book for a corner
Book-hunter
Book of animals
Book plates
Bookbinding
Books

Exception: Arrange as one word hyphenated words compounded with a prefix, such as anti-, co-, inter-, non-, post-, pre-, re-, trans-, etc. Examples:

Cooperative marketing
Co-operative movement
Inter arma
Interaction
Inter-America
Interchange
Inter-collegiate association
Intercollegiate bureau
Inter-state board
Interstate commerce
Preaching
Pre-Columbian
Preglacial
Pre-historic America
Prehistoric Americans
Remaking a man
Re-making of China
Tomorrow
To-morrow morning

Punctuation marks in titles are usually to be disregarded.

A numerical arrangement instead of an alphabetical one is sometimes to be preferred as in the case of congresses, conferences, etc., which are distinguished by number and date. Examples:

American peace congress. 1st 1907
American peace congress. 2nd 1910
American peace congress. 4th 1913

Check-up

The position of all cards being filed should be checked before the filing is completed. This may be done by having

an assistant file the cards where he thinks they should be, placing them on end in the trays so that the head librarian may be able to verify the filing before the cards are actually lost among the cards already filed. If there are rods in the drawers (these are desirable), then the assistant can place the cards on the rods and the librarian checking the filing can later insert the rod through the holes in the cards while checking the filing.

Author catalog

See also the general rules listed above.

Names compounded of two words are arranged as two words when written as two words with or without a hyphen. Examples:

Hall, W. S.
Hall-Quest, A.
Hall Wood, M.
Hallam

Names compounded with prefixes are arranged as one word. Examples:

Defoe
De La Pasture
Delaware Hardware Co.
Del Mar
De Luxe Building Co.
Democrat Printing Co.
De Morgan
Demosthenes
D'Ooge
Dooley

Under an author's name arrange the entries according to the titles. Disregard the fact that the author is editor, compiler, translator, or joint author. Arrange a later edition

which has exactly the same title as the earlier before the earlier edition. Arrange a translation alphabetically by its own title, not behind the original.

Title catalog

See also the general rules listed above.

Initials are arranged before words of the same initial letter. Examples:

A.B.C. of electricity
A.E.F.
Abbeys

Numerals, in titles of books, are arranged as if written out in the language of the rest of the title. The numerals 100, 1000, etc., are arranged as if written One hundred; One thousand. Numerals over 1000 are arranged as they are spoken, e.g., 1500 as Fifteen hundred, 2510 as Two thousand five hundred and ten. Examples:

100 deutscher manner (Ein hundert)
Henry VIII (Henry Eighth)
Henry Esmond
1914 (Nineteen fourteen)
Nineteen-o-four air brake
1917 war tax (Nineteen seventeen)
99 recipes (Ninety-nine)
100 plans (One hundred)
One of them
1001 jokes (One thousand and one)
1000 mythological characters (One thousand)
1600 business books (Sixteen hundred)
$1200 a year (Twelve hundred)

&, in filing, is always spelled out as "and."

Grammatical distinctions, such as noun or adjective, possessive or plural, are to be disregarded and titles are to be arranged strictly alphabetically. Examples:

Boy scouts
Boycott
Boys' clubs
Boy's King Arthur
Boys of '76
Boy's town

Duplicate titles. If two or more books written by different authors have the same title, arrange the title cards alphabetically by author. In case of titles of the same book which differ only in the date of the edition, arrange by date, the latest edition first. Examples:

Pioneers
Cooper, J. F.
Pioneers (1915)
Oppenheim, J.
Pioneers (1910)
Oppenheim, J.

Subject catalog

See also the general rules listed above.

Arrange entries of the same subject heading alphabetically by the first word on the line below the subject. This is always the author except in cases where there is no author, editor, compiler, etc. Examples:

ENGLISH POETRY—COLLECTIONS
Book of old English love songs (title)
ENGLISH POETRY—COLLECTIONS
Cody, S. ed.
Selection from the great poets
ENGLISH POETRY—COLLECTIONS
English garner (title)
ENGLISH POETRY—COLLECTIONS
Noyes, A. ed.
Poet's anthology

Subdivisions

Arrange together, alphabetically, regardless of punctuation (- or ,) all subdivisions of a subject, including inverted headings, except period divisions under the heading History, which are arranged chronologically (by dates). Examples:

Art, Ancient
Art—Essays
Art—History
Art, Municipal
Art—Periodicals
Art, Renaissance
Art—U. S.
Art and morals

SEE ALSO references are filed before the subject entries of the same heading. Examples:

Architecture, see also Castles
Architecture
Architecture, Domestic

V. CIRCULATION RECORDS

When a borrower wishes to take a book from the library, remove the book card from the book and stamp, or write with ink, in the first column the date due. (A sample book card has been given.) In the second column write the borrower's number (inmate number). Also stamp, or write in ink, the date due on the date-due slip. The book card is then kept in the library and when the book is returned the card is put back into the book. The file of book cards thus kept at the library constitutes the record of books out in circulation, telling when the book is due and who has it out. It is best to place together all the cards for books and magazines due on the same day, arranging them in the regular shelf list order behind tabs for the various dates due.

Overdue notices

When a book or magazine becomes three days overdue a notice should be sent the borrower. If the book or magazine is not returned within one week a second notice should be sent. A third notice might be used before the matter is referred to the deputy's office or a personal call is made. Suggested forms:

First and Second Notices
(Printed Form)

U. S. Industrial Reformatory

LIBRARY

Overdue Notice

The book (or books) mentioned below, which you borrowed from the library, is now overdue and should be returned or renewed at once.

FORM 5

Third Notice
(Letter)

This is the third overdue notice sent you for the item listed below. Unless a satisfactory report is made to me at once the matter will be referred to the deputy's office. LIBRARIAN.

Reserve notices

If a borrower wants a book or a magazine which is not in the library at the time of the request, the borrower may leave a reserve order. Suggested form:

Call no.

U. S. Industrial Reformatory

LIBRARY

Reserve Notice

Author:

Title:

Borrower's name, number and barracks:

Date of request:

The book mentioned above will be held for you until closing time

FORM 4

This should be filled out by the borrower as fully as possible.

The next procedure is for an assistant to go to the shelf list and see how many copies the library possesses. Next he is to trace each copy, first looking on the shelves for the book, next through the circulation records and then in any other places where the book or a record of its whereabouts might be. If the book is found, then the notice is sent back to the borrower at once.

If the book is not found, *all* of the book cards for the various copies of the book (if there is more than one copy) are clipped. This clip on the card indicates that there is an order card on file for the book, so that when the book is returned and carded the desk assistant will know that he is to look for the reserve order card.

The reserve order card is then sent back to the borrower and the book is held for him two days at the library.

File all the waiting reserve orders in a single file in shelf list sequence. Do not file the reserve order cards until the book cards have been clipped.

APPENDIX III

SAMPLE OF WISCONSIN READING COURSE PREPARED FOR A PRISONER

HEAVY DUTY GASOLINE MOTORS

A READING COURSE

Prepared for

R. A. BLANK

by

Wisconsin Free Library Commission *

June 27, 1929

Since the student is interested especially in heavy duty gasoline motors, the first book recommended is

Motor truck and automobile motors and mechanism, by Thomas H. Russell. The first three chapters discuss the main parts of any motor car and from then on the book tells about the mechanism of trucks. There are many diagrams for the use of the reader. The next book is

Motor truck design and construction, by C. T. Schaefer. All types of motors are explained and described in detail. Studying these diagrams carefully will be a great help to the student. Even more in detail is

The modern motor truck, by Victor W. Page. This author has written several books on motor cars. He is a mem-

* Reprinted by courtesy of the Commission.

ber of the Society of Automotive Engineers. The last chapter is devoted to the cost of operating motor trucks. The following book is very practical:

Motor vehicles and their engines, by Edward S. Fraser. The author was formerly instructor in the motor transportation course in the U. S. Army. This book not only explains the mechanism of motor trucks, but tells how to repair them, especially engine trouble on the road. Pages 403-428 discuss care and adjustment. The next book

Bus operating practice, by Roy Hauer. Here are given topics regarding the operation of a bus, either by individuals or a city, such as selecting profitable bus fields, securing the right to run, operation, costs, and selection of equipment. The following discusses the subject in general:

Economics of motor transportation, by George W. Grupp. Here are some of the subjects: truck operation, loading and unloading, bus transportation and cost of operating. Pages 363-387 have interesting material on the history of the motor-truck industry. Pages 397-407 have a list of weights of materials, for use of those who do hauling.

APPENDIX IV

FORM USED IN READING SURVEY OF MICHIGAN STATE PRISONERS *

The following form, used by the State Librarians at the Michigan State Prison at Jackson in August, 1930, is printed on a single sheet 8½ inches by 13½ inches, perforated two inches from the bottom. At the top of the reverse side the following is printed:

Please write below any subjects that you are interested in not mentioned on opposite page.

These surveys will be collected on Wednesday, August 27th. Your co-operation is asked.

MICHIGAN STATE LIBRARY
LANSING

Mrs. Mary E. Frankhauser,
State Librarian

Gail Curtis,
Asst. Librarian

READING SURVEY

PURPOSE: To determine the type of books for which there is the greatest demand and an estimate of the general reading tastes of the men.

The result of this survey will be used as a guide in selecting books for future purchase in the prison library.

Answers are entirely *voluntary.* We ask your co-operation in obtaining as complete returns as possible. If you do not care to fill out the blank, please return it.

Name and number is not necessary. This is an anonymous survey.

No. of years in sentence..........Year of entry here..............
No. of previous terms if any.......Grade when you left school........
Trade or profession ....Race or nationality...............

* Reprinted by courtesy of Michigan State Library.

What books that you have read and enjoyed would be popular in the prison library?

....

....

Underline subject you would be interested in, if reading material is obtainable from the Prison Library or the State Library:

Accounting	Geometry	Negroes
Advertising	German	Poetry
Auto Mechanics	Grammar	Politics
Aviation	Insurance	Poultry Raising
Blue Print Reading	Journalism	Psychology
Cartooning	Law	Radio
Dairying	Letter Writing	Salesmanship
Design	Mathematics	Show Card Writing
Elocution	Mechanical Drawing	Short Story Writing
Engineering	Moving and Talking Pictures	Spanish
Forestry	Music	Stock Raising
French		

List below any other subject not given above in which you are interested:

....

Do you read any magazines or newspapers regularly? Please list below.

....

What magazine do you like best?..............................

Do you think a printed catalogue of the prison library is adequate?

....

If not, what method can you suggest to increase the use of the library? ....

....

Have you borrowed any books from the prison library since Jan. 1930?

If you are interested in following a course of reading on any particular subject, for which books may be supplied from the prison library or from the State Library, please indicate below. Be as specific as possible. Sign your name and number and *tear off on the dotted line.* Turn in separate from the above survey.

Course or subject..

Sign here ....

APPENDIX V

A SUGGESTED LIST OF TEXTBOOKS

Prepared by

JOHN CHANCELLOR

Supervising Librarian, U. S. Bureau of Prisons

There is practically no printed textual material written definitely to meet the needs of the adult prisoner to be had from regular publishers. There is a dearth of elementary texts written for adults in general. Of the texts written for public grade schools and adult evening classes a small portion is partially applicable. Where it is impossible for institutions to write or adapt material for their own use and available printed texts must be depended on, the following are suggested as perhaps more suitable than others of their type for use with adult prisoners. It is not to be assumed that this is a complete list of all acceptable material, or that all the titles listed are suitable in every respect.

I. ENGLISH

Beginners' Texts.

(a) For native-born illiterates.

Talbot, Winthrop. *Home Lessons in English; How to Read and Write.* Metropolitan Life Insurance Co., New York, N. Y. 1928.

A pamphlet, very elementary and small in scope, utilizing picture method throughout.

Swain, Ethel. *A Practical First Reader for Adults.* Revised ed. The Sather Gate Book Shop, 2271 Telegraph Ave., Berkeley, Cal. 1924.

A pamphlet of 112 pages, utilizing familiar public signs, etc., extensively. Quite elementary.

Stewart, Cora Wilson. *Mother's First Book; a First Reader for Home Women.* B. F. Johnson Publishing Co., Richmond, Va., 1930. (Cloth edition.)

Elementary reading, writing and spelling. Emphasizes home matters, cleanliness, community ideals, etc.

Morriss, Elizabeth C. *Citizens Reference Book; a Text Book for Adult Beginners in Community Schools.* Book I. Univ. of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill, N. C., 1927. (Author is Director of Community Service, Buncombe County, N. C.)

Reading, writing, arithmetic, English, use of dictionary, phonics. Vocabulary conforms to Ayres, Thorndike, etc., word lists.

Stewart, Cora Wilson. *Country Life Readers.* First Book, rev. ed. B. F. Johnson Publishing Co., Richmond, Va., 1930.

By the founder of the Kentucky "Moonlight Schools" for adult illiterates of the rural mountain regions. Subject matter conforms to their interests and needs but most of the material is usable with illiterates from any rural region. Reading, writing and spelling lessons, each with an illustrative picture.

Note. In the following books for foreign-born will be found a number of lessons suited to use with the native-born also. Of the many books published for the foreign-born those listed below are believed to contain the largest amount of material suitable for use with native-born as well. Most of them utilize such topics as simple arithmetic, reading of time-tables and public signs, filling out various forms in

common use and other familiar matters of business and everyday life requiring elementary reading and writing abilities.

(b) For foreign-born illiterates.

Macavoy, Clarissa H. *The First Drill Book in Reading English for Men and Women.* Fort Orange Press, Albany, N. Y., 1929.

Wetmore, Frances K. *A First Book in English for Non-English Speaking Adults.* Chicago Association of Commerce, 1924. (Brief.)

Intermediate Texts.

(a) For native-born.

Morriss, Elizabeth C. *Citizens Reference Book.* Book II. Univ. of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill, N. C., 1927. Paper cover.

Reading lessons, writing, spelling, use of dictionary, geography, American history, citizenship.

Stewart, Cora Wilson. *Country Life Readers.* Second Book, rev. ed. B. J. Johnson Publishing Co., Richmond, Va., 1930.

For those with interests in rural life.

Note. Portions of each of the intermediate texts mentioned in the next section for foreign-born are usable also with native-born intermediates.

(b) For foreign-born.

O'Brien, Sara R. *English for Foreigners.* Book I. Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, Mass., 1909.

Castle, A. W. *Reader and Guide for New Americans.* Book I. The Macmillan Co., New York, N. Y., 1928.

Long, John A. *Reader for New Americans.* Book I. The American Book Co., New York, N. Y., 1923.

Austin, Ruth. *Lessons in English for Foreign Women.* The American Book Co., New York, N. Y., 1913.

Advanced Texts.

(a) For native-born.

Stewart, Cora Wilson. *Country Life Readers.* Third Book, rev. ed. B. F. Johnson Publishing Co., Richmond, Va., 1930.

Rural interest only.

Lewis, William D., and Lynch, Helen M. *Grammar to Use.* John C. Winston Co., Philadelphia, Pa., 1913.

The essentials in simple form. Swain, Bascom and Lee, mentioned below, are even simpler.

Note. The books by Swain, Bascom and Lee mentioned in the next section are almost equally usable with either native- or foreign-born. Portions of the other texts in the next section are usable with native-born.

(b) For foreign-born.

O'Brien, Sara R. *English for Foreigners.* Book II. Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, Mass, 1912.

Long, John A. *Reader for New Americans.* Book II. American Book Co., New York, N. Y., 1923.

Castle, A. W. *Reader and Guide for New Americans.* Book II. The Macmillan Co., New York, N. Y., 1929.

Swain, Ethel. *English Grammar and Drill Book in English Usage, for Intermediate and Advanced Foreign Students.* Sather Gate Book Shop, Berkeley, Cal., 1929.

Bascom, Lelia. *Elementary Lessons in English Idiom.* D. Appleton & Co., New York, N. Y., 1920.

Simple essentials of grammar and correct usage written especially for foreign-born and other adult beginners in English.

Lee, Ettie. *Living English Studies.* The Macmillan Co., New York, N. Y., 1928.

Written for intermediate and advanced foreign-born classes and the sixth, seventh and eighth grades of public school. Useful in part with intermediate and advanced native-born classes. Consists of brief, simply-told, interest-holding stories and biographies of worth while content, each followed by helpful explanations and exercises on the English usage and grammar involved.

Readers.

Practically all of the texts mentioned in the preceding sections contain reading material as well as drills in spelling, writing, correct usage, etc. The books mentioned under this general heading of "Readers" contain reading material only, and are suggested as supplementary or additional sources. Their subject matter will be found more interesting and worth while from the point of view of general education than that in the English texts cited in Section I above. Use of selected articles or chapters from these books in connection with the general English courses will give some acquaintance with such subjects as science, social science, civics, vocations, agriculture, literature, etc. The use of these books involves reading ability of at least intermediate and, in most cases, advanced grade. They also provide good sources from which the instructor can secure interesting material to be rewritten in simpler form for more elementary classes.

(a) General Readers.

Lewis, William D., and Rowland, A. L. *The New Silent Readers.* John C. Winston Co., Philadelphia, Pa., 1930. Book V—*Whys and Wherefores.* Book VI—*Scouting Through.* Book VII—*Pioneer Trails.*

Selected, simplified and interestingly told readings on a variety of worth while topics intended for the fifth, sixth and seventh grades of public school. Some of the selections and illustrations are too juvenile but there is much material that can either be given to the student to read or that can be adapted by the instructor. Type and format very attractive.

Spencer, Paul R., Gans, R., and Fritscher, L. D. *Thought-Study Readers, Individualized.* Book 6. Lyons and Carnahan, Chicago, Ill., 1930.

Public school text, suitable in parts for adult intermediates.

(b) Science Readers.

Caldwell, Otis W., and Curtis, F. D. *Introduction to Science.* Ginn & Co., Boston, Mass., 1929.

Unusually interesting and teachable subject matter carefully selected from many sciences and related to familiar matters of everyday life. Uses a vocabulary confined almost entirely to the five thousand most frequently used words as listed by Thorndike. Paragraphs are marked according to three levels of difficulty so that selections can be made for subaverage, average, and unusually able students. Well illustrated.

Rush, Charles E., and Winslow, A. *The Science of Things About Us.* Little, Brown & Co., Boston, Mass., 1926.

Simple, interestingly told tales of the evolution and processes behind many common things of everyday life.

(c) Social Science Readers.

All of the books listed in this section require reading ability of advanced grade. Parts of each, however, can be given the student to read and all of them form excellent sources of material for simplified adaptations by the instructor. All are readable and interesting presentations.

Marshall, Leon C. *The Story of Human Progress.* The Macmillan Co., New York, N. Y. 1925.

Fully and interestingly illustrated.

Hayward, W. R., and Johnson, G. W. *The Story of Man's Work.* Minton, Balch & Co., New York, N. Y., 1925.

Lapp, J. A. *Economics and the Community.* The Century Co., New York, N. Y., 1922.

Carpenter, Frank G. *The New Industrial Readers.* American Book Co., New York, N. Y. 3 vols.: *How the World is Fed.* 1928. *How the World is Clothed.* 1929. *How the World is Housed.* 1930.

Perhaps the simplest in the group. Equally suitable as geographical and vocational readers. Well and attractively illustrated.

Johnson, J. F. *We and Our Work.* American Viewpoint Society, New York, N. Y., 1923.

Remarkable for its wealth of eye-catching illustration.

(d) Vocational Readers.

The books listed in this section are descriptive of the various types of occupations, their requirements and their place in the general social scheme. Textbooks and shop manuals on the individual trades are dealt with in another part of the appendix of this book.

Lyon, L. S. *Making a Living; the Individual in Society: an Introduction to Vocations, Business, Civics and the Problems of Community Life.* The Macmillan Co., New York, N. Y., 1926.

A readable, interesting, and well-illustrated text for junior high schools, usable in parts with advanced classes and an excellent source for simplified adaptations. Broad in its scope. Deals with occupations of both men and women.

Smith, Lewis W. and Blough, G. L. *Planning a Career; a Vocational Civics.* Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, Mass., 1929.

Similar to the preceding book.

(e) Civics Readers.

Moley, Raymond and Cook, H. F. *Lessons in Democracy.* The Macmillan Co., New York, N. Y., 1919.

Excellent content, appealing to mature minds, but written in simple language for adult immigrant classes. Equally useful with advanced

native-born classes either as reading material or as a brief course in civics.

Goldberger, Henry H. *America for Coming Citizens.* Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York, N. Y. 1922.

Brief and written for immigrant classes. Contains more history and less civics and in more difficult language than preceding title.

Bradshaw, Catherine A. *Americanization Questionnaire.* Noble and Noble, New York, N. Y., 1926.

The questions usually asked of aliens applying for citizenship and their answers. Adapted only to this specific purpose and not as a reader for beginners in English.

Jenks, J. W., and Smith, R. D. *We and Our Government.* The American Viewpoint Society, New York, N. Y., 1929.

Another of this Society's profusely illustrated introductions, useful for more advanced readers or as a source for simplified adaptations.

The following four books are too difficult to put in the hands of beginners in English as readers but are good sources for simplified adaptations by the instructor:

Phillips, D. E., and Newlon, J. H. *The New Social Civics.* Rand McNally & Co., Chicago, Ill., 1927.
Hughes, R. O. *Community Civics.* Allyn and Bacon, Boston, Mass., 1928.
Hill, H. C. *Community Life and Civic Problems.* Ginn and Co., Boston, Mass., 1922.
Potter, Pitman B., and West, R. L. *International Civics; the Community of Nations.* The Macmillan Co., New York, N. Y., 1927.

(f) Geographical Readers.

Carpenter, Frank G. *The New Geographical Readers.* American Book Co., New York, N. Y. 6 vols.: *Europe.* 1928. *Asia.* 1930. *North America.* 1927. *South America.* 1927. *Africa.* 1928. *Australia, the Philippines and Other Islands of the Sea.* 1927.

Usable with advanced classes. Interesting, well illustrated and sufficiently adult. These books are supplementary readers only and not texts in geography, a list of which is given later.

(g) Historical Readers.

Books listed in this section are collateral readers, not complete chronological accounts to be used as texts in a history course. A list of such textbooks is given later. For the purpose of making history human and interesting these books are cast in story or biographical form.

Coffman, Ramon. *The Story of America.* F. A. Owen Publishing Co., Dansville, N. Y.

Book I. *The Age of Discovery.* 1927.
Book II. *New World Settlement.* 1927.
Book III. *Growth of the Colonies.* 1928.

Fairly simple language, sufficiently adult, and interesting.

Tillinghast, L. M., and Colman, E. M. *Colonial Life in America.* F. A. Owen Publishing Co., Dansville, N. Y., 1928.

Similar to the preceding books by Coffman.

Elson, Henry W. *Side Lights on American History.* Rev. ed. The Macmillan Co., New York, N. Y., 1928. 2 vols.

Fairly simple.

Gordy, Wilbur F. *Stories of Later American History.* Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York, N. Y., 1923.

Emphasis on biographical details. Slightly juvenile in a few places but sufficiently adult as a whole. Fairly simple.

Gordy, Wilbur F. *Leaders in Making America.* Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York, N. Y., 1923.

Quite elementary. Slightly juvenile in parts but sufficiently adult as a whole.

Gordy, Wilbur F. *Abraham Lincoln.* Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York, N. Y., 1917.

Not quite as simple as the two preceding books of this author.

Logie, Alfred E. *From Columbus to Lincoln.*
——— *From Lincoln to Coolidge.* Lyons and Carnahan, Chicago, Ill., 1924-1925.

"Historical accounts written by people of note who lived at the time of the events." Some are simple enough to use with advanced classes.

Corson, David B., and Cornish, H. R. *Founders of Freedom in America; a Biographical History for the Elementary Grades.* Hinds, Hayden and Eldredge, Inc., New York, N. Y., 1922.

Faris, John T. *Where Our History Was Made.* Books I and II. Silver, Burdett and Co., New York, N. Y., 1923-1924.

Historical narratives associated with present-day landmarks and places of historical interest. Interesting and fairly simple.

Hart, Albert Bushnell. *We and Our History.* The American Viewpoint Society, New York, N. Y., 1929.

Another of the profusely illustrated publications of this society, addressed primarily to new Americans. Text slightly difficult but useful because of illustrations.

(h) Literary Readers.

The following are simplifications of well-known classics of literature which may be useful with intermediate and advanced classes.

Melville, Herman. *Moby Dick.* Arranged by S. C. Bates. Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York, N. Y.

Cooper, James Fenimore. *Last of the Mohicans.* Retold by M. N. Haight. American Book Co., New York, N. Y.

Cooper, James Fenimore. *The Adventures of Deerslayer.* Adapted by M. N. Haight. American Book Co., New York, N. Y.

Cooper, James Fenimore. *The Adventures of Pathfinder.* Adapted by M. N. Haight. American Book Co., New York, N. Y.

Clark, L. P. *Stories from American Literature Retold.* Britton Printing Co., Cleveland, O.

Includes *Rip Van Winkle, Great Stone Face, Man Without a Country, Uncle Tom's Cabin,* and *The Gold Bug.* Much abridged and simplified.

Eliot, George. *Silas Marner.* Adapted by Ettie Lee. The Macmillan Co., New York, N. Y.

Stevenson, Robert Louis. *Treasure Island.* Edited by G. S. Blakeley. John C. Winston Co., Philadelphia, Pa.

Dickens, Charles. *A Dickens Reader.* Arranged by E. M. Powers. Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, Mass.

Hugo, Victor. *Les Miserables.* Adapted by Ettie Lee. Horace Liveright, Inc., New York, N. Y.

The Instructor Literature Series. Owen Publishing Co., Dansville, N. Y.

Baldwin, James. *Fifty Famous Stories Retold.*
——— *Thirty More Famous Stories Retold.*
——— *Fifty Famous Rides and Riders.*
——— *Old Greek Stories.*
——— *Nine Choice Poems of Longfellow, Lowell, Macaulay, Byron, Browning and Shelley.* American Book Co., New York, N. Y.

(i) Agricultural Readers.

The following fairly simple and practical texts can be used as supplementary readers for advanced classes. *The Country Life Readers,* Books I and II, mentioned previously, meet the need for beginning and intermediate classes.

Bailey, L. H. *The School Book of Farming.* The Macmillan Co., New York, N. Y., 1920.

Tappan, E. M. *The Farmer and His Friends.* Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, Mass., 1916.

Waters, Henry J. *Elementary Agriculture.* Ginn & Co., Boston, Mass., 1923.

Robbins, E. B. *Elementary Agriculture for Southern Schools.* Turner E. Smith Co., Atlanta, Ga., 1924.

Duggar, John F. *Agriculture for Southern Schools.* The Macmillan Co., New York, N. Y., 1923.

(k) Religious Readers.

Jones, Emily M., Gray, M. D., and Gray, W. L. *Bible Story Reader.* Johnson Publishing Co., Richmond, Va., 1920.

Bible stories retold in very simple language with attempt to keep as much of the typical wording of the King James version as possible. Format similar to the *Country Life Readers.*

Baldwin, James. *Old Stories of the East.* American Book Co., New York, N. Y., 1923.

Bible stories retold in fairly simple language.

(l) Hygiene Readers.

Garretson, Edith M. *Home and Health in a New Land; English Lessons for Women, First and Second Years.* Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York, N. Y., 1927.

Addressed to the foreign-born but usable with native-born beginners in English.

Hutchinson, Woods. *The New Handbook of Health.* Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, Mass., 1926.

Interesting and readable. For advanced classes. A few parts addressed to juveniles but the rest sufficiently adult.

Andress, James M., and Brown, M. A. *Science and the Way to Health.* Ginn & Co., Boston, Mass., 1929.

Fairly adult readable text for advanced classes, with some emphasis on public health.

Burkard, William E., and others. *Personal and Public Health.* Lyons and Carnahan, Chicago, Ill., 1930.

Readable, attractive text, suitable for advanced classes.

Usable material for reading in the form of free or inexpensive pamphlets on health and hygiene, attractive in form and simple in language, can be obtained by addressing requests to the following organizations:

Cleanliness Institute, 45 E. 17th St., New York, N. Y.

Metropolitan Life Insurance Co., 1 Madison Ave., New York, N. Y.

John Hancock Mutual Life Insurance Co., Boston, Mass.

Prudential Insurance Co. of America, Newark, N. J.

American Dental Association, 58 E. Washington St., Chicago, Ill.

American Federation of Organizations for the Hard of Hearing, 1601 35th St., S.W., Washington, D. C.

American Heart Association, 370 Seventh Ave., New York, N. Y.

American Medical Association, Bureau of Health and Public Instruction, 535 N. Dearborn St., Chicago, Ill.

American Public Health Association, 370 Seventh Ave., New York, N. Y.

American Red Cross, Division Departments of Publicity, 17th St., N.W., Washington, D. C.
American Social Hygiene Association, 370 Seventh Ave., New York, N. Y.
American Society for Control of Cancer, Inc., 25 W. 43rd St., New York, N. Y.
Eye Sight Conservation Council, Times Bldg., New York, N. Y.
Life Extension Institute, 25 W. 43rd St., New York, N. Y.
National Committee on Mental Hygiene, 370 Seventh Ave., New York, N. Y.
National Society for the Prevention of Blindness, 370 Seventh Ave., New York, N. Y.
National Tuberculosis Association, 370 Seventh Ave., New York, N. Y.
Young Men's Christian Association, National Council, 347 Madison Ave., New York, N. Y.
Young Women's Christian Association, 600 Lexington Ave., New York, N. Y.
Bureau of Education, United States Department of the Interior, Washington, D. C.
Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor, Washington, D. C.
Women's Bureau, United States Department of Labor, Washington, D. C.
United States Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Home Economics, Washington, D. C.
United States Public Health Service, Treasury Department, Washington, D. C.
State Health Departments.
Local Health Departments (especially those of large cities).

II. Textbooks for History Classes

World History.

The following three books provide a quick survey of the world events and developments which lead up to and form a background for the study of American history.

Beard, Charles A., and Bagley, William C. *Our Old World Background.* Rev. ed. The Macmillan Co., New York, N. Y., 1925.

Fairly simple. Leads up to the book on American history by the same authors mentioned below.

Clark, Marion G., and Gordy, W. F. *Westward Toward America.* Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York, N. Y., 1929.

A fourth grade text in very simple language with a few juvenile features but sufficiently adult in most respects. World history from prehistoric times to the American colonization.

Burnham, Smith. *Our Beginnings in Europe and America; How Civilization Grew in the Old World and Came to the New.* The John C. Winston Co., Philadelphia, Pa., 1930.

A fairly simple sixth grade text interestingly written and in attractive format. From prehistoric times.

American History.

Beard, Charles A., and Bagley, William C. *A First Book in American History.* The Macmillan Co., New York, N. Y., 1924.

Historically, one of the best. Quite simple, readable, interesting and in attractive format.

Gordy, Wilbur F. *Elementary History of the United States.* Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York, N. Y., 1928.

Another good book noteworthy for its content, simplicity, good format, and emphasis on daily life of the people, social conditions, personalities, and scientific and industrial advances.

Tappan, Eva M. *An Elementary History of Our Country.* Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, Mass., 1928.

A good brief text for fifth and sixth grades in narrative style.

Coddington, Elizabeth C., and Long, William J. *Our Country; A First Book of American History.* Ginn & Co., Boston, Mass., 1929.

Aims at holding the pupil's interest with a swiftly moving narrative style and with a considerable use of biography. Uses a fairly simple vocabulary.

McMaster, John B. *A Primary History of the United States.* The American Book Co., New York, N. Y., 1929.

Not quite as simple as some of the foregoing but a good, brief, straightforward history text.

Halleck, Reuben Post. *History of Our Country for Higher Grades.* The American Book Co., New York, N. Y., 1929.

A longer text of unusual merit, perhaps too difficult to be read by the student but a good source for simplified adaptations by the instructor.

III. Textbooks for Geography Classes

The grade school texts listed below combine the following features: language that is fairly simple and sufficiently adult, socialized subject matter, a large amount of interesting illustration, the usual maps, and good format and type.

Smith, J. Russell. *Human Geography.* Book I, *Peoples and Countries;* Book II, *Countries, Regions and Trade.* The John C. Winston Co., Philadelphia, Pa., 1925, 1930.

Dodge, Richard E., and Lackey, E. E. *Elementary Geography.* Rand McNally Co., Chicago, Ill., 1927.

Brigham, Albert P., and McFarlane, Charles T. *Essentials of Geography.* First Book. The American Book Co., New York, N. Y., 1925.

Atwood, W. W., and Thomas, H. G. *The Earth and Its People.* Higher Book. (Third and fourth years.) Ginn & Co., Boston, Mass., 1930.

IV. Textbooks for Arithmetic Classes

There are probably no arithmetic textbooks specifically adapted to the needs of adult beginners. There are a few brief sections on arithmetic in some of the texts for native- and foreign-born illiterates mentioned under the general heading of Textbooks for English Classes in this Appendix. In devising homemade material for arithmetic classes, the instructor will best follow the suggestions given on pages 91 to 107 and pages 219 to 222 of the *Manual for Teachers of Adult Illiterates* by William S. Gray.* On page 107 of this Manual several grammar school textbooks in arithmetic are mentioned which will serve as sources for adaptations of material.

A few mathematics books of special character, useful with more advanced classes, are:

Palmer, C. I. *Practical Mathematics.* Part I—Arithmetic; Part II—Algebra; Part III—Geometry; Part IV—Trigonometry and Logarithms. McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, N. Y.

* See Chapter VI.

Bromley, Charles H., and Cobleigh, H. R. *Mathematics for the Practical Engineer.* McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, N. Y.

Howe, George. *Mathematics for the Practical Man.* D. Van Nostrand & Co., New York, N. Y.

Algebra, geometry, trigonometry, logarithms, calculus, briefly covered for evening school classes.

Slade, Samuel, and Margolis, L. *Mathematics for Technical and Vocational Schools.* John Wiley & Sons, New York, N. Y.

Marsh, H. W. *Industrial Mathematics.* John Wiley & Sons, New York, N. Y.

Cushman, Frank. *Mathematics and the Machinist's Job.* John Wiley & Sons, New York, N. Y.

Johnson, James F. *Practical Shop Mechanics and Mathematics.* John Wiley & Sons, New York, N. Y.

Keal, H. M., and Leonard, C. J. *Mathematics for Electrical Students.* John Wiley & Sons, New York, N. Y.

Keal, H. M., and Leonard, C. J. *Mathematics for Shop and Drawing Students.* John Wiley & Sons, New York, N. Y.

Norris, E. B., and Smith, K. G. *Shop Mathematics.* McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, N. Y.

Ray, H. B., and others. *Preparatory Mathematics for the Building Trade.* John Wiley & Sons, New York, N. Y.

Edgerton, E. R., and Bartholomew, W. *Business Mathematics.* Ronald Press Co., New York, N. Y.

Smith, Oliver S. *Smith's Arithmetic of Business.* Lyons and Carnahan, Chicago, Ill.

Goff, T. T. *Self-Proving Business Arithmetic.* The Macmillan Co., New York, N. Y.

Mansfield, J. E. *Everyday Arithmetic for Printers.* McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, N. Y.

V. Spellers

The following spelling books are based on one or more of the various lists of most commonly used words as determined by several well-known experimenters in this field. A brief bibliography of these several spelling scales is given on page 91 of the *Manual for Teachers of Adult Illiterates* by William S. Gray.* The spelling books below are all in attractive format.

Smith, James H., and Bagley, William C. *Mastery Word List.* Grades 2 to 8. D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, Mass. 1929.

Pearson, Henry C., and Suzallo, Henry. *Essentials of Spelling.* American Book Co., New York, N. Y., 1924.

Kyte, George C. *Modern Methods Speller.* Silver, Burdett & Co., New York, N. Y., 1930.

Jones, W. Franklin. *The Jones' Complete Course in Spelling; for Second to Eighth Years Inclusive.* Hall & McCreary Co., Chicago, Ill., 1924.

* See also section of appendix on Intelligence and Achievement Tests.

APPENDIX VI

INTELLIGENCE AND ACHIEVEMENT TESTS

It should be borne in mind that an untrained person can give some of the standard intelligence and achievement tests by following the directions closely, but that the exact interpretation of the results requires expert technique. This is particularly true of those tests which are designed primarily for children and which are used with adults only because no more suitable tests are available. Every institution which proposes to test its inmates should make arrangements for at least the part-time services of a competent psychologist. Arrangements for this service can sometimes be made through the state university. Some of the larger institutions are recognizing the need of having a full-time psychologist on the staff.

It should also be remembered that tests indicate the probable position of the person tested in the intelligence and achievement scale, but that they do not present conclusive evidence. They do not indicate the rapidity with which the person tested can progress or the exact level to which he has risen or can rise. They do not detect defects of hearing and sight and other impediments which may delay progress measurably. There are, furthermore, many cases of prisoners who are suffering from personality defects, psychopathic trends and emotional imbalances which make it impossible for them to carry on educational work satisfactorily. We have therefore a more complex problem than that of merely determining intelligence and achievement

levels by scientific tests. In spite of the necessity of taking into account factors which are not readily measurable and the further necessity for expert interpretation of test results, however, intelligence tests and achievement tests have unquestionable value for the prison educator.

A list of standard tests of recognized value follows. Each institution should secure the catalog of the World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y. This company publishes a large number of tests and sells those of most other publishers. The catalog gives prices, directions for ordering, etc. One of the best books covering the interpretation of tests and the statistical meanings and methods involved is *Interpretation of Educational Measurements*, by T. L. Kelley. (World Book Co., 1927.) This book lists a large number of tests, estimates their usefulness, reliability, grade level and so on, and contains information on costs and publishers. A similar book on the high school level is Ruch and Stoddard: *Tests and Measurements in High School Instruction*. (World Book Co., 1927.)

Without belittling the value of the other tests listed, it is believed that the penal institution will find the Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon Intelligence Scale the most useful of the intelligence tests. This is an individual test and it is desirable to give first some such test as the Dearborn Group Test of Intelligence, and to give the Stanford-Binet only if the group test indicates that a further check on the individual is needed. The Stanford Achievement Test is believed to be better adapted to institutional use than any other. There are a number of other excellent achievement batteries, however, and the educational director can make up a battery by combining tests in various fields: for example, combining the Thorndike-McCall Reading Scales, the Woody-McCall Mixed Fundamentals (arithmetic test), and the Morrison-McCall Spelling Scales.

In the following list of tests those starred (*) were given the highest median rating by a group of seven recognized experts in a list published by Dr. Kelley in the work cited above. The following list, however, does not follow the Kelley list exactly. A number of the tests included have already been used successfully in penal institutions by trained psychologists or educators with special training in testing. The subjects under which tests are listed are only a part of the many fields in which they are available.

General Intelligence Tests—Primary

*Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon Intelligence Scale. Individual
*Pintner-Cunningham Primary Mental Test
*Park-Franzen Primary Test
Dearborn Group Test of Intelligence
Otis Group Intelligence Scale; Primary Examination

General Intelligence Tests—Elementary

*Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon Intelligence Scale. Individual
*National Intelligence Test (Parts A and B)
Dearborn Group Test of Intelligence
Otis Self-Administering Tests of Mental Ability: Intermediate Examination
Otis Group Intelligence Scale
Illinois General Intelligence Scale
Pintner Non-Language Mental and Educational Survey Tests
Thorndike Standard Group Examination of Intelligence Independent of Language

General Intelligence Tests—Upper Grades

*Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon Intelligence Scale. Individual
*Terman Group Test of Mental Ability
Otis Group Intelligence Scale
National Intelligence Test (Parts A and B)
Army Group Intelligence Scale—Alpha. Forms 5 to 9

Achievement Batteries—Elementary

*Stanford Achievement Test
Otis Classification Test
Illinois Examination
Courtis Standard Tests: Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic

Achievement Batteries—Upper Grades

*Stanford Achievement Test
Otis Classification Test
Trabue Mentimeters School Group 2 A

Reading Tests—Primary

*Haggerty Reading Examination Sigma 1
Detroit Group Test in Word Recognition
Pressey First Grade Attainment Scale in Reading

Reading Tests—Elementary

*Thorndike-McCall Reading Scales
*Stanford Reading Test
Thorndike Test of Word Knowledge
Thorndike Visual Vocabulary
Haggerty Reading Examination Sigma 3
Monroe Standardized Silent Reading Tests, Revised
Burgess Reading Test

Completion Test Language Scales Alpha and Beta
Courtis Silent Reading Test No. 2

Reading Tests—Upper Grade

*Thorndike-McCall Reading Scales
Stanford Reading Test

Spelling Tests—Elementary

*Morrison-McCall Spelling Scale
Iowa Spelling Scales
Stanford Dictation Test
Sixteen Spelling Scales (Briggs et al.)
Ayres Spelling Scale
Buckingham Extension of Ayres Scale
Starch Spelling Lists

Spelling Tests—Upper Grades

*Sixteen Spelling Scales (Briggs et al.)
Stanford Dictation Test
Morrison-McCall Spelling Scale

Language Usage Tests—Elementary

*Stanford Language Usage Test
Charters Diagnostic Language Test
Charters Diagnostic Language and Grammar Test
Pressey-Ruhlen Diagnostic Tests in English Composition (punctuation)

Language Usage Tests—Upper Grades

*Charters Diagnostic Language and Grammar Test
Stanford Language Usage Test
Wilson Language Error Test

Arithmetic Tests—Elementary

*Stanford Arithmetic Test
Buckingham Scale for Problems in Arithmetic
Woody Arithmetic Scales
Woody-McCall Mixed Fundamentals
Woody-Van Wagenen Arithmetic Scales
Monroe Diagnostic Arithmetic Test
Spencer Diagnostic Arithmetic Test

Arithmetic Tests—Upper Grades

*Stanford Arithmetic Test
Buckingham Scale for Problems in Arithmetic
Otis Arithmetic Reasoning Test

General Science Test—Elementary

*Stanford Science Information Test (Individual)

General Science Tests—Upper Grades

*Ruch-Popenoe General Science Test
Stanford Science Information Test

Geography Tests—Elementary and Upper Grades

*Posey-Van Wagenen Geography Scales
*Spencer-Gregory Geography Test

American History Tests—Elementary

*Stanford History and Literature Information Test
Hahn History Scales

American History Tests—Upper Grades

*Van Wagenen American History Scales
Stanford History and Literature Information Test

Elementary to High School Writing Scales

*Ayres Handwriting Scale, Gettysburg Edition
Thorndike Handwriting Scale
Freeman Chart for diagnosing faults in handwriting
Courtis Standard Practice Tests in Handwriting

Sundry Tests

The Teachers Word Book (Thorndike, E. L.)
Blackstone Stenographic Proficiency Tests
Home Economics Information Test (Teachers College, Columbia University)
Thurstone Vocational Guidance Tests
Woodworth Psychiatric Questionnaire

APPENDIX VII

AIDS IN THE FIELD OF VISUAL INSTRUCTION

Sources of Visual Material

In the preparation of the following lists use has been made of the index of producers and distributors in *1000 and One, The Blue Book of Non-Theatrical Films,* published by *The Educational Screen,* and of the bibliography published by Prof. Joseph J. Weber, to a greater extent than of any other sources. Acknowledgment is here made of the courtesy of *The Educational Screen* and Prof. Weber in permitting this use.

Many of the producers and distributors listed supply sound films and equipment as well as the silent type.

Sources starred (*) are known to supply some material "free." This usually means that the user pays transportation charges; other stipulations are sometimes made.

It is suggested that institutions write to each agency listed for its catalog. Post cards may be printed or mimeographed in the following form (they do not need to be signed):

> It is requested that your catalogs and other publications describing all visual material of an educational nature which you produce or distribute be forwarded to
>
> The Warden,
> U. S. Penitentiary,
> Atlanta, Ga.

Films, Slides, Film Slides, Etc.

Acme Sound Products Corp., 35 E. Wacker Drive, Chicago, Ill.

*Air Reduction Sales Co., 342 Madison Ave., New York, N. Y. Oxygen.

*Ajax Electrothermic Corporation, Trenton, N. J. High frequency furnaces.

Ameranglo Corporation, 701 Seventh Ave., New York, N. Y. Educational.

American Abrasive Metals Co., 50 Church St., New York, N. Y. Safety.

American Boy, The, 550 Lafayette Blvd., Detroit, Mich. Airplanes.

*American Farm Bureau Federation, 58 E. Washington St., Chicago, Ill.

*American Foundry Equipment Co., Mishawaka, Ind. Modern foundry practice.

*American Museum of Natural History, Dept. of Public Education, 77th St. and Central Park West, New York, N. Y.

*American Optical Co., Southbridge, Mass. Eyes.

*American Rolling Mill Co., Middletown, O. Industrial.

*American Social Hygiene Association, 370 Seventh Ave., New York, N. Y. Social hygiene.

*American Society for Control of Cancer, 25 W. 43rd St., New York, N. Y. Health.

*American Steel and Wire Company, 208 S. La Salle St., Chicago, Ill. Wire rope, laying cable, piano, pipe organ, harp.

*American Telephone and Telegraph Co. (See Bell Telephone Co.)

Amkino Corporation, Educational Film Dept., 723 Seventh Ave., New York, N. Y. Russian educational films.

Apollo Film Co., 286 Market St., Newark, N. J. Beseler films.

Arc Film Co., 729 Seventh Ave., New York, N. Y. Religious.

*Armour and Co., Union Stock Yards, Chicago, Ill. Processing of ham.

Atlantic Motion Picture Service Co., 739 Boylston St., Boston, Mass. Macmillan Arctic films and others.

Atlas Educational Film Co., 1111 S. Boulevard, Oak Park, Ill. Industrial.

*Auburn Automobile Company, Auburn, Ind. Automotive practices.

Audio-Cinema, Inc., 161 Harris Ave., Long Island City, N. Y. Wide range, including "Principles of Electricity" series and health films.

*Bakelite Corporation, 247 Park Ave., New York, N. Y. Bakelite.

Baltimore Dairy Council, Baltimore, Md. Food.

Bell and Howell Co., 1801 Larchmont Ave., Chicago, Ill., and 11 W. 42nd St., New York, N. Y. Educational.

*Bell Telephone Company (apply nearest office). Safety, telephoning, telegraphing, television, industries, civics.

Bloch, Samuel A., 152 W. 42nd St., New York, N. Y. Medicine and hygiene.

Bollman, Henry, 201 W. 49th St., New York, N. Y. Educational.

Bray Productions, Inc., Educational Dept., 729 Seventh Ave., New York, N. Y. High grade scientific films: general science, science of life, auto-mechanics, etc.

Bray Screen Products Film Library, 130 W. 46th St., New York, N. Y. See above.

Brown, H. S., 806 S. Wabash Ave., Chicago, Ill. Educational and religious.

*Buffalo Society of Natural Sciences, Buffalo, N. Y. (Slides.)

*Bureau of Commercial Economics, 1108 Sixteenth St., Washington, D. C. (Not a government bureau.) Wide range.

*Burton Holmes Lectures, Inc., 7510 N. Ashland Ave., Chicago, Ill. Travel.

*California Fruit Growers Exchange, Box 530, Station C, Los Angeles, Cal. Citrus industry.

Canadian Government Motion Picture Bureau, Ottawa, Ontario, Can.

Carlson Studios, 3810 Broadway, Chicago, Ill. Produce only to order, specializing in animated drawings.

*Carnation Milk Products Co., Oconomowoc, Wis. Milk.

Carter Cinema Producing Corp., 551 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y. Industry, health, science, scenic.

*Carter's Ink Co., Cambridge 41, Boston, Mass. Industrial and educational.

*Case Threshing Machine Co., Racine, Wis. Agricultural implements.

Castle Films, 630 Ninth Ave., New York, N. Y. Semi-educational and novelty.

*Caterpillar Tractor Co., San Leandro, Cal. Industrial and educational.

Central Film Co., 729 Seventh Ave., New York, N. Y. General.

*Cereal Soaps, Inc., 334 E. 27th St., New York, N. Y. Care of hair.

*Chicago Public Library, Chicago, Ill. Extensive collection of slides.

*Chicago Film Laboratory, Inc., 1322 Belmont Ave., Chicago, Ill. Educational and industrial.

*Church and School Film Exchange, 315 Polk Bldg., Des Moines, Iowa. Educational and religious.

*Church Film Co., 28 Piedmont St., Boston, Mass. Health, religious, industrial and educational.

*John P. Cochran Co., Nottingham Rd. & Nickel Plate Ry., Cleveland, O. Paint and varnish.

*Colgate-Palmolive-Peet Corp., Palmolive Bldg., Chicago, Ill. Modern dental practice.

Colonial Dames of America, National Society of., 942 Lake Shore Drive, Chicago, Ill. Americanization.

Columbia Pictures, 1600 Broadway, New York, N. Y. Primarily theatrical.

*Commercial Museum, Philadelphia, Pa. Geography, commerce, transportation.

*Common Brick Mfg. Assn. of America, Cleveland, O. Brick.

*Consolidated Film Industries, 1776 Broadway, New York, N. Y. Health, home economics.

*Continental Scale Co., Claremont Ave., Chicago, Ill. Health-O-Meter and reduction of weight.

Co-operative Film Exchange, 284 Turk St., San Francisco, Cal.

*Corticelli Silk Company, 136 Madison Ave., New York, N. Y. Silk.

*Cyclone Fence Co., Waukegan, Ill. Fencing.

*Davis, H. O., 106 S. Hudson St., Oklahoma City, Okla. General, including religious and industrial.

*Davis and Geck, 217 Duffield St., Brooklyn, N. Y. Surgical.

*DeFrenes and Co., Wilkes-Barre, Pa. Industrial.

Detroit Publishing Co., Detroit, Mich. Slides of American scenes and architecture. Cat. 10¢.

DeVry Corporation (see QRS-DeVry Corporation).
Ditmars, Raymond L., c/o New York Zoölogical Society, New York, N. Y. Living natural history.
*Dodge Brothers, Inc., Detroit, Mich. Automobiles.
Dudley, Prof. Wm. H., 736 S. Wabash Ave., Chicago, Ill. Large collection of slides.
*E. I. DuPont de Nemours & Co., Inc., Wilmington, Del. Industrial.
Eastman Kodak Co., "Kodak Cinegraphs," Rochester, N. Y. Educational.
Eastman Educational Slides, Iowa City, Iowa.
Eastman Teaching Films, Inc., 343 State St., Rochester, N. Y. Classroom and medical, former with teaching outlines.
*Edison Lamp Works, Harrison, N. J. Safety.
Edited Pictures System, Inc., 130 W. 46th St., New York, N. Y. General.
*Educational Equipment Co., 1913 A, Commerce St., Dallas, Tex. General.
Educational Film Exchanges, 1501 Broadway, New York, N. Y. Primarily theatrical.
*Educational Museum, St. Louis, Mo.
Electrical Research Products, Inc., 250 W. 57th St., New York, N. Y. Educational.
Ellis, Carlyle, 130 W. 46th St., New York, N. Y. Health and social service.
Eye Gate House, Inc., 126 W. 46th St., New York, N. Y. General.
Film Classic Exchange, 265 Franklin St., Buffalo, N. Y. Educational.
First National Pictures, Inc., 321 W. 44th St., New York, N. Y. Primarily theatrical.
Fitzpatrick Pictures, Inc., 729 Seventh Ave., New York, N. Y. Music.

*Ford Motion Picture Laboratories, Detroit, Mich. History, geography, industry, cities, sanitation, health, civics, citizenship, agriculture and many other subjects.
Fox Film Corporation, 850 Tenth Ave., New York, N. Y. Primarily theatrical.
Frank R. Church Films, 6558 Pinehaven Dr., Oakland, Cal. Industries and educational.
Fruit of the Loom Mills, 40 Worth St., New York, N. Y. Industrial.
Ganz, William J., 507 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y. Commercial, industrial, educational, news.
*General Electric Co., 1 River Road, Schenectady, N. Y. Science, industry and education. (Both silent and sound films. Also slides.)
General Vision Company, 104 W. 42nd St., New York, N. Y.
Geography Supply Bureau, 314 College Ave., Ithaca, N. Y. (Slides.)
Gibson Studios, Casselton, N. D. Educational.
*Ginn and Co., 15 Ashburton Pl., Boston, Mass. Bookmaking.
*Goodyear Tire and Rubber Co., Akron, O. Rubber industry and related fields.
Gowen, Robert F., Ossining-on-Hudson, N. Y. Amateur motion picture service.
*Hanna Engineering Works, 1765 Elston Ave., Chicago, Ill. Riveted steel.
*Harcol Motion Picture Industries, 610 Baronne St., New Orleans, La. Industries, health and religious.
*Hastings Motion Picture, Inc., Hastings, Mich. General.
*Hercules Powder Co., Wilmington, Del. Turpentine, electric blasting, manufacture of blasting caps, explosives.

*Hollywood Film Enterprises, 6060 Sunset Blvd., Hollywood, Cal. Educational.

Home Film Libraries, Inc., 1845 Grand Central Terminal, New York, N. Y. Miscellaneous.

Holy Land Film Co., 110 W. 8th St., Cincinnati, O. "Pilgrimage to Holy Land" series. Distributed only by Pathé.

*Homestead Films, 732 S. Wabash Ave., Chicago, Ill. General, mostly agricultural.

*Ideal Pictures Corporation, 26 E. 8th St., Chicago, Ill., and 321 Loeb Arcade Bldg., Minneapolis, Minn. Religious and educational.

Illustrated Current News, Inc., Dept. V., New Haven, Conn. (Slides.)

*Industrial Film Service, 1126 Boylston St., Boston, Mass. Industrial.

*Institute of Makers of Explosives, 103 Park Ave., New York, N. Y. Safety.

International Artprints, 59 E. Madison St., Chicago, Ill.

*International Correspondence Schools, Scranton, Pa. Educational.

International Dental Health Foundation for Children, Inc., 130 East End Ave., New York, N. Y. Dental health and nutrition.

*International Harvester Company of America, Inc., 606 S. Michigan Ave., Chicago, Ill. Agriculture, home economics, canning, dairying, poultry raising, lumbering, manufacture, etc.

*Kalamazoo Vegetable Parchment Co., Kalamazoo, Mich. Paper.

*Keuffel and Esser Co., Hoboken, N. J. Trigonometry.

Keystone View Co., Meadville, Pa. (Slides and stereographs.)

Kleine, George, 804 S. Wabash Ave., Chicago, Ill. Classic pictures: "Cæsar," etc.

Kleinschmidt, Captain F. E., 220 W. 42nd St., New York, N. Y. Far North.

Kodascope Libraries, Inc., 33 W. 42nd St., New York, N. Y. Educational. (Largest existing library of 16 mm. films.)

*Leggett, J. Alexander, Co., 2 W. 46th St., New York, N. Y. Lenox China, The Historic Hudson, crackers, cookies, cakes, musical instruments.

Liberty Mutual Insurance Co., Park Square Bldg., Boston, Mass. Industrial safety.

*Long-Bell Lumber Co., Kansas City, Mo. Lumber, building.

*Los Angeles, Cal., Department of Public Instruction. Citizenship.

*Massey-Harris Co., Racine, Wis. Tractors and other farm implements.

*Master Builders Co., 7016 Euclid Ave., Cleveland, O. Flooring.

McCrum, Dr. Thomas B., 4144 Charlotte St., Kansas City, Mo. Care of teeth.

McCurdy Films, 56th and Woodland Ave., Philadelphia, Pa. Industrial and educational.

McIntosh Stereopticon Co., Inc., 549 W. Randolph St., Chicago, Ill. (Slides.)

*Methodist Episcopal Church, Board of Education, 740 Rush St., Chicago, Ill. Methodist educational enterprises.

Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer, 1540 Broadway, New York, N. Y. Primarily theatrical.

*Metropolitan Life Insurance Co., 1 Madison Ave., New York, N. Y. Health.

Metropolitan Motion Picture Company, 108 W. 34th St., New York, N. Y. Educational.

*Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York, N. Y.

Michigan Film Library, 2310 Cass Ave., Detroit, Mich. Educational.

Midwest Educational Film Service, W.C.U. Bldg., Quincy, Ill., and 3308 Olive St., St. Louis, Mo.

*Modern Woodmen of America, Rock Island, Ill. Health, scenic, nature and history of M. W. A.

Movie Makers, Inc., 110 W. 8th St., Cincinnati, O. Distributors for Kodoscope Library. Also industrial.

*Muir, James C., and Co., 10 S. 18th St., Philadelphia, Pa. Industrial, geographic, scenic.

Mutual Film Laboratory, 1737 N. Campbell Ave., Chicago, Ill.

*National American Red Cross, Washington, D. C. Red Cross activities.

*National Assn. of Audubon Societies, 1974 Broadway, New York, N. Y. Birds and mammals. (Slides.)

*National Automatic Sprinkler Assn., 80 Maiden Lane, New York, N. Y. Fire control.

*National Cash Register Co., Dayton, O. Health, thrift, industry.

National Child Welfare Association, 70 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y. Character.

*National Dairy Council, 221 N. La Salle St., Chicago, Ill. Dairy and health subjects.

*National Film Corp., 2510 Cass Ave., Detroit, Mich. Educational.

National Health Council, 370 Seventh Ave., New York, N. Y. Health.

National Geographic Society, Washington, D. C. (Slides made to order.)

National Motion Picture Bureau, 25 Pemberton Sq., Boston, Mass. Industrial and educational.

National Motion Pictures Co., Holliday Bldg., Indianapolis, Ind., Health and safety.

*National Safe Walkway Surfaces Code, 29 W. 39th St., New York, N. Y. Safety.

*National Safety Council, 20 N. Wacker Dr., Chicago, Ill. Health, safety, industry.

National Studios, Inc., 226 W. 56th St., New York, N. Y. (Slides.)

National Tuberculosis Association, 370 Seventh Ave., New York, N. Y. Health.

Neighborhood Motion Picture Service, Inc., New York, N. Y. "Romance of the Republic" series and others.

New York Central Lines, 639 LaSalle St., Chicago, Ill. Milk, transportation.

New York State Dept. of Education, Albany, N. Y. Visual Instruction Div. Elaborate outlines for teaching, and slides.

*Northern Pacific Railway, St. Paul, Minn. Educational and scenic pictures of the Northwest.

Paramount-Famous-Lasky Corp., Paramount Bldg., Times Sq., New York, N. Y. Primarily theatrical.

Parthenon Pictures, 1650 Broadway, New York, N. Y. Africa.

Pathé Exchange, Inc., 35 W. 45th St., New York, N. Y. Wide range, including Yale photoplays.

Pathegrams, Pathé Exchange, 35 W. 45th St., New York, N. Y. Educational.

Peabody, Henry G., P. O. Box 111, Pasadena, Cal. National Parks.

*Pennsylvania Motor Federation, Front & Market Sts., Harrisburg, Pa. Pennsylvania's historic shrines, scenic spots, highways, transportation.

*Pennsylvania State Library and Museum, Harrisburg, Pa. (Slides.)
*Phoenix Chair Co., Sheboygan, Wis. Manufacture of chairs.
Phoenix Photoplay Exchange of America, 130 W. 46th St., New York, N. Y. Religious and civic.
Pictorial Clubs, Inc., 35 W. 45th St., New York, N. Y. Religious and educational.
*Picture Service Corp., 71 W. 23rd St., New York, N. Y. Health, printing.
Pinkney Film Service, 1028 Forbes St., Pittsburgh, Pa. Educational.
Plymouth Film Corporation, 156 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y. Temperance and religious.
Portland Cement Assn., 111 W. Washington St., Chicago, Ill.
Protecto Films, Inc., 105 W. 40th St., New York, N. Y. Educational and religious.
*Prudence Co., 331 Madison Ave., New York, N. Y. Thrift education.
*Pycopé, Inc., Joplin, Mo. Dental health.
QRS-DeVry Corporation, 333 N. Michigan Ave., Chicago, Ill. Wide range. Organized courses in many subjects: citizenship, nature study, geography, health, science, etc. Teacher manuals with each.
*Quaker Oats Co., School Health Service, 141 W. Jackson Blvd., Chicago, Ill. Industrial.
Quality Distributing Corporation, 1540 Broadway, New York, N. Y. Mainly entertainment.
RKO Distributing Corp., 1560 Broadway, New York, N. Y. Primarily theatrical.
*Ray-Bell Films, Inc., 817 University Ave., St. Paul, Minn. Civics, geography, health, industry, science.

R-D-C Productions, Southbridge, Mass. Primarily theatrical.
*Relay Motors Corporation, Lima, O. Motors.
Religious Motion Picture Foundation, 140 Nassau St., New York, N. Y. Religious.
Reynolds, Ernest M., 165 E. 191st St., Cleveland, O. Geographic and scenic.
Rhinelander Refrigerator Co., Rhinelander, Wis. Refrigeration.
Riegel, Vernon M., Grand Theatre Bldg., Columbus, O. General.
Roosevelt Memorial Association Film Library, 28 E. 20th St., New York, N. Y. Roosevelt series, history and biography.
*Rothacker Film Corporation, 113 W. Austin Ave., Chicago, Ill. Rubber industry, safety, testing automobiles, cattle and packing industries, preparation of cereals, baking powder, etc.
*Rowland Rogers Productions, 74 Sherman St., Long Island City, N. Y. Health, science, industry.
*Shure-On Optical Co., Geneva, N. Y. Modern optics.
Sims Visual Music Co., Quincy, Ill. (Song slides.)
*Singer Sewing Machine Co., Singer Bldg., New York, N. Y. Sewing by modern methods.
Society for Visual Education, Inc., 327 S. LaSalle St., Chicago, Ill. General, educational. (Picturols.)
Spencer Lens Co., 442 Niagara St., Buffalo, N. Y. (Slides and filmslides.)
Spiro Film Corporation, 161 Harris Ave., Long Island City, N. Y. General education, travel, science, etc. Urban popular classics.
Standard Film Service, 600 Film Bldg., Cleveland, O. Educational: Bray, Castle and others.
Standard Motion Picture Service, 1906 S. Vermont Ave.,

Los Angeles, and 177 Golden Gate Ave., San Francisco, Cal. Educational.

Standard Oil Co. of Indiana, 910 S. Michigan Ave., Chicago, Ill. Lubrication of modern machinery.

Standard Slide Corp., Broadway & 48th St., New York, N. Y. (Slides.)

Stanley Educational Film Division, 220 W. 42nd St., New York, N. Y. Transportation.

Stark Films, 219 W. Center St., Baltimore, Md. Industrial and educational.

*State Departments of Agriculture.

*State Departments of Education.

*State Departments of Health.

*State Departments, Miscellaneous: Commerce, Fish and Game, Forestry, Highways, Labor, Mines, Welfare, etc.

*State Museums: Historical, Natural History, etc.

*State University Extension Divisions. (See Table 1 in *College and University Extension Helps in Adult Education,* U. S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1930, No. 10, for list of colleges, universities, agricultural schools, etc., supplying visual material.) An especially rich source of material, much of it "free."

Stillfilm Incorporated, 1052 Cahuenga Ave., Hollywood, Cal.

Stone, George E., Carmel, Monterey County, Cal. Biological.

*Studebaker Corporation of America, The, South Bend, Ind. Automobile industry.

*Stuebing Cowan Co., The, Holyoke, Mass., and Cincinnati, O. Industrial.

Talking Picture Epics, Inc., 11 W. 42nd St., New York, N. Y. Travel and science. All sound.

*Thompson, Howard E., 15 Newkirk Ave., Trenton, N. J. General.

Tiffany Productions, Inc., 729 Seventh Ave., New York, N. Y. Primarily theatrical.

Tone-O-Graph, 1540 Broadway, New York, N. Y. Sound versions of UFA's educational films on biology, zoölogy, astronomy, electricity, psychology, drama and travel.

UFA Films, 1540 Broadway, New York, N. Y. Remarkable films of German production.

*Underwriters' Laboratories, 207 E. Ohio St., Chicago, Ill. Fire prevention.

United Artists, 729 Seventh Ave., New York, N. Y. Primarily theatrical.

*United Projector and Film Corp., 228 Franklin St., Buffalo, N. Y., and 1112 Keenan Bldg., Pittsburgh, Pa. Educational, religious and classic.

*United States Bureau of Education, Department of the Interior, Washington, D. C.

*United States Bureau of Fisheries, Department of Commerce, Washington, D. C.

*United States Bureau of Mines, Experiment Station, Pittsburgh, Pa.

*United States Bureau of Reclamation, Department of the Interior, Washington, D. C.

*United States Bureau of Standards, Washington, D. C. Aviation, automobiles, etc.

*United States Children's Bureau, Department of Labor, Washington, D. C. Child health and welfare.

*United States Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C. Every phase of agricultural work, also forestry, highway construction and wild life conservation.

*United States National Park Service, Department of the Interior, Washington, D. C.

*United States Navy Department, Washington, D. C.
*United States Navy Recruiting Bureau, Washington & Christopher Sts., New York, N. Y. All phases of navy life.
*United States Public Health Service, Department of the Treasury, Washington, D. C.
*United States War Department, Surgeon General's Office, Washington, D. C.
*United States Women's Bureau, Department of Labor, Washington, D. C.
*United States Steel Corporation, Bureau of Safety, Sanitation and Welfare, 71 Broadway, New York, N. Y. Industry, health, welfare.
Universal Film Exchanges, Inc., 730 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y. Primarily theatrical.
University Film Foundation, 40 Oxford St., Cambridge, Mass.
*Venard, C. L., 702 S. Adams St., Peoria, Ill. Prairie Farmer films.
Veritas Films, 829 Harrison St., Oakland, Cal. Educational.
*Victor Animatograph Company, Davenport, Iowa. Geography, health, industry, music, science. (Slides.)
Visual Education Service, Inc., Carmel, Monterey County, Cal. (Slides and stereographs.)
*Visualizit, Inc., 581 Peachtree St., Atlanta, Ga. Educational.
Visual Text Sales Co., 1268 S. Cranshaw Blvd., Los Angeles, Cal. Athletic films.
*Visugraphic Pictures, Inc., 247 Park Ave., New York, N. Y. Aviation, radio, vocational guidance and travelogues.
Warner Brothers, 321 W. 44th St., New York, N. Y. Primarily theatrical.

Welch, H. M., Co., 1516 Orleans St., Chicago, Ill. Science slides.
*Western Electric Co., 120 W. 41st St., New York, N. Y., and Hawthorne Works, Chicago, Ill. Electrical transmission of sound and general electrical subjects. (Both silent and sound films.)
*Westinghouse Electric and Manufacturing Co., East Pittsburgh, Pa., and First Nat'l Bank Bldg., San Francisco, Cal. Industrial and educational. (East of Denver write to headquarters; west of Denver write to San Francisco.)
*Wholesome Films Service, Inc., 42 Melrose St., Boston, Mass. Educational, religious, health and industrial.
Willoughbys, 110 W. 32nd St., New York, N. Y. Scenic and novelty.
Winston, John C., Co., 1006 Arch St., Philadelphia, Pa. Books.
Worcester Film Corp., 145 W. 45th St., New York, N. Y. Citizenship.
World Wide Pictures, 130 W. 46th St., New York, N. Y. Primarily theatrical. (Distribute through Educational Film Exchanges.)
Yale University Press Film Service, 386 Fourth Ave., New York, N. Y. Yale Chronicles of America photoplays and slides, and Yale Pageant of America slides.
*Young, Richard P., Film Productions, 635 Tujunga, Burbank, Cal. Scenic and industrial.
*Y.M.C.A., National Council of, Motion Picture Div., 120 W. 41st St., New York, N. Y. Practically all subjects.
*Y.W.C.A., National Board of, 600 Lexington Ave., New York, N. Y.

Projectors, Screens, and Other Equipment

MOTION PICTURE PROJECTORS

Acme Motion Picture Projector Co., 806 W. Washington Blvd., Chicago, Ill. (Acme.)
Ampro Corporation, 2839-51 N. Western Ave., Chicago, Ill. (Ampro.)
Bell and Howell Co., 1817 Larchmont Ave., Chicago, Ill. (Filmo, etc.)
DeVry Corporation. (See QRS-DeVry Corporation.)
Eastman Kodak Company, Rochester, N. Y. (Kodascope, etc.)
Electrical Research Products, Inc., 250 W. 57th St., New York, N. Y. (Subsidiary of Western Electric Co.)
Enterprise Optical Co., 504 W. Randolph St., Chicago, Ill. (Motiograph.)
General Electric Co., Schenectady, N. Y.
Graphoscope Company, Washington, D. C. (Graphoscope, Jr.)
Holmes Co., 718 N. Curtis St., Chicago, Ill. (Holmes.)
International Projector Co., 90 Gold St., New York, N. Y. (Acme, Simplex and Power's.)
Kolograph Co., Indianapolis, Ind. (Kolograph.)
QRS-DeVry Corporation, 333 N. Michigan Ave., Chicago, Ill. (DeVry.)
Safety Projector Company, Duluth, Minn. (Zenith, etc.)
Thompson, Howard E., 15 Newkirk Ave., Trenton, N. J.
United Cinema Co., 120 W. 41st St., New York, N. Y. (Cello.)
United Projector and Film Corp., 228 Franklin St., Buffalo, N. Y., and 1112 Keenan Bldg., Pittsburgh, Pa.
Victor Animatograph, Davenport, Ia. (Victor.)
Western Electric Co., 130 W. 46th St., New York, N. Y., and Hawthorne Works, Chicago Ill.

GLASS SLIDE PROJECTORS

Acme Motion Picture Projector Co., 806 W. Washington Blvd., Chicago, Ill. (Acme.)
Bausch & Lomb Optical Co., 688 St. Paul St., Rochester, N. Y. (Balopticon.)
DeVry Corporation. (See QRS-DeVry Corporation.)
Keystone View Co., Meadville, Pa. (Keystone Lantern.)
QRS-DeVry Corporation, 333 N. Michigan Ave., Chicago, Ill. (DeVry.)
Spencer Lens Company, 442 Niagara St., Buffalo, N. Y. (Spencer Delineascope, etc.)
Trans-Lux Daylight Picture Screen, 36 W. 44th St., New York, N. Y. (Trans-Lux Opaque.)
Victor Animatograph, Davenport, Ia. (Victor.)

FILM SLIDE (FILM STRIP) PROJECTORS

Bausch and Lomb Optical Co., 688 St. Paul St., Rochester, N. Y. (Balopticon, etc.)
James C. Muir & Co., 10 S. Eighteenth St., Philadelphia, Pa. (Filmascope, etc.)
Society for Visual Education, Inc., 327 S. LaSalle St., Chicago, Ill. (Picturol, etc.)
Spencer Lens Company, 442 Niagara St., Buffalo, N. Y. (Model M, etc.)
Victor Animatograph, Davenport, Ia. (Victor.)

GENERAL EQUIPMENT AND SUPPLIES

Acme Metallic Screen Co., New Washington, O.
Day-Lite Screen Co., 2715 N. Crawford Ave., Chicago, Ill. (Daylight screens.)
Eye Gate House, Inc., 126 W. 46th St., New York, N. Y.
Ideal Pictures Corp., 26 E. Eighth St., Chicago, Ill.
Maylite Corporation, Mayville, Wis. (Daylight screens.)

McIntosh Stereopticon Co., Inc., 549 W. Randolph St., Chicago, Ill.
Midwest Educational Film Service, W.C.U. Bldg., Quincy, Ill.
Monarch Theatre Supply Co., 154 E. Calhoun Ave., Memphis, Tenn.
Movie Makers, Inc., 110 W. 8th St., Cleveland, O.
Movie Supply Co., 844 S. Wabash Ave., Chicago, Ill.
Mutual Film Laboratory, 1737 N. Campbell Ave., Chicago, Ill.
National Theatre Supply Co., 624 S. Michigan Ave., Chicago, Ill.
Raven Screen Corporation, 1476 Broadway, New York, N. Y.
Rowland Rogers Picture Service, Inc., 74 Sherman St., Long Island City, N. Y.
Sanford Educational Film Service, 730 S. Wabash Ave., Chicago, Ill.
Standard Slide Corporation, 209 W. 48th St., New York, N. Y.
Chas. M. Stebbins Picture Supply Co., 1818 Wyandotte St., Kansas City, Mo.
Bernard Sullivan Co., 360 N. Michigan Ave., Chicago, Ill.
Thompson, Howard E., 15 Newkirk Ave., Trenton, N. J.
Visual Education Service, Inc., Carmel, Monterey County, Cal.

THE SELECTION OF PROJECTORS

No projector should be purchased until it has been demonstrated. Practically all companies are willing to arrange for demonstrations at institutions. There are on the market a number of projectors of such quality that the purchaser would not go far wrong in choosing any one of them.

Projectors fall generally into four classes: permanent, semiportable, light portable, and very light portable. Such machines as Simplex, Power's and Motiograph are examples of the first class. The Kolograph, Acme, Super-DeVry, etc., fall into the second class. The suitcase DeVry, Acme, Holmes, Cello, Kolograph, etc., are in the third class. The 16 mm. Eastman, DeVry, Victor, Bell and Howell and others are in the fourth class.

Among the best-known stereopticons and film slide projectors are those made by Bausch and Lomb, DeVry, Keystone and the Spencer Lens Company, although a number of other firms produce excellent projectors of this type. The Spencer Lens Company has an unusually good film slide attachment for its stereopticon. Among the best of the separate film slide (strip) projectors is the Picturol produced by the Society for Visual Education. Bausch and Lomb produce the best opaque projector.

Publications *

1000 and One, The Blue Book of Non-Theatrical Films. Published by *The Educational Screen,* 5 South Wabash Ave., Chicago, Ill. The most valuable single source of current information for the user of educational films. An authoritative compilation of films, classified by subjects, with distributors indicated, and with a concise review of each film by experts. Contains list of producers and distributors with brief notes on their films. Not merely a list of films of the year but also all those from previous editions that are most actively circulated. Price 75 cents. (To subscribers to *The Educational Screen,* 25 cents.)

The Educational Screen (including *Moving Picture Age*

* The first three publications are listed out of alphabetical order because of their importance.

and *Visual Education*), 5 South Wabash Ave., Chicago, Ill. The only magazine in the field of visual education. Invaluable for keeping up with current developments. Published every month except July and August. Subscription price, $2 a year ($3 for two years). In Canada, $2.50 ($4 for two years).

Bibliography on the Use of Visual Aids in Education, by Joseph J. Weber. The most exhaustive bibliography yet compiled in this field. Invaluable. Originally published in January to June, 1930, numbers of *The Educational Screen.* Now available in 12-page pamphlet from that publication. Price, 25 cents. (To subscribers, 15 cents.)

Freeman, Frank N., editor.—*Visual Education.* Chicago University Press, 1924. Price, $3.50. Report of series of elaborate studies made under grant from Commonwealth Fund. Thirteen expert contributors.

Hamilton, George E.—*How to Use Stereographs and Lantern Slides.* A 16-page pamphlet published by *The Educational Screen.* Price, 15 cents (to subscribers, 10 cents).

Hollis, A. P.—*Motion Pictures for Instruction.* Century, 1926. Price, $3. One of the most interesting and useful books in the field. Discusses types and uses of films, and technique of teaching; lists 40-, 80-, and 120-film libraries (35 mm. films only), and contains comprehensive list of films with descriptive notes.

Johnson, William H.—*Fundamentals in Visual Instruction.* Published by *The Educational Screen.* Cloth, price, $2 (to subscribers, $1.33). A concise and comprehensive manual for teachers. 104 pages.

National Academy of Visual Instruction: *Directory* of the leading directors of visual instruction, including many of the leading users of visual aids. Useful in obtaining expert aid and advice. Address the Executive Secretary, 1400 Oread Ave., Lawrence, Kan.

National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington, D. C. Publications of Visual Education Division.

Ohio Department of Education: *Visual Instruction Bulletin,* prepared by B. A. Aughinbaugh, Supervisor of Visual Instruction. Excellent bulletin on visual material and technique. Write Director of Education, State House, Columbus, O.

Ohio Department of Education: *How to Use the Motion Picture in Instruction.* A practical 6-page bulletin. Write Director of Education, State House, Columbus, O.

Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction, Harrisburg, Pa.: Several excellent educational monographs dealing with visual instruction.

Richardson, F. H.—*Hand Book of Projection.* (2 vols.) Chalmers Publishing Company, 516 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y. Price, $6. Elaborate and technical. Useful for operators of all types of projectors.

U. S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1930, No. 10: *College and University Extension Helps in Adult Education, 1928-1929,* by L. R. Alderman. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. Price, 10 cents. Table I of this bulletin gives information on colleges and universities supplying visual material.

Visual Review, published annually by Society for Visual Education, Inc., 327 South LaSalle St., Chicago, Ill. Contains articles and brief news notes.

Weber, Joseph J.—*Visual Aids in Education.* Report of scientific studies but contains much excellent material of general value to user of visual aids. Mimeographed edition of 220 pages, 8½ x 11 inches, in

flexible cover. Purchased through *The Educational Screen*. Price, $2.

Wood, Benjamin D., and Freeman, F. N.—*Motion Pictures in the Classroom; an experiment to measure the value of motion pictures as supplementary aids in regular classroom instruction*. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1929. Price, $1.80. A report of the most recent and most extensive scientific test made of the value of films as teaching aids. Sponsored by Eastman Teaching Films, Inc.

APPENDIX VIII

AIDS IN THE FIELD OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

I. Publications

Publishers.

The catalogs of the following publishers supply a large list of the best general books, texts and reference books available, and brief descriptions of their contents.

American Technical Society, Drexel Ave. & 58th St., Chicago, Ill.

Thos. Audel & Co., 65 W. 23rd St., New York, N. Y.

Bruce Publishing Co., 354 Milwaukee St., Milwaukee, Wis.

The Century Co., 353 Fourth Ave., New York, N. Y.

Frederick J. Drake & Co., 179 N. Michigan Ave., Chicago, Ill.

Norman W. Henley Publishing Co., 2 W. 45th St., New York, N. Y.

The Industrial Press, 140 Lafayette St., New York, N. Y.

International Textbook Co., Scranton, Pa.

J. B. Lippincott Co., Washington Square, Philadelphia, Pa.

Manual Arts Press, 237 N. Monroe St., Peoria, Ill.

McGraw-Hill Book Co., 370 Seventh Ave., New York, N. Y.

Isaac Pitman & Sons, 2 W. 45th St., New York, N. Y.
Popular Mechanics Press, 639 St. Clair St., Chicago, Ill.
Scientific Book Corporation, 15 E. 26th St., New York, N. Y.
John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 440 Fourth Ave., New York, N. Y.

Bruce's School Shop Annual.

An indispensable aid to the director of vocational education in a penal institution is *Bruce's School Shop Annual*, the 1930 edition of which is on industrial arts and vocational education. The *Annual* is published by the Bruce Publishing Co. The 1928 and 1929 editions were devoted especially to the problems of shop planning and equipping; the material of these editions is also included in the 1930 edition. It contains a report on the status of vocational education in various states and in Canada; a description of typical programs in cities of various sizes; shop layouts, equipment and supply lists for the teaching of a number of trades; and course outlines in woodworking, general metal work, auto mechanics, auto electricity, mechanical drawing, sheet metal work, elementary electricity, printing, and household mechanics. The course outlines are designed for the upper grades and for junior high schools but they are of value to any trade school. Other features of the *Annual* are sections on the care of equipment and supplies, an educational directory, an index of manufacturers' specifications, and a classified directory of manufacturers' products.

The headquarters of the Bruce Publishing Co. are at 354 Milwaukee St., Milwaukee, Wis., and it has offices at 342 Madison Ave., New York, N. Y., and 66. S. Wabash St., Chicago, Ill.

Manufacturers' Catalogs, etc.

Manufacturers' and dealers' catalogs constitute a source of useful and interesting material. See *Bruce's 1930 School Shop Annual* for manufacturers' announcements throughout the book, an index of manufacturers' specifications listing 75 firms (page 294), and a classified directory of manufacturers (pages 295-306). A number of manufacturers publish material which can be used as texts or references. Examples are the South Bend Lathe Works' *How to Run an Engine Lathe*, and the Yates-American Machine Company's *Education Through Wood Work*. Many manufacturers publish material on employee training, with course outlines, etc.

Government and State Publications.

A full list of the publications of the Federal Board for Vocational Education may be obtained on request from the Publications Section of the Board at Washington, D. C.

Requests for free lists should also be made to the U. S. Departments of Agriculture, Commerce, and Labor, the U. S. Office (Bureau) of Education, the U. S. Bureau of Home Economics, the U. S. Bureau of Mines, and the U. S. Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce for a list of their publications.

For information on these and other government publications applicable to the field of vocational education reference should be made to the free price list issued by the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. (See reference in Appendix I.) This list and many government publications can be obtained from the State Director of Vocational Education, at the state capital.

A list of its publications can be obtained from the American Vocational Association, Room 225, State House, Indianapolis, Ind.

For lists of state publications requests should be made to the following:

State Departments of Agriculture
State Departments of Commerce
State Departments of Education
State Departments of Health
State Departments of Highways
State Departments of Labor
State Departments of Vocational Education
State Forestry Departments
State Libraries and Library Commissions
State Universities
State University Extension Divisions
" " Divisions of Vocational Education
" " Schools of Agriculture
" " " " Commerce
" " " " Forestry
" " " " Household Economics
" " " " Mines
State Agricultural Colleges

Magazines.

Two of the best known professional magazines in the field are:

The Industrial Arts and Vocational Education Magazine, published by the Bruce Publishing Co., and *Industrial Education,* published by the Manual Arts Press.

Trade Journals.

All of the skilled trades are represented by trade journals and there are hundreds of business and technical periodicals

representing a great variety of fields. A list of some of these periodicals is included in *Periodicals for the Small Library,* published by the American Library Association. A comprehensive classified list which includes not only trade journals but also the official publications of manufacturers' associations is included in the *American Newspaper Annual and Directory,* published by N. W. Ayer & Son, Philadelphia, Pa.

The following are a few representative publications. A sample copy for examination should be requested.

Aero Digest (monthly). Aeronautical Digest Publishing Corp., 220 W. 42nd Street, New York, N. Y.

Automobile Trade Journal and Motor Age (monthly). Chilton Class Journal Co., Chestnut & 56th Sts., Philadelphia, Pa.

Automotive Industries (weekly). Chilton Class Journal Co., Chestnut & 56th Sts., Philadelphia, Pa.

Machinery (monthly). Industrial Press, 148 Lafayette St., New York, N. Y.

American Machinist (weekly). McGraw-Hill Publishing Co., 10th Ave. & 36th St., New York, N. Y.

Compressed Air Magazine (monthly). Published at 11 Broadway, New York, N. Y.

Sheet Metal Worker (biweekly). Edwin A. Scott Publishing Co., Inc., 45 W. 45th St., New York, N. Y.

Plumbers and Heating Contractors Trade Journal (biweekly). Published at 239 W. 30th St., New York, N. Y.

Heating and Ventilating (monthly). National Trade Journals, Inc., 521 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y.

Foundry (biweekly). Penton Publishing Co., Penton Bldg., Cleveland, O.

Iron Age (weekly). Iron Age Publishing Co., 239 W. 39th St., New York, N. Y.

Engineering and Mining Journal (biweekly). McGraw-Hill Publishing Co., 10th Ave. & 36th St., New York, N. Y.

Power (weekly). McGraw-Hill Publishing Co., 10th Ave. & 36th St., New York, N. Y.

Power Plant Engineering (biweekly). Technical Publishing Co., 53 W. Jackson Blvd., Chicago, Ill.

Marine Engineering and Shipping Age (monthly). Simmons-Boardman Publishing Co., 34 N. Crystal St., East Stroudsburg, Pa.

Electrical World (weekly). McGraw-Hill Publishing Co., 10th Ave. & 36th St., New York, N. Y.

Q S T (monthly). American Radio Relay League, 1711 Park St., Hartford, Conn.

Radio Broadcast (monthly). Doubleday, Doran & Co., Inc., Garden City, N. Y.

Radio News (monthly). Pacific Radio Publishing Co., Pacific Bldg., San Francisco, Cal.

Engineering and Contracting (monthly). Gillette Publishing Co., 221 E. 20th St., Chicago, Ill.

Engineering News Record (weekly). McGraw-Hill Publishing Co., 10th Ave. & 36th St., New York, N. Y.

Excavating Engineer (monthly). Excavating Engineer Publishing Co., So. Milwaukee, Wis.

Rock Products (biweekly). Trade Press Publishing Corp., 542 S. Dearborn St., Chicago, Ill.

Brick and Clay Record (monthly). Published at 59 E. Van Buren St., Chicago, Ill.

Concrete (monthly). Concrete Publishing Co., 400 W. Madison St., Chicago, Ill.

Good Roads (monthly). Burton Publishing Co., 53 W. Jackson Blvd., Chicago, Ill.

Roads and Streets (monthly). Gillette Publishing Co., 221 E. 20th St., Chicago, Ill.

American Builder (monthly). Simmons-Boardman, Inc., 105 W. Adams St., Chicago, Ill.

Building Age and National Builder (monthly). National Trade Journals, Inc., 521 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y.

American Printer (monthly). Robbins Publishing Co., 9 E. 38th St., New York, N. Y.

Inland Printer (monthly). Inland Printer Co., Inc., 330 S. Wells St., Chicago, Ill.

Printers' Ink (weekly). Printers' Ink Publishing Co., 185 Madison Ave., New York, N. Y.

Printers' Ink Monthly. Romer Publishing Co., 185 Madison Ave., New York, N. Y.

Furniture Manufacturer (monthly). Periodical Publishing Co., 200 Division Ave., Grand Rapids, Mich.

Industrial Woodworking (monthly). Practical Publications, Inc., 222 E. Ohio St., Indianapolis, Ind.

The Wood-Worker (monthly). S. H. Smith Co., Wulsin Bldg., Indianapolis, Ind.

American Shoemaking (weekly). Published at 683 Atlantic Ave., Boston, Mass.

Shoe and Leather Reporter (weekly). Shoe and Leather Reporter Co., 210 Lincoln St., Boston, Mass.

Textile World (weekly). McGraw-Hill Publishing Co., 10th Ave. & 36th St., New York, N. Y.

American Wool and Cotton Reporter (weekly). Frank P. Bennett and Co., Inc., 530 Atlantic Ave., Boston, Mass.

American Painter and Decorator (monthly). American Paint Journal Co., 3713 Washington Ave., St. Louis, Mo.

Painter and Decorator (monthly). Brotherhood of Painters, Decorators, Etc., Painter and Decorator Bldg., Lafayette, Ind.

The Painters Magazine and Paint and Wall Paper Dealer (monthly). Published at 12 Gold St., New York, N. Y.

National Laundry Journal (monthly). Published at 461 Eighth Ave., New York, N. Y.

American Agriculturist (weekly). Published at 461 Fourth Ave., New York, N. Y.

Market Growers' Journal (biweekly). M. G. J. Co., 112 E. Chestnut St., Louisville, Ky.

American Fruit Grower (monthly). International Trade Press, Inc., 53 W. Jackson Blvd., Chicago, Ill.

American Forests and Forest Life (monthly). American Forestry Assn., Washington, D. C.

Hoard's Dairyman (biweekly). W. D. Hoard & Sons Co., Fort Atkinson, Wis.

Breeders' Gazette (weekly). Sanders Publishing Co., Pure Bred Record Bldg., Union Stock Yards, Chicago, Ill.

American Poultry Journal (monthly). Eisert & Co., 536 S. Clark St., Chicago, Ill.

Poultry Tribune (monthly). Poultry Tribune Co., Mount Morris, Ill.

Bakers' Helper (biweekly). Bakers' Helper Publishing Co., 330 W. Wells St., Chicago, Ill.

Bakers' Weekly. American Trade Publishing Co., Inc., 45 W. 45th St., New York, N. Y.

Books—General.

A list of books * of general value to the vocational director or teacher follows:

Allen, Charles R. *The Instructor, the Man and the Job.* Lippincott, 1919.

A useful and standard text for instructors in vocational education. It outlines the principles and methods of effective training, especially under commercial production conditions.

Brown, Clara M., and Haley, Alice H. *The Teaching of Home Economics.* Houghton Mifflin, 1928.

A comprehensive discussion of the teaching problems in home economics including objectives, curricula, related subjects, and all-day and part-time classes.

Evans, Owen D. *Educational Opportunities for Young Workers.* Macmillan, 1926.

The first of a series of studies on adult education conducted by the Carnegie Corporation of New York. It describes the needs of young workers and the existing opportunities for meeting them, and from an evaluation of successful agencies suggests educational trends for the future.

Ericson, E. E. *Teaching Problems in Industrial Arts.* Manual Arts Press, 1930.

The title is somewhat misleading as the contents of the book apply to trade teaching as well.

Friese, John F. *The Cosmopolitan Evening School.* Century, 1929.

Shows the necessity and feasibility of adult education and provides information and suggestions concerning its problems, stressing differences between the adult and child that necessitate a flexible program and unusual organization.

* For assistance in the preparation of this list acknowledgment is due especially to Helen Ellis Wheeler, librarian of the Federal Board for Vocational Education, William C. Ash, director of vocational teacher training of the University of Pennsylvania School of Education, Gilbert G. Weaver, assistant for industrial teacher training of the New York State Education Department, and Allen L. Shank, director of education at the United States Industrial Reformatory, Chillicothe, Ohio. Most of the book notes were supplied by Mrs. Wheeler.

Hall, Herman S. *Trade Training in School and Plant.* Century, 1930.

The author is a mechanic who has risen to a position of responsibility, and he has assembled a fund of information and a wealth of practical suggestions in a way that makes them easy to grasp and hold.

Haynes, Merritt W. *Teaching Shop Work.* Ginn & Co., 1924.

Emphasizes the need of sound pedagogical methods as well as training in the technique of the trade for teachers of trade subjects.

Hill, David S. *Introduction to Vocational Education.* Macmillan, 1920.

A critical but unbiased discussion of the philosophy of vocational education and the social conditions that make it a necessity.

Hollingworth, H. L. *Vocational Psychology and Character Analysis.* Appleton, 1929.

General survey of the whole field, including chapters on various kinds of psychological tests applicable in vocational placement and education, a chapter on the vocational aptitudes of women, and extensive bibliographies.

Kansas. State Board for Vocational Education. *A Picture Tour through Trade Schools and Classes of the United States,* by Laurence Parker. Topeka, The Board, 1930.

An interesting bulletin which gives an illustrated as well as a word picture of a number of the leading representative vocational trade schools.

Kauffman, Treva E. *Teaching Problems in Home Economics.* Lippincott, 1930.

Addressed to both experienced and inexperienced teachers. The author is State Supervisor of Home Economics Education for New York. The book covers the selection of subject matter to be taught, proper teaching methods, equipment and its relation to teaching, and the relation of home economics instruction to the general school and community life. There are chapters on foods, clothing, house furnishing, child care, entertaining and hospitality, home life and family relationships, home management, etc.

Keller, Franklin J. *Day Schools for Young Workers.* Century, 1924.

An able discussion of part-time and continuation school education; an outgrowth of the author's experience in the East Side Continuation School of New York City.

Lee, Edwin A., Ed. *Objectives and Problems of Vocational Education.* McGraw-Hill, 1928.

A symposium in which national authorities discuss various phases of the work, the gist of current thought regarding its philosophy, the problems encountered, and aspirations for the future.

Link, Henry C. *Education and Industry.* Macmillan, 1923.

A general discussion covering most of the phases of industrial training.

Mays, Arthur B. *The Problem of Industrial Education.* Century, 1927.

Discusses apprenticeship; its historical beginnings, growth, principles, methods, and types of training developed through the necessities of modern industry, for both men and women workers.

Missouri. State Board for Vocational Education. *Courses of Study; Vocational Home Economics.* (Bulletin No. 19.) Jefferson City, The Board, 1928.

Outline for two years' course in clothing, foods, home management, and related art and science.

Nolan, Aretas W. *The Case Method in the Study of Teaching with Special Reference to Vocational Agriculture.* Bloomington, Ill., Public School Publishing Co., 1927.

A case-book which furnishes concrete teaching situations in the field of vocational agriculture.

Payne, Arthur F. *Administration of Vocational Education with Special Emphasis on the Administration of Vo-*

cational Industrial Education under the Federal Vocational Education Law. McGraw-Hill, 1924.

A study of the law and a description of the work under its provisions. Contains a good bibliography for general references relating to industrial phases of vocational education.

Payne, Arthur F. *Methods of Teaching Industrial Subjects.* McGraw-Hill, 1926.

A guide for the teacher of industrial subjects.

Payson, Verna M., and Haley, Alice H. *Adult Education in Homemaking.* Century, 1929.

A book for teachers, administrators, and supervisors. Methods of teaching are outlined and based on the acknowledged difference between adult and child, and these stress flexibility both as to time and content.

Prosser, Charles A., and Bass, M. Reed. *Adult Education; the Evening Industrial School.* Century, 1930.

A very able discussion of all problems, such as buildings and equipment, functioning subject matter, selection and training of teachers, teaching methods, and supervision, connected with the organization and administration of evening schools for adults.

Prosser, Charles A., and Allen, Charles R. *Vocational Education in a Democracy.* Century, 1925.

Analyzes the underlying principles of vocational education, and the economic and philosophic backgrounds on which the need for it is based. Critical comments are directed toward various policies and different types of activities.

Schmidt, Gustavus A. *Projects and the Project Method in Agricultural Education.* Century, 1926.

An excellent teacher's handbook presenting every aspect of the supervision of the student's practice work on his own home farm.

Schmidt, G. A., Ross, W. A., and Sharp, M. A. *Teaching Farm Shop Work and Farm Mechanics.* Century, 1927.

A valuable aid to the teacher in deciding what to teach, how to organize the subject matter and how to conduct class work. The project method is emphasized.

Selvidge, Robert W. *How to Teach a Trade.* Manual Arts Press, 1923.

Brief manual for teachers and men in industry interested in simple, direct methods of instruction free from indefinite pedagogical theory and language. The plan outlined was developed in connection with the vocational training of men in the U. S. Army.

Selvidge, Robert W., and Fryklund, Verne C. *Principles of Trade and Industrial Teaching.* Manual Arts Press, 1930.

The authors discuss the necessary personal traits of the teacher and present "A technique of analysis, for the purpose of selecting the learning units involved in any subject . . ." They set up standards for an efficient plan of vocational education.

Snedden, David. *Vocational Education.* Macmillan, 1920.

An able, comprehensive discussion of the meaning, aims and methods of administration in vocational education. Covers the agricultural, commercial, industrial, homemaking, professional, and vocational teacher-training fields.

Stewart, Rolland M., and Getman, Arthur K. *Teaching Agricultural Vocations.* Wiley & Sons, 1927.

Describes the particular angle and type of organization that mature experience in this field indicates; presented by outstanding leaders in vocational agricultural education.

Struck, Ferdinand T. *Methods and Teaching Problems in Industrial Education.* Wiley & Sons, 1929.

A discussion of teaching methods and problems with suggestions for their improvement.

Struck, Ferdinand T. *Foundations of Industrial Education.* Wiley & Sons, 1930.

Designed for teacher-training classes, this presents "the underlying philosophy, the basic principles, the prevailing practices, the accepted terminology and recognized standards in trade and industrial education."

Ullrich, Fred Theodore. *Our Farm World, a Source Book in General Agriculture.* Longmans, Green, 1929.

Presents desirable teaching methods organized on the problem basis. Shows how the science and fundamental principles governing production may be applied in a practical way on the home farm.

Wisconsin. State Board of Vocational Education. *Wisconsin Part-Time and Evening Schools for Juvenile and Adult Workers.* (Bulletin No. 12.) (City Vocational School Division Biennial Report, 1926-1928. Part 1.) Madison, The Board, 1929.

Descriptive and illustrative material of all phases of the work of the state which has an enrollment of over 75,000 working people in part-time and evening schools in city and rural districts.

Wright, John C., and Allen, Charles R. *The Supervision of Vocational Education of Less than College Grade.* Wiley & Sons, 1926.

A program of definite training is outlined for administrators, and the importance of improving both the program and the personnel is emphasized.

Wright, John C., and Allen, Charles R. *Efficiency in Vocational Education.* Wiley & Sons, 1929.

Offers an effective means of improving programs and evaluating organizations through the use of the survey, procedures for which are outlined in detail.

Note. In the training of inexperienced vocational teachers a simple book on the technique of teaching will prove useful. A book of this type is *The Seven Laws of Teaching* by John M. Gregory and others, published by the Pilgrim Press, 14 Beacon St., Boston, Mass.

Among the most valuable of the publications of the Federal Board for Vocational Education, are Bulletins No. 17 and No. 18, *Trade and Industrial Education* and *Evening Industrial Schools.*

Books: Text and Reference.

It is impracticable to attempt to give a complete list of books of this type. Selections should be made from the lists of reliable publishers on the advice of an expert in vocational education who knows the particular institution for whose use texts are being selected. Books of proved value as texts or references in a few of the skilled trades include the following (see also section (d) of Appendix I):

Burghardt, Henry D. *Machine Tool Operation.* Parts I and II. McGraw-Hill, 1919.

Blair, Lawrence. *Principles and Practice of Show-Card Writing.* Prepared in the Extension Division of the University of Wisconsin. McGraw-Hill, 1922.

Broemel, Louis. *Sheet Metal Workers' Manual.* F. J. Drake & Co., 1925.

Croft, Terrell W. *Electrical Machinery; Principles, Operation and Management.* McGraw-Hill, 3rd ed., 1929.

Cushman, Frank. *Mathematics and the Machinist's Job.* J. Wiley & Sons, 1926.

Dibble, Samuel E. *Elements of Plumbing.* McGraw-Hill, 1918.

French, Thomas E. *Manual of Engineering Drawing for Students and Draftsmen.* McGraw-Hill, 3rd ed. rev., 1924.

Griffith, Ira S. *Carpentry.* Manual Arts Press, 1916.

Henry, Frank S. *Printing; a Textbook for Printers' Apprentices, Continuation Classes, and for General Use in Schools.* J. Wiley & Sons. 1st ed., 1917.

Kuns, Ray F. *Automotive Trade Training.* Bruce Publishing Co., 1926.
Machinery's Handbook. (For Machine Shop and Drafting Room.) The Industrial Press.
Palmer, Claude I. *Practical Mathematics; Being Essentials of Arithmetic, Algebra, Geometry and Trigonometry.* 4 vols. McGraw-Hill. 3rd ed., 1930.
Purfield, Horace T. *Wood Pattern-Making; the Fundamental Principle and Elementary Practice of the Art.* The Scharf Tag, Label & Box Co., Ypsilanti, Mich., 1906.
Stimpson, William C., and Gray, Burton L. *Foundry Work.* American Technical Society, Chicago. 2nd rev. ed., 1930.
Timbie, William H. *Elements of Electricity for Technical Students.* J. Wiley & Sons. 2nd ed., 1925.
Wright, John C. *Automotive Repair.* 4 vols. J. Wiley & Sons, 1921-1923.

II. Trade Schools

Among the leading trade schools, a study of whose organization, plants, equipment and methods is worth while, are the following:

Cass Technical High School, Detroit, Mich.
David Aarons Trade School, Louisville, Ky.
David Rankin Trade School, St. Louis, Mo.
Dunwoody Institute, Minneapolis, Minn.
Elm Vocational School, Buffalo, N. Y.
Essex County Boys Vocational School, Newark, N. J.
Frank Wiggins Trade School, Los Angeles, Cal.
Lathrop Trade School, Kansas City, Mo.
Manhattan Trade School, New York, N. Y.
Milwaukee Vocational School, Milwaukee, Wis.

Opportunity School, Denver, Colo.
Pullman Free School, Chicago, Ill.

A complete list of schools receiving government aid will be found in the *Directory of Trade and Industrial Schools Classified by Trade, Subject, and Type of Organization, and by States,* a bulletin of the Federal Board for Vocational Education, now in press. This is the successor to the Board's Bulletin No. 99 (1925).

III. National and State Officials and Agencies

The national organization in the field of vocational education is the American Vocational Association. The Association holds annual meetings and its *Proceedings* and other publications are of great value. The secretary is Z. M. Smith, State Director of Vocational Education, Indianapolis, Indiana.

A most comprehensive educational directory of federal and state officials is published in *Bruce's 1930 School Shop Annual.* It lists the officials of the Federal Board for Vocational Education and the U. S. Office (Bureau) of Education; state superintendents of education; state directors of vocational, trade and industrial, agricultural, home economics, art, and physical education, and vocational rehabilitation; national, state, and city organizations in the field of vocational education and industrial arts; universities, colleges, and normal schools offering teacher training for vocational education and industrial arts. The addresses of these officials and agencies in any particular state can be secured from the State Director of Vocational Education.

The county extension agents (agricultural) operating under the joint auspices of the states and the U. S. Department of Agriculture can usually be reached by addressing the Federal Building at the county seat.

APPENDIX IX

SUGGESTED READINGS IN THE FIELD OF ADULT EDUCATION

The following books, pamphlets and periodicals are selected from the *Bibliography of Adult Education,* published by the American Association for Adult Education, 60 East 42nd St., New York, N. Y. Acknowledgment is made to the Association for the courtesy of permitting the reprinting of the bibliographical notes. Orders for these publications may be placed through the Association.

Books and Pamphlets

*Alderman, L. R. *College and University Extension Helps in Adult Education.* U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, No. 3. Washington, D. C., 1928. 35 p.

Contains useful information on university extension classes and correspondence courses. A checked list of universities and colleges indicates the type of extension service which each offers.

American Library Association. *Libraries and Adult Education.* Macmillan, New York, N. Y., 1926. 284 p.

The result of two years' study of the conception and practice of adult education in this country, emphasizing the opportunity of the libraries to associate their work closely with adult education of all types.

American Vocational Association. *Adult Education.* Bulletin No. 1. Minneapolis, Minn., 1928. 70 p.

A preliminary report outlining some of the main issues and features of the problem of adult education and its relation to vocational education. Includes an analysis of the public library in adult education.

* Bulletin No. 10, 1930, is an even more comprehensive compilation of the same type of material for the years 1928-29.

Beglinger, N. J. *Methods in Adult Elementary Education.* rev. ed. Scribner, New York, N. Y., 1928. 183 p.

Critically concerned with teaching English especially to foreigners. Emphasizes the necessity for training in reading.

Evans, O. D. *Educational Opportunities for Young Workers.* Macmillan, New York, N. Y., 1926. 380 p.

Deals mainly with continuation and evening high schools. These schools adapt themselves to the expressed desire of their students and stress vocational training, social-civic relations, health, and culture in the order named.

Fisher, Dorothy Canfield. *Why Stop Learning?* Harcourt, New York, N. Y., 1927. 301 p.

Mrs. Fisher distinguishes between universal literacy and universal education, and discusses various types of adult education as efforts in the direction of an educated citizenry.

Gray, W. S., and Munroe, R. *Reading Interests and Habits of Adults.* Macmillan, New York, N. Y., 1929. 298 p.

Contains digest of investigations, individual case studies and suggestions for future investigations. Bibliography.

Hall-Quest, A. L. *The University Afield.* Macmillan, New York, N. Y., 1926. 292 p. Bibliography, p. 275-285.

An historical and statistical study of University Extension in the United States. This study shows how vocational interests and our system of university "credits" have made University Extension here widely different from the cultural tradition of the movement in England.

Hart, J. K. *Adult Education.* Crowell, New York, N. Y., 1927. 341 p.

A plea for adult education as an activity of the whole community, and in particular for concentration upon young adults in the manner of the Danish People's High Schools.

International Handbook of Adult Education. World Association for Adult Education, London, Eng., 1929. 476 p.

Authoritative, brief surveys of the adult education movement in 26 countries prepared for the First International Conference. Bibliographies.

Jacks, L. P. *Constructive Citizenship.* Hodder and Stoughton, London, Eng., 1928. 335 p.

The "substance" of the Stevenson Lectures on Citizenship given at the University of Glasgow. Dr. Jacks finds a "three-fold object of constructive citizenship—first, to develop the citizen's capacity for skillful work; second, to extend the use of fiduciary methods in dealing with all the conditions under which work is done; third, to train the fiduciary type of character in all ranks of the community."

Keppel, F. P. *Education for Adults.* Columbia Univ. Press, New York, N. Y., 1926. 94 p.

Four essays by the President of the Carnegie Corporation of New York. Mr. Keppel urges that adult education be interpreted in terms of the complete life, not of vocation only.

Lee, E. A., editor. *Objectives and Problems of Vocational Education.* McGraw-Hill, New York, N. Y., 1928. 451 p.

Chapters written by men and women who speak with authority in this field.

Lindeman, E. C. *The Meaning of Adult Education.* New Republic, New York, N. Y., 1926. 221 p.

Education as the development and enrichment of the individual and a stimulus to changes which may make for a new and better society.

Martin, E. D. *The Meaning of a Liberal Education.* Norton, New York, N. Y., 1926. 319 p.

In contrast to animal training, to propaganda, to mere book learning, education is presented as a way of living which sets the mind free to doubt intelligently, to banish old dilemmas and superstitions, and to establish new values.

Noffsinger, J. S. *Correspondence Schools, Lyceums, Chautauquas.* Macmillan, New York, N. Y., 1926. 145 p.

A summary of an investigation into the type of instruction offered by the widely advertised correspondence schools, and of the mass education given in lyceum halls and chautauqua circuit tents.

Peffer, Nathaniel. *New Schools for Older Students.* Macmillan, New York, N. Y., 1926. 250 p.

A study of a wide variety of adult educational activities, with important deductions regarding the aims, spirit and methods of the movement in this country. Points out that greater than the problem of education for the working classes is that of enlightening the "great, sodden, middle class."

Robinson, J. H. *The Humanizing of Knowledge.* Doran, New York, N. Y., 1923. 119 p.

The author urges a "re-ordering and re-stating of the incredible accumulation of scientific research so as really to affect public opinion."

Smith, Hilda W. *Women Workers at the Bryn Mawr Summer School.* Affiliated Summer Schools for Women Workers in Industry and American Association for Adult Education, New York, N. Y., 1929. 346 p.

A sympathetic and detailed history of the first eight summers in the development of a summer school for women workers in industry.

Stanley, Oliver, editor. *The Way Out: Essays on the Meaning and Purpose of Adult Education.* Oxford, Oxford Univ. Press, 1923. 115 p. Bibliography, p. 111-115.

Seven essays which aim at a "reproduction of the soul and intellect of the movement" by Lord Haldane, A. E. Zimmern, Harold Laski, Albert Mansbridge, and others.

Thorndike, E. L., and others. *Adult Learning.* Macmillan, New York, N. Y., 1928. 335 p.

A significant contribution to adult education, which reports facts concerning the ability of adults to learn. Dr. Thorndike's conclusions are based upon the results of experiments conducted at Teachers College, Columbia University.

Yeaxlee, B. A. *Lifelong Education; a Sketch of the Range and Significance of the Adult Education Movement.* Cassell, London, Eng., 1929. 167 p.

Small but stimulating handbook which includes a concise history, the definition and reason for adult education.

PERIODICALS

Adult Education and the Library, issued quarterly by the American Library Association, 520 N. Michigan Ave., Chicago, Ill.

Interstate Bulletin, official organ of the Department of Adult Education. National Education Association, P. O. Box 10, Capitol Station, Albany, N. Y.

Journal of Adult Education (American), published four times a year by the American Association for Adult Education, 60 E. 42nd St., New York, N. Y.

News Bulletin, published quarterly by the American Vocational Association, State House, Room 225, Indianapolis, Ind.

Workers Education, a monthly bulletin of American workers education published by the Workers Education Bureau of America, 1440 Broadway, New York, N. Y. Publishes also Workers Pamphlet Series.

World Association for Adult Education Bulletins, published quarterly by the Association from its headquarters at 16 Russell Sq., London, W.C. 1. England.