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State Normal School for Women at Harrisonburg (Harrisonburg, Va.)

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# THE NORMAL BULLETIN

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## MAGAZINE NUMBER



July, 1916

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Published by the State Normal School  
Harrisonburg, Virginia

THIRTY-FIVE CENTS A COPY

ONE DOLLAR A YEAR

## Contributors To This Number

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<sup>1</sup>When contributors are members of the faculty of this school their addresses are not given.

# THE NORMAL BULLETIN

VOL. VIII]

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JULY, 1916

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[No. 5

## THE INDEPENDENT WOMAN

An address before the State Normal School, Harrisonburg, Virginia

I understand that, while not all of the students of this school enter upon careers of self-support, its courses are designed to prepare a young woman to make her own way in the world and particularly to train her for the most important profession of teaching. I shall, therefore, venture to talk to you briefly on "The Independent Woman" with some reference to her place in the development of Virginia and the South.

My faith in the South and in the ultimate destiny of the southern people is such that I look upon the present business depression, brought about by the war in Europe, as a minor thing compared with the difficulties which the southern people have already met and overcome. It is being met with the courage and energy which have always characterized the South in times of stress and trial. It is attended by much discomfort and some real distress calling for a renewed display of the southern spirit of self-help. It will delay only temporarily the onward march of southern progress.

When this inevitable progress has been resumed it may be expected that the fuller development of the waste lands and latent resources of our section will bring about new conditions in our social organization and open up wider and more varied opportunities. Southern young men and young women of today should be prepared to meet these conditions, to embrace these opportunities, and to take their place in the broader life of the South. I am a strong advocate of the largest opportunity for women in the highest branches of cultural education, and such an education is of special value to the teacher. We must recognize, however, that the opportunity for a

broad classical education is not open for every young woman; and schools such as this, in which what may be termed a sound working education is supplemented by special instruction in pedagogy, are essential to the training of young women as teachers and giving them the viewpoint that will enable them to enter into the spirit of the expanding industrial life of the South, even if they do not, as independent and self-supporting women, take part in it.

Relatively a few years ago such an institution as this State Normal School would have been impracticable. There were many so-called finishing schools for girls; and here and there a young woman, at the risk of being referred to slightly as a *bas bleu*, managed to acquire a broad and solid education. It was generally considered, however, that higher education and special training were privileges of men alone and that their sisters should be content with a common school, or at most a high school course, overlaid with a thin veneer of polite accomplishments. In those times a school designed to equip women for self-support and independence could not have existed for the very good reason that its graduates could have made little practical use of their training.

This condition has been radically changed, and in the South, as elsewhere, we are living in a day of broadening opportunity for women. It has always been the privilege of woman to work, but in former times her activities were generally confined to household duties, the care of children, and employment in certain lines of manual labor.

Sir Anthony Fitzherbert, writing in the sixteenth century, pictures the duties of the English farmer's wife of that day as follows:

"It is a wyue's occupation to wynowe all maner of cornes, to make malte, to wasshe and wrynge, to make heye, shere corne, and in tyme of nede to helpe her husbnde to fyll the mucke-wayne or donguecarte, dryue the ploughe, to loode hey, corne and suche other. And to go or ride to the market to sel butter, chese, mylke, egges, chekyns, capons, hennes, pygges, gese, and all maner of cornes. And also to bye all maner of necessarye thynges, belongynge to the houssholde, and to make a trewe rekenynge and acompte to her husbnde what she hath payed."

Sir Anthony does not tell us how the lady would spend her spare time.

In early times it was only the woman called to high station by birth who had a wider field, who could demonstrate a capacity for even the most responsible and difficult work, who could lead armies against the power of Rome, as Zenobia of Palmyra, or rule great nations, as Elizabeth of England or Catherine of Russia.

While there were exceptions, here and there, the woman under the necessity of supporting herself generally found only domestic service or some other form of manual labor open to her. The broadening of the field began with the advent of the woman school teacher. Now all the bars are down. In almost all lines of human endeavor women are working side by side with men.

There are those who deplore this change: who talk about the sphere of woman being in the home. So it is, and so it always will be, for the great majority of women. But limiting the sphere of woman to the home presupposes that each woman shall have a home and that the home shall be maintained. Unfortunately, this ideal arrangement can not be brought about for all women. There will always be the woman without a man as a bread-winner or a private income of her own. Under old conditions, if she was not to become a public charge, almost her only refuge was in domestic service. Now, if she has qualified herself, she may choose her career, and her progress will be dependent largely upon her ability and industry.

I should not be understood as decrying the training of woman for the home. On the contrary, I believe that should be an indispensable feature of the education of every girl, and I am glad to know that it is an important part of the curriculum of this school. Every woman, whatever her station in life, should be a trained housekeeper. Even tho she may do little or none of the work with her own hands, she should know how everything ought to be done, not only in the kitchen, but in the whole house, from cellar to garret, and should understand the care of children and the principles of household sanitation and hygienic living.

With domestic science as a basis, the further education of a young woman should depend upon her individual circumstances. The college or university and the fashionable finishing school have their proper places, but

there is a broad field of usefulness for a school such as this, with courses designed to fit the girl to be a bread-winner. I may even go so far as to say that, in addition to being a trained housekeeper, every woman, whether she expects to have to support herself or not, should have such an education as will enable her to do so if the necessity shall arise. She will face life with much more confidence and will not be entirely helpless if the death of a man bread-winner in after years shall leave her penniless or with inadequate resources and possibly with a family of children.

The broadening of the opportunity for woman has been largely made possible by a changed attitude of the public mind toward the woman who works. Time was when the average girl whose parents could support her would not have thought of acquiring a professional or industrial training, and even if she had done so her father would have thought that it carried an implication that he could not provide for her. Now, all this has been changed. The working woman is held in honor and esteem; girls who are under no immediate necessity for working for a living are fitting themselves for business careers and their parents are wisely encouraging them to do so.

The self-supporting young woman is by no means debarred from matrimony. I suspect that most of the students of this school, like all other normal-minded girls, are looking forward to marriage when the right man presents himself, and the girl who has the qualities that lead her to take up a career of self-support usually has no lack of suitors. She has, moreover, important advantages in this momentous matter of selecting a life companion. Her work brings her into contact with men; she sees them under very different conditions from the girl who only meets them socially; she becomes a judge of character, and she is not under the necessity, for bread and butter reasons, of taking the first who may offer. And when she has married and become a house-maker, she finds that household management is essentially business management, and her training in the practical affairs of life comes into play. She has learned the value of money and what it means to earn a dollar, and if her husband's resources are slender she can make his money go farther than a woman who has always had

money given her. Last, but not least, she is able to enter into the spirit of her husband's work, to understand something of his problems, and to be a real help-mate in times of perplexity and trial.

Thus, as we look forward into the coming years, we see the graduates of the State Normal School taking their places in the broader life which is certainly opening before the South—some of them as independent working women, some of them carrying into homes the training and the viewpoint they have here acquired, but each of them adorning the station to which she may be called.

FAIRFAX HARRISON



## SOME RECENT TENDENCIES IN PSYCHOLOGY

### I

Psychology includes at present so many distinct fields, with such frequency of changes in each, that no single individual can hope to become or remain an authority in all. Certainly, expertness in more than one of the largest divisions of the subject is impossible for the average scholar. This phenomenal development in psychology falls almost, or quite, within the last few decades. Within this time it has been coming to exactness as a pure science and to application in such fields as education, medicine, law, and business.

Historically, just as medicine was preceded by magic, chemistry by alchemy, astronomy by astrology, geology by cosmogony, so psychology was preceded by an unworthy forbear—psychosophy, as several writers have called it. Primitive man, childlike, read himself into the objective world, animate and inanimate. To him nothing was dead; everything possessed an indwelling soul or personal essence. Once he differentiated nicely the animate from the inanimate, then the personal from the impersonal, psychology was a possibility.

Aristotle wrote the first history of philosophy and psychology, and these two subjects have been inseparable almost to the present time. Philosophers, numerous and renowned, have made their contributions to psychology, which for centuries was ranked as a philosophical discipline. With the nineteenth century, however, subsequent to the development of physics and biology in particular, psychology ceased to remain philosophical, to study "pure soul" speculatively, and sought to become positivistic, to pile up data by exact observation and experiment.

Many of the pioneers in the founding of the so-called "new psychology" were physiologists and physicists. Between 1840 and 1850 E. H. Weber, a German physiologist, began epochal experiments in the fields of vision and of the pressure and temperate senses. Fechner, Helmholtz, and Wundt, among others, continued and extended these early researches. In 1879 Wundt founded

the first psychological laboratory at Leipsic; and today all institutions pretending to constructive psychology, and many others as well, maintain laboratories.

## II

The precise nature of the relation between mind and body is a problem for philosophy proper. Nevertheless, psychology is concerned with the fact of this relationship—that not only the nervous system, but also certain glands and other somatic structures, condition or parallel in function all psychic activities. Moreover, the sole possibility of mental expression is thru the nervous and muscular systems. Vast data have been collected up and down the animal series, from micro-organisms to man, to show that complexity of structure, of nerves and muscles, presupposes complexity and variability of reaction. By refined and expensive methods employed upon animals and man the structure and function of many neural and other somatic parts have been determined. Thus a physiological psychology has developed which makes possible the explanation of many mental states in anatomical and physiological terms. This is one striking characteristic of recent psychology. The student of consciousness is first trained in physics and certain of the biological sciences, coming later to the study of the psyche.

Among other things physiological psychology has completely outlawed phrenology, finding localization of brain function to be much more indefinite and uncertain than was once believed. In this particular field much work remains yet to be done.

Pavlov, a Russian investigator, after a quarter of a century of most painstaking work upon dogs has lately shown, along with other numerous conclusions, that processes of consciousness directly affect salivary and gastric secretion. Other experimentalists have obtained similar and additional results, which make easy an explanation of the long observed phenomenon of indigestion consequent upon anger and certain other emotional states. Emotion, too, is otherwise shown experimentally to have deep-seated physiological accompaniments and consequences.

## III

Laboratory psychology was at first little more than experimental physiology, with what might be called psychological emphasis. Early the various sense departments were investigated, the anatomist and psychologist working together. The structure and function of the sense organs were more definitely determined, as well as the stimulus to which each will respond. It is now held, for instance, that the eye is capable of from thirty to forty thousand color impressions, all reducible to four color values—perhaps less—red, green, yellow, blue, and two gray values, black and white. This means that the eye, responding to these half dozen visual values, mediates all the thousands of colors and grays thru combinations of these in differing proportions. Furthermore, it is known that certain areas of the eye, or visual field, are sensitive to one color, others to other colors; that grays are sensed by the whole visual field; that adaptation to light goes on for hours; and that power to see after night is due to a highly sensitive chemical substance, visual purple, which is destroyed by strong light and built up in its absence. Many are the similar findings in vision and the other sense modalities. For example, hearing is explained by some eleven thousand specific reactions; smell by nine in varying combinations; and taste by four—sour, sweet, bitter, salt—in combination with each other and with the olfactory values. The pain, pressure, cold and warm responses have been studied especially as mediated thru the skin; for each of these a specific nerve-ending is differentiated. Besides, the experiences of strain, movement, equilibrium, thirst, hunger, nausea, and so on, have been investigated. Thus it can be seen that the five traditional senses have been extended to many more, the exact number of which has not been agreed upon.

More recently experimental psychology has not been content with mere reactions to stimulation, but has come to emphasize the analysis of these reactions at the moment of their occurrence. This analysis is known as controlled introspection or self-observation, in contrast with the older, less exact observation which was often supplemented by metaphysical speculation. As the name implies, controlled introspection thru the development

of nice laboratory technique enables the experimenter to alter the several factors in a given experiment at will, to call forth this or that response or combination of responses upon the observer or individual upon whom the experiment is being made. Thus it may be arranged for a number of individuals to respond to identical situations and to observe critically their several responses. If these observers be trained, certain psychic laws may often be formulated from the results. This was an impossibility before the days of the laboratory.

Latterly, introspective methods have been applied, under laboratory conditions, to the study of the so-called higher thought processes, as well as sensation, attention, memory, association, and so on. Volition, judgment, abstraction, and generalization have been subjected to experimental investigation. In this the German laboratories lead, but at the present time American psychologists are re-examining and extending their results. Whether thought is possible without imagery is one of the large mooted considerations born of this work.

#### IV

With the development of modern biology genetic psychology has arisen; this stresses the evolutionary aspect of the psycho-physical organism. The waxing, persistence, and waning of instincts and conscious processes in the race and in the individual, together with their physiological correlates, has proven a profitable field of inquiry. Animals, backward races, and the child have been the chief objects of study. The psychology of the child, adolescent, and senescent has been the gratifying result. Viewed genetically, the human life-span may be represented crudely by a sort of circle: childhood is individualistic, adolescence, social or racial old age, individualistic again.

Unfortunately, genetic and introspective psychologists, each with points of view and methods quite his own, have often been pitted against each other in dispute for supremacy; or one school has ignored the other as unworthy company in the search for psychic facts. Quite recently a few geneticists have allied themselves with the psycho-analysts of Europe whose program of research, with methods unique, lies mainly in explain-

ing certain psychoses, often abnormal, of adult life in terms of specific mental events of childhood and adolescence. This movement promises a desirable extension of genetic principles, despite the lament of the orthodox laboratory specialist, to whom psychology is impossible apart from introspection.

Animal psychology is a chapter long and fascinating. Life forms from the lowest to the highest have been studied in the laboratories most painstakingly. To determine the presence or grade of consciousness in each, usually a problem to be solved is set. This may reveal capacity to learn and the procedure in learning—by what method or “senses.” This work has illuminated the learning process, both animal and human. In a word, much of human and all animal learning is found to depend upon the trial and error or persistence method; by this the reagent reacts again and again, always with many profitless movements, until the right response is hit upon by chance and ultimately made automatic or habitual. Satisfyingness upon reaction facilitates perfecting or stamping in the right response. Watson found that white rats learned to thread a difficult maze about forty-three feet in length, with many blind alleys and false leads, to a food box in the center, after fifteen or twenty trials—each, particularly the first ten, marked by a decrease in time consumed. The first success was contingent upon restless, untiring effort. It is also ascertained that neither sight nor smell nor any other sense except one, that of movement—sensations from skin, tendons, muscles, joints, and perhaps semi-circular canals of the ears—played any part in the learning. Children and adults blindfolded learned the same kind of maze rather less well on the whole than the rats, although some cut down the time for the second and subsequent successes somewhat more rapidly than the rats.

Imitation and many other processes have been studied in animals in addition to their learning. It is wisdom to give here but one more illustration. C. Conrade determined that canaries could teach young English sparrows their own peculiar notes, somewhat as the human mother tutors her offspring.

Psychology as a purely objective, experimental science is the province of the new point of view known as behaviorism. The behaviorists, led by John B. Watson,

would neglect consciousness, mind, mental states, imagery, etc., altogether and make behavior the sole object of study—from the amoeba to man. They would proceed in terms of “stimulus and response, habit formation, habit integration, and the like.” They would define psychology as the science of behavior and not go back on the definition, proceeding with investigation as objectively as in chemistry and physics. Behaviorism will doubtless enlist a considerable following, among the younger psychologists in special; many of these are eager for the complete objectivication of their science.

The next new conquest of psychology will come, many believe, in the kingdom of plant life. At least, the behaviorists cannot pass by this inviting territory. Already some striking data have been accumulated with the assistance of unspeakably delicate apparatus.

## V

The task of individual or differential psychology is to study differences between persons of the same and opposite sex, to account for them, and to reveal types of function or mind, if there be such. Thus, marked individual differences in sensory acuity, in memory, attention, suggestibility, native interests, instinctive tendencies, original capacities, power to observe, to abstract and generalize, to report faithfully events witnessed or recounted, and the like, have been noted. The differential success of children in identical school subjects is a significant division of the work. It often turns out that children of the same grade vary in the mastery of a given subject quite as much as those of several different grades.

The determination of ideational or imaginal types merits consideration also. It is known that while certain individuals utilize sensory data of one sort in remembering, imagining, thinking, etc., others employ still another kind, each perhaps neglecting altogether a considerable proportion of his total sensory experience. Persons are found to be of a number of different imaginal types because of the many possible combinations of experience, concrete and verbal. For the teacher, particularly, a knowledge of these types is indispensable. To illustrate, if a child is decidedly motor, other sense data may profit

him little, appeal to him must be thru muscles. Again, if the child is strongly auditory or auditory-motor or vaco-motor, the corresponding form of presentation must be made in each case. It may be impossible for a child to draw a map by looking at it, for example, but easy for him after tracing it with his finger.

The studies of sex differences have perhaps shown women to be slightly superior in memory and in power to grasp quickly a multiplicity of details, with men slightly superior in reasoning. Women seem to vary less from the average than men. Neither sex is yet shown to surpass mentally the other; there are as many differences within each sex as between them.

Whether heredity or environment can be shown to account for the greater proportion of individual and sex differences has not yet been established. At present, however, heredity appears best to explain the major differences.

## VI

Psychology and sociology jointly claim social psychology. Man and some lower animals are not only individual, but social as well. These social relations challenge attention. The instincts that function in them, the role of custom, convention, imitation, etc., have been analyzed in their social significance. Likewise mobs, crazes, fads, booms, revolutions, have been considered. The social influence of physical environment, as country, city, island, mountain, etc., social factors that condition successful invention, religious and other propaganda, great historic movements and the like such considerations have been studied in detail.

Allied to social psychology is the older and more backward racial, ethnic or folk, psychology. This is closely related to anthropology. It is generally agreed that there are greater mental differences within a given race than between races. Studies, however, are incomplete. There seems to be thoro-going similarity of all human beings in regard to the most elementary psychic functions. In so far as there are appreciable mental differences between races, they reside in the more complex functions. The oriental and occidental mind, the Greek, Latin, and Anglo-Saxon mind, etc., are terms, like

the medieval mind, not without meaning; yet these popularly recognized types of mind are not yet differentiated scientifically. Judgments about them are based upon general, and too often, untenable principles. Racial psychology includes, withal, other subdivisions; they, however, are either of doubtful value or too involved for even mention here.

## VII

The religious consciousness in every stage of development, racial and individual, has afforded a wealth of invaluable subject-matter for the psychology of religion during the last twenty years. Many of these findings are practical, such as the age when the majority of Protestants enter the church, at about sixteen years. But this attractive field is beyond the limits of this discussion. Likewise, no treatment can be given of abnormal psychology which has furnished abundant conclusions upon dreams, hypnotism, multiple personality, automatic writing, spiritism, muscle reading, telepathy, etc.

It is regrettable, furthermore, that the whole province of applied psychology cannot be entered; here, in educational, medical, legal, industrial, and cultural psychology many of the most striking recent results in psychology have been wrought. Every aspect of solitary and co-operative human activity has its psychology, the practical merit of which will doubtless soon provoke unprecedented conquests in this almost limitless realm of potential achievement.

WILLIAM T. SANGER



## A GLIMPSE AT CHAUCER'S ENGLAND

Events of great moment were happening during the time of Chaucer. Social, political, and religious changes were taking place. It was an age of both smiles and tears, of both peace and bloodshed, of chivalry and oppression.

At court there were frequent dissensions. The nobles were ever jealous of each other's power, and were striving to gain the supremacy, if not the throne. The King did not know whom to trust, nor did the lords know when to trust the King. Wars with France and Scotland and quarrels in their own midst occupied much of their time.

The union with the church was gradually loosening. Wyclif began to preach against the abuses of the monasteries, whose lands were broad, and whose income was enormous. The abbots, nuns, and other churchmen were becoming worldly. The begging, lying friars got money from the people by their pretensions to friendliness and goodness, and by their readiness in hearing confessions.

“For thogh a wydwe hadde nocht a sho,  
So pleasant was his *In principis*,  
Yet wolde he have a ferthyng, ere he wente.”

The pardoner “cozened the last few shillings from the pouches of dying men,” while they wore furred robes, gold chains, and plump pouches hanging from their girdles. The parsons too often neglected their parishes. Wycliff and the Lollards awakened men's minds to the hollow mockery of the church. The mass of people began to think for themselves in religious matters. One of the Lollard gentlemen actually took the sacramental wafer home with him and lunched on it with wine and oysters. He was an extremist, but such as he hastened the general spirit of revolt against the ecclesiastical system.

The taxes were so great and the laws of labor so harsh, following the Black Death, which swept away about every other person, that there was general discontent among the lower classes. Sometimes a day's wages would not buy wheat enough for bread. The

royal demands were almost unbearable. When men heard of Edward's approach, they hastily ate or hid their chickens and geese to keep him from seizing them. His servants and purveyors even seized on cattle and horses in the fields. Finally the peasants' fierce resentment of their wrongs culminated in bloody rebellion, which made things worse for a while, but gradually resulted in the disappearance of serfdom and the establishment of many small landowners all over the country.

During this period beggars were quite common. Men pretending physical deformity would sit by the roadside begging piteously. Some sold wood and nails which they said came from the cross upon which Christ was crucified, but which in reality they had got at some nearby shop.

We find robbers frequenting the highways. They took especial joy in getting money from the traders, because they generally had fat purses. These robbers lived in comfort and ate and drank the best. Men returning from the war and laborers without work easily turned into beggars or bandits of the woods.

The merchants were wealthy. This raised them to high positions. Trade was not regulated by the nation or by an individual, but by the town. A merchant traded as a member of a particular merchant guild. They were fond of beautiful things and helped to introduce these into England.

The people of Chaucer's time liked to travel. They were found singly or in small bands upon the sea and the highway. "They are good walkers and good horsemen," said Ralph Higden of them in the fourteenth century, adding: "They are curious and like to tell the wonders they have seen and observed. They roam over the lands and succeed still better in other countries than in their own . . . . They spread over the earth; every land they inhabit becomes as their own country." Each year thousands of both rich and poor went on pilgrimages to the shrine of Thomas a'Becket. Probably duty was the prime factor in actuating the journey, but the excitement and the pleasure derived from the trip were also impelling forces. There was a welcome for all travelers at the hospitals and monasteries, and the wayside chapels were always open to the needy stranger. Simple food was given at the latter. Singers,

story tellers, and players of the bagpipe were often secured to enliven the hours of the pilgrimage.

The inns were a common meeting place for all classes. The principal room of the inn was long and large. It was lit up by blazing torches. Here the crowd reclined on tresses of straw thrown along the walls. Hogsheads of beer often stood at the ends of the room, where the people could easily get to them. Story-telling, drinking, and singing—making for the good-will and fellowship of all—abounded.

Chivalry was in its "Indian summer." During Edward the Third's reign chivalry was hollow. Alice Perrers was mistress at court, and the life there was very corrupt. Yet many knights still lived who desired some little feat of arms "for the honor of their country and for the love of their ladies," and squires who were "courteous, lowly, and serviceable."

In spite of the massacres, court dissensions, plagues, religious changes, wars, and the peasant unrest, the England of Chaucer's time was a merry England. Wars and sorrows were so frequent that the people were not deeply saddened by them. Knights went to war with their falcons and hounds. The life of the nobility was gay. There were tournaments and grand receptions. The English were becoming fond of beauty. Their architecture was rich. Their art was joyous and characterized by a smile. Contact with the East had brought refinement. Their houses became more private and beautiful. Tapestry was hung on the walls. The appreciation of the beauty of inanimate objects was spreading, and physical beauty was desired.

With the improvement of the house, the elegancies of the table were not neglected. The carver of meat must hold it with his left hand (forks were unknown) and must use the knife in his right hand. The food was rich and consisted of extraordinary mixtures. One is mentioned as consisting of hens and rabbits, raisins, sugar, ginger hubs dipped into grease, onions, and salt colored with saffron. They liked bright, fancy dishes. They would place all the feathers carefully back on a roasted peacock, and would cook pasties in the form of the King's castle at Windsor.

Great luxury in dress was evident at this period. Once people bought such expensive clothes that Parlia-

ment interfered and forbade the poorer women to wear any furs except those made from cat and rabbit skins. Edward the Third gave thousands of pearls to Alice Perrers and to his daughter, Margaret.

This England undergoing vital changes in state, church, and society, this England of merriment and adventure was the England of Chaucer, of Henry IV and Prince Hal. This was the England of which Jusserand says that in almost every respect the Englishman of today was formed and received his chief features—practical, adventurous, a lover of freedom, a great traveler, a wealthy merchant, an excellent sailor.

EMMA WINN

## THE DEVELOPMENT OF CHILD CHARACTER

The great aim of education is summed up in this phrase,—the development of character. All that is done for the child, at home, in the church, and at school, is done with this in view. Dr. John Dewey, in his *Outline of a Critical Theory of Ethics*, emphasizes the comprehensiveness of character and its two-fold aspect. He says, "If we take the moral feelings, not one by one, but as a whole, as an *attitude* of the agent toward conduct, as expressing the kind of motives which upon the whole moves him to action, we have *character*. And just so, if we take the consequences *willed*, not one by one, but as a kind of end which the agent endeavors to realize, we have *conduct*. Character and conduct are, morally, the same thing, looked at first inwardly and then outwardly. Character, except as manifest in conduct, is a barren ideality. Our moral judgments are always severe of a man who has nothing to show but good intentions never executed. This is what character comes to apart from conduct. Our only way of telling the nature of character is the conduct that issues from it."

What material have we at our command for this work of building up the moral feeling and establishing connections with actions? In the beginning we have a little child who comes to us with potentialities which we are to help him realize. What are these potentialities? Some of them are purely physical, yet they are the means of intellectual growth and of social realization. Some, in the nature of instincts, have come down to him from his earliest ancestors and are the common inheritance of all. Certain tendencies of intellect and emotion are his by right of his immediate ancestors. The world in which he lives, his home, his school, his playground; the people with whom he comes in contact, the mother, the father, the teachers, the schoolmates, the playmates,—all together represent the environment in which these potentialities are to be realized. From these the moral feelings are formed.

Psychologically, we say that conduct or behavior is caused by the reaction of the organism to its environment. The causes of these reactions in the human organism are both physical and psychical. The lowest

types of these are the automatic and the reflexive. These are entirely outside of the consciousness of the individual and while they influence the character to a considerable extent, yet they are comparatively fixed and unresponsive to changes.

The next class of reactions are of great importance in the development of character. The instincts are of common inheritance, but differ in intensity in different people. So closely allied to the instincts as to seem a part of them are the emotions. They are so much a part of the instinct that it is difficult to distinguish between the feeling element and the impulse to act. Instincts are much like reflexes in that they are unlearned modes of action, but differ from them because of the accompanying emotion and of an element of consciousness. From these are developed habits.

The particular qualities of instincts which make them important in developing character are their modifiability and their transitory nature. This makes it possible to change the final result of the instinctive reaction.

Many instincts are undesirable at the present time, no matter how important they may have been at the dawn of civilization. Yet the fundamental characteristics of these instincts are still necessary for the development of the individual. A change needs to be effected in the manner of its reaction rather than in killing it out. For instance, the emotion of anger with its accompanying instinct of fighting was a very important part of the equipment of a primitive man. Without it his struggle for existence soon would have been cut off. This instinct appears at an early age in children. Mothers and teachers generally feel that this tendency must be suppressed. But what is the value of the character that is bereft of the power to feel real anger against injustice or that lacks the strength to combat with unfavorable situations? Equally undesirable is the bully, whether he is a boy of ten or a matured man.

This instinct needs to be modified and controlled thru transferring the energy to a different type of problem. It is possible to use it in overcoming some of the child's undesirable tendencies. He needs to use it in conquering all kinds of hard situations both at home and at school. The difficult problem in arithmetic, the

long lesson in geography, need the force of this instinct brought upon them until they are overcome.

Another quality of instincts which makes it possible to direct them in forming habits is their transitory nature. While some appear early in life and remain throughout our existence, others appear at different times in life and if not given an opportunity for expression will disappear altogether. Such is the instinct for play, which is of greatest strength in the child from three to eight years of age. Dr. James says, "In a perfectly round development, every one of these instincts would start a habit toward certain objects or inhibit a habit toward certain others. Usually this is the case; but, in the one-sided development of civilized life, it happens that the timely age goes by in a sort of starvation of objects, and the individual then grows up with gaps in his psychic constitution which future experiences can never fill."

This transitory character of instincts is one of the causes of friction between youth and maturity. The parent, knowing life in its realities, wishes to prevent waste of time and energy by allowing no unnecessary activities. He is unwilling to allow the child to enjoy his own natural tendencies. The child cannot understand the parent's point of view. He has no interest in what he is expected to do and can see no harm in doing what he wants to do. The parent has forgotten his own early impulses and feels that the boy is stubborn and unreasonable. He does not know that the man he is trying to make out of his son can be secured only by means of growth along the lines of these instincts and emotions which seem so wasteful.

The emotions or feelings which are the accompaniments of instincts are the prime movers in conduct. Their influence over the will is equally strong. Payot, in discussing the emotional states of the will, says, "The possibilities of power that the emotional states have over our wills cannot be exaggerated. They can do anything." "The will is not fond of carrying out the cold orders it receives from the intelligence. As it is the organ of all power and feeling, it wants emotional orders tinged with passion." This force of the emotions is seen in those reactions which are classified as ideational or voluntary. It is true that not many times

during a day is an adult forced to perform such an act, but when it does occur it represents to some extent a moral crisis.

The three great divisions of human consciousness are the intellect, the emotions, and the will. Perry, in *Discipline as a School Problem*, says, "Conduct—action with moral color—is the expression of will moved by feeling and modified by intellect. All three must operate favorably in order to produce right conduct."

Intellect represents the development and organization of ideas into a working system. By means of these systems, we are able to form judgments about situations, foresee the probable outcome of a problem, and thru analysis of these situations by means of the old ideas new ideas are gained. Thru the study of this mental process, it has been found that a study of ready-made ideas or facts, no matter how well organized, does not make them a part of the mental systems of the individual unless he has in some way realized them from actual contact or has been able to recognize their value and relationship to other facts which he possesses. Only by this means does he gain ideas which he is able to use, and which he knows.

In regulating conduct, the intellect must furnish ideas which shall be the basis for judging actions and for selecting the right mode for voluntary action. Most of the ethical lessons which are given to children are for the purpose of gaining these ideas. They are given by means of stories which have a certain emotional element; by means of precepts and proverbs which are memorized; by certain regulations and rules which are laid down by adults. We might classify these ways of presenting a moral truth as direct methods of teaching, because each gives in a more or less exact form the truth which is to be learned. The use of the story comes nearest the natural method of learning, provided the incident in the story touches the child's life. But unfortunately the moral is too frequently ready-made and tacked on at the end of the story.

Felix Adler says of the use of the story as a means to this end, "Do not make the story taper toward a single point, the moral point. You will squeeze all of the juice out of it if you try. . . . Treat the moral element as an incident, emphasize it indeed, but incidentally. Pluck it as a wayside flower, . . . so the moral result of



the Maerchen will not be less sure because gained incidentally."

Proverbs and precepts have a greater value for the adolescent who has had a broader experience both emotionally and intellectually. They represent the condensed experience of wise men who have lived and felt as we do. But the chance to make them valuable depends upon the power of the teacher in making connection with some similar mental or emotional experience of the youth. To the little child these moral truths have little value because of their limited experiences by which to interpret them.

The body of moral ideas should form the basis for ideational conduct. But, as was quoted above, unless tinged by feeling these have not the strength to force the will to act. Payot says, "It is necessary, therefore, if we would weld an idea solidly and indestructibly to a desired action, that we should fuse them together by the heat of an emotion." After developing or formulating a moral precept, this should be used in deciding some mode of action in a certain situation. This needs some strong motive to make it a desirable method of procedure. This motive must be based upon some emotion either of high or of low nature. After securing this reaction, we have our idea surrounded by an emotional fringe either of pleasure or satisfaction, because of the result of the conduct based upon it; or of pain or dissatisfaction, because of its unfitness for the act. This idea is then raised above the plane of other ideas and now becomes an ideal which regulates actions in this particular field.

The last class of actions is that of habit. Because of the extent to which it controls our actions it is of most importance. Sisson, in *The Essentials of Character*, says, "In one sense the whole process of development consists of the formation of habits; for knowledge itself, and the powers of thought, as well as the higher elements in the will, all depend upon the establishment of fixed ways of reacting to given stimuli." The early years of the child's life are given over to the formation of these habits. Therefore, it is the duty of those in charge of children to consider seriously the kinds of habits necessary for the best development of the child and the way in which these should be formed.

Little children can form habits quickly because they have so few contradictory ones. The more nearly the desired action is connected with some instinct, the easier it is to form into a habit, because of the interest and satisfaction centering in the resulting activity. The next important part of habit formation is regular and constant practise, allowing no exceptions to occur without a great deal of dissatisfaction.

The formation of some habits belongs distinctly to the home and to the care of the parents. Among these are the physical habits which are so important all thru life. The important ones which should be formed early in life are rising at a stated time, going to bed at a regular time, eating regularly, bathing, brushing teeth, caring for nails, washing hands, attention to bodily needs at a regular time.

Habits of orderliness, neatness, and independence are the result of specific training in such things as dressing and undressing, putting away clothing, and all other things which have been used, putting away playthings in the rooms and out of doors, caring for the bedroom as soon as old enough. This work should gradually assume greater scope and importance.

There are some important moral habits which *must* be begun at this time, if they are to function later. Promptness in everything at home is one. This will assist the child in ability to hold his attention to a subject. Obedience, prompt, willing, and unquestioned, is an equally important moral habit. Quoting again from Sission, "Obedience is the *regent of the future will* playing a large part in the command of the mature life until the will itself can be formed and fitted to rule." The little child has no standards for judging of right or wrong, of the best action in a given situation. His one idea of authority comes from the adults whom he loves and must obey. They stand for law, order, and right. The better he learns the lesson of obedience, the greater will be his respect for the right, and the better citizen he will become. When a new rule or regulation is necessary, the parent or teacher should talk it over with the children or class, helping them to see the reasons for the regulation. This becomes more necessary as the children advance in age. But after the rule has been discussed, absolute obedience should be expected from the

children. No exceptions must be permitted if this valuable habit is to be secured.

Truthfulness is greater than a habit, yet because it must receive the same type of treatment as a habit and because of the high moral ideal to be raised, we will consider it as one. Several things tend to cause children to lie; their imagination, fear of punishment, a desire to deceive. Many children are helped in the process by their parents both thru example and encouragement. False threats, false promises, and many other phases of lies furnish abundant models for children to copy. Encouragement is given by many parents by means of accepting the story of the child against other proof. Recently a man saw a child deliberately do a wrong deed. He went to the child's father with the proof of the deed. But the father upon questioning the child and finding that he denied it, told the neighbor that he had no reason to doubt his son's word. Such encouragement would destroy any necessity for truth.

The habit of self-control is a necessary one for the child gradually to learn. The parent and teacher need to assist him in this great work. It should begin in the earliest infancy with helping him to control his anger, his crying, and his body, and should extend later on to the larger emotions. Practise should be given along the following lines: sitting perfectly still for a gradually increasing length of time; sitting or standing still while the hair is being combed; control of speech—either imperfect articulation or too fluent speech; control of the appetite, eating moderately of things which are liked, abstaining from those things which might be injurious, eating those things which the parent thinks they should eat; the control of fits of temper; cultivation of a happy, sunny disposition.

The child needs training in social life. Some of this will result in habits of politeness, courtesy, and unselfishness; some will result in attitudes, as the attitude of respect for the comfort and rights of others. Too little attention is given to this training in the home and the school. The result is seen in the destruction of property, in trespassing upon the rights of others, in lack of co-operation. The person who talks thru a concert, a lecture, or a play, who defaces a public building, who annoys his neighbors in many ways, has not learned the

lesson of living with other people. The child who will not play unless he has *his* way, grows into the man who will not co-operate with his neighbors unless he is at the head of everything, and is the one who will always be at odds with his associates.

The duty of educating the child morally belongs entirely to the parents until the child enters school. The teacher then shares this responsibility. In school the moral education of the child consists of certain ethical training which comes from the various school subjects, and from special lessons taught with this in view, and in definite training in habits which have a special social nature. The routine of the classroom, promptness in preparing lessons, promptness in attendance, adjustment to large social groups, self-control in many ways, the use of freedom, the rules and regulations of the classroom, all make for broader habits.

Discipline for its own sake should not be found in a school. Only as it has the big purpose of character building, coupled with its immediate aim of good order in the classroom, can it be called good discipline. The teacher who is not broad enough in her point of view to recognize the need and opportunities for the moral training of her boys and girls, who cannot analyze their individual needs and sympathize with their struggles toward the right, has no place in our schools. For, without this keen insight, she can never assist the youth of our land to realize the standards which have been set for them—that of becoming good, moral men and women, and desirable citizens of this great land.

RACHEL ELIZABETH GREGG

## THE VALLEY IS ASLEEP

The shadows grow from out the hills;  
And from the tiny, tinkling rills  
The rosy lights that gleam and play  
Have drawn reluctantly away  
In answer to some far-off call,  
Beyond the doors of evening fall.  
The twilight nurse has kissed the flowers  
And sunk to sleep in curtained bowers.  
'Tis darkness now. The wind breathes low;  
No light, save here and there a glow,  
Where flitting fireflies come and go,  
Till from a cloud bank lined with light  
A tardy moon glides into sight;  
Where baby stars, grown pale from fear,  
Come out to play while she is near.  
Their rays fall softened from above.  
To touch the earth with lingering love.  
No longer rings the cricket's trill;  
And from the dusky, wooded hill  
Where lately called the whip-poor-will,  
The air comes silent now, and still.  
As tired eyelids droop and fall,  
In peace the night time covers all;  
The valley is asleep.

RUTH R. CONN

## AN EFFICIENCY PLAN FOR THE REVISION OF THE SCHOOL YEAR

There is probably no business on the face of the earth that is less a BUSINESS than that of running the average American school. Out of a total of three hundred available working days the best school systems rarely use more than one hundred and eighty. About twenty of these are lost to the pupil in "reorganization" or "reviewing" or "examining" or some other useless and non-productive effort on the part of the paid operatives. In all this we have not mentioned the fact that usually five hours is a maximum for these operatives in any one day. The whole matter boils down to the startling fact that out of a total of 2400 working hours (300x8) in a year the school uses only 900 at the very outside. When these figures are made the basis of our calculations it is little wonder that we are "unable to complete the prescribed course" and still less that the profession offers less in the way of remuneration than does any other line of effort, and we are furthermore driven to the conclusion that the facts in the case almost, if not wholly, justify the present situation.

I would not have my readers jump to the conclusion that I would have school run in quite the same fashion as a soap factory or a machine shop, or that I had lost sight of the vital or human element involved in the school business; but I trust that the argument hereinafter set forth may bring some of the profession to the conclusion that if a little more of the "soap factory" or "machine shop" methods were wisely and intelligently applied to the school business, we might make a more creditable showing at the conclusion of our work.

There are two opposing factors that must be considered in the revision of the school year that make the problem very difficult of solution. The first, and surely the most important, is the limit of the ability of the child. The present school day of five hours is out of line with all psychological and physiological data. There is no warrant under the sun why we should not provide more time *each day* for play and physiological development of the child, instead of massing all his play time into the three

hottest months of the year. But more of this later. The second factor relates to the first; and just as we should not dare to use up all the child's vitality for mental development we should make a far greater demand upon the vitality of the GROWN and MATURE people who have this training to do and who receive pay for doing it. If it is true that the teacher's time and ability to teach are circumscribed by the same conditions that measure the child's, then we are doing the thing just in the right way; but the facts as regard the capabilities and capacities for sustained effort and endurance on the part of the teacher on the one hand and the child on the other would warrant a totally different conclusion. As at present arranged the average school day is a mean between the limit of endurance of the child and that of the teacher. The child's day is too long and the teacher's is not long enough. I must digress here long enough to set straight a misconception of what real teaching is. I have been confronted with the argument that no teacher can stand more than five hours of real teaching in a single day. Now if teaching is preaching and lecturing and thinking FOR others, then I must confess that no teacher can stand more than five hours of it; nor four, nor three, nor two, and hardly one. But teaching is not preaching nor lecturing and thinking FOR others. True, it partakes of this at times, necessarily, but real teaching is calm, deliberate, restful, sympathetic guiding of others. Not thinking FOR others, but giving others something to make them think for themselves, and calmly, patiently, deliberately, sympathetically waiting for the genuine reaction—the thought—from others. A *real* teacher rarely bursts into the nerve racking lecture method, particularly in the handling of children.

Now, these factors are at strict variance with each other. The child's day is too long and the teacher's day is too short. The one must be shortened and the other lengthened, if we are to progress in this very vital thing of revising the school calendar on a scientific and logical business basis. Any basis of revision is going to have certain inherent objectionable features, we all admit; but certainly it can be made far better than at present. While attending the session of the Department of Superintendence at Detroit, in February of this year, I listened to three papers that impressed me very forcibly. The

first was by Dr. Calvin R. Kendall, State Commissioner of Education, of Trenton, N. J. The burden of his address was that the school has so little of the child's time during the formative period of its life that it cannot be expected to complete the great work with which it is charged; that the home must co-operate and supplement the work of the teacher, etc. Another was by Mr. Fred M. Hunter, Supt. Schools of Lincoln, Nebraska. The subject of his address was Community Activities as a Means of Motivation; that is, using the child element in the community as a civic organization. Another was by Mr. J. H. Beveridge, Supt. of Schools of Council Bluffs, Iowa, on Vacation Club Work. The point of all this is, that in one we have the school attempting to shift its burden onto the home; in another we are attempting to use the child in school ALL day and then make him take up civic duties as well; and in the third we are attempting to use an organization of children after we have disorganized them. Now, if all these things are desirable, (and we all agree that they are), then why not rearrange our basis to take care of them? The home simply cannot take the responsibility of the school. Some may, but THE HOME, as we all understand the term, is not equipped to do this work and the school must complete its work. As for Community Activity we must teach it and do it, but we must give the little man and the little woman time for it. If we are to do any Vacation Work we must have the organization with which to do it.

My plan for a revision of the year to meet the growing demands of civilization is, I admit, far from perfect. I present it in a form that, while it may be usable, is capable of readjustment and reorganization to meet the needs and demands of local conditions.

First. Shorten the school day for the child to a maximum of three hours. The basis for this may be tested by any teacher and the conclusion is irresistible. Distribute among the third and fourth grades "Strike out a" test sheets and the average time to strike out 100 a's will be 4 min., 13 sec., at nine o'clock when the children are perfectly fresh. At ten o'clock make the same test again giving them the 4 min. 13 sec., and the average will fall to 93. Make it again at 11 o'clock and it shows a still further drop to 87. At twelve o'clock it has gone down to 82. This test presumes that the children have been kept bus-



ily engaged with mental work between tests. Now they go home to dinner and we expect them to come back 100 per cent as in the morning. As a matter of fact their blood is in their stomachs where it ought to be and we, who ought to know better, attempt to draw it away from its proper function, to do something else. Their vitality has risen, to be sure, but only to 91. At two o'clock, after one hour's strenuous work, it has dropped to 87 and at three o'clock it has fallen to 80—2 per cent lower than at twelve. In other words, the vitality falls to a lower level by 2 per cent in two hours after dinner than it does in the three hours before dinner. The answer to this is that we ought not to use the child longer than twelve o'clock and then we ought to turn him out in the open under a competent supervisor of play. This same test applied to children after they have had their dinner, but who have not been in school during the morning, shows that their vitality, while it is below 100 per cent, is not so low as 91 per cent, as with the child who has been subjected to mental strain during the morning. The average shows 96 per cent.

Second. Lengthen the day of the teacher. By dividing the school up into two shifts, morning shift and afternoon shift, each working three hours, the teacher can handle them both. This will cut down the working force of teachers by one half and the salaries of the remaining picked teachers can therefore be increased to almost double what it is at present and be paid in twelve monthly installments instead of nine. This sort of contract would appeal to the very best teaching talent and would tend to hold them in the service. The organization of teachers would be a permanent thing, instead of a constantly changing one as at present. In my own case, where I am now able to offer only \$55 a month for nine months, I then would be able to offer \$70 a month for twelve months. Certainly this must appeal to the very best teachers and offers them a *whole* job rather than the *half* job they now hold. The twelve months contract does not presuppose twelve months' service as one might infer from the above. There must be some vacation for the child and this necessarily means an enforced vacation for the teacher. But she should not be penalized for having to leave off her work when she is perfectly able and willing to go on with it. The session must be length-

ened from one hundred and eighty days to two hundred and sixty. The Saturday holiday, a relic of the past, must go. There is no earthly reason why we should break up a week's work by closing up the place of business on Saturday. The school calendar would start August 20 and close July 10. This would give forty days vacation, which, together with the week at Christmas, is even then out of all proportion to the necessities of either pupil or teacher. But the school system of our country is a direct outgrowth of our social organism and any disturbance is felt even to its remotest roots. Our lives have crystallized around the school and we must go slowly in any plan to change from what we now have.

It would be doing the thing half way if we stopped here with our plan. With half of the school population out of school every morning and the other half out in the afternoon, other problems begin to stare us in the face. But right here is the place for our community activity, our vacation clubs, and the other end of the duty of the home which we have mentioned elsewhere. The establishment of properly equipped playgrounds and the supervision of them, the organization of Junior Chambers of Commerce, School Gardens, Canning Clubs, Corn Clubs, Military Training for boys and Folk Dancing for girls, Manual Training, Shop Work, Domestic Science—all would answer this question. Then we would not have to displace some of the reading, writing, and arithmetic of the regular schedule for these other activities. Education is a process of training, whether in school or out, whether predetermined or accidental, whereby we may be brought to react subconsciously or automatically to the stimuli of our environment in a healthy, normal manner. The business of the school is to equip the children entrusted to it so as to meet this condition. As at present arranged (which is nothing more nor less than accidental), it simply cannot do it. A revision is necessary and the time is at hand. The operation of the plan means a school day fitted to the physical and psychological necessities of the child. It means a wider use of school buildings and a lower per capita equipment cost. It means a fuller use of the child element in the community. It means a decrease in juvenile delinquency. It means a better paid force of operatives and consequently a better class of operatives. It means a maximum break of

only six weeks in the educative process of the child. It means no disorganization of the machinery of the school. It means a whole job for the teacher instead of a half job. It means continuity of effort on the part of pupils. It means closer supervision. It means that the functional element in the education of the child is at a maximum. It means a more efficient expenditure of the public funds for education. It means more attention paid to the re-action of the educative process and less attention to the action of the process itself. It means a saving of one year in five in the time of the child. It means better training for the slow fellow, and every advantage for the bright chap. It means better functioning of the school in the civilization of today. It means EVERYTHING.

D. A. DUTROW

### TWILIGHT SONG

Sweet echoes sound from the garden wall  
At eveningtide when the shadows fall;  
'Tis the soft, sweet note of the whip-poor-will  
Who sings to his love when the world is still.

But all he has ever been heard to say  
Is "whip-poor-will," in his soft, sweet lay.  
She surely must love to hear his name,  
As she sits in the grass, that dark brown dame.

I wonder if she ever has told him so.  
And why it is just at evening glow,  
That he chooses to sing his song so dear,  
Which we, like the little wife, love to hear?

ANNA BRUNK

## DESIGNING AS AN ELEMENT IN THE PREPARATION OF THE HOMEMAKER

To know of what value any one thing may be, is to discover just how much it is needed. We have but to look around us with eyes only half open to see the great need of a better knowledge of design—to see in its broad, full sense the crying need of it. As to the method of handling it, there are as many ways as there are teachers to teach it; and *the best way* is to be ascertained only by the results each may show for his or her efforts.

In the first place, then, take the young ladies as they come into our schools. Too often without any idea of the real meaning of design, they seem to link the name in some strange way only with the man who manufactures materials or the one who may make them up for use; and they seem to look on it as some unholy rite practised by these people and as nothing with which they themselves have anything to do. One of our aims is to make these students realize the importance of taking it into the every-day life, making design a familiar friend, and bringing it in to sit in judgment on almost everything they may do. If they buy a hat, the design must be the deciding factor; when purchasing dress material or a ready-made gown, design must again settle the question. It must be applied to the paper they may buy for the wall, to the purchase of a single piece of furniture, or to the selection of the furnishings of a whole house—not forgetting that due attention to design is quite as necessary in choosing the kitchen furnishing as in selecting that for the most pretentious drawing room; in the laying out of a garden as well as in drawing a design for a sofa pillow. We aim to make the students understand that the design must be one that is true to type, appropriate for the materials selected and for the use to which these materials are to be put. If for personal use the acid test is whether it is the right one for their peculiar style and whether it will be becoming when worn. Whether it be a case of refurnishing one room or designing the decoration of many, the design must meet the requirements of size, height, number of openings, light exposure, and the use for which the rooms are intended.

It would take too long to follow all the methods we use to excite interest in these things and to bring them into a close touch with the facts tied up in the term

*Designing*; but I shall outline the one we use in house-decoration. In the first place, we require a drawing, true to scale, of a house plan. We give the number of rooms required,—living room, hall, dining room, library, kitchen, butler's pantry, bedrooms, and bath. But we let the students arrange these as they see best. These plans are then gone over and criticized. Any faults are then pointed out in the arrangement of rooms, size of rooms, or in other respects. The placing of stairs and allowance of space for them is one of the hardest problems with which we have to contend. After we succeed in getting a good plan and we do get some splendid ones in spite of the fact that the girls at first protest that they can not draw a plan of any kind we select one of the best and proceed to the furnishing of the different rooms. Here at first we use the most up-to-date publication we can get on House Decoration and study the designs for each room in turn. And right here we marry color harmony, color scheme, to design and keep them in constant companionship ever after. Beginning with the hall, we study the designs appropriate for hall furnishing, woodwork and its finish, wall covering, rugs and hangings, everything, even to lighting fixtures. We then enter the living room and use the same method of selection, taking into consideration light exposure, space, etc. Here we study different styles and designs of living room furniture; for we find many distinct styles of furniture, each requiring its own peculiar style of hangings, rugs, paper, and wood finishing. We do not want to make the mistake of putting Chippendale and Sheraton and oriental rugs with walls and wood work that cry for Mission, or to put our English oak and black walnut into a room made ready for period furniture and cut glass and French gilt. And here I may state that, in spite of some adverse criticism of our giving up time to the study of period furniture and oriental rugs and to the history of both, our critics saying that too few girls will ever have any use for oriental rugs and period furniture, I do believe it is of real value, altho this may be true, that they will not be able to purchase these things. We do not think that, altho none of us may be fortunate enough to own any one of the old masterpieces of painting or sculpture, this is any reason why we should *know* nothing about them, and so lose the great pleasure we do derive from this study—the cultural and

refining effect which they have on all who do give time to the contemplation of their marvelous colors and wonders of design.

I feel that we ought to give students the view from the mountain top of design, as shown in the marvels of color harmony and design in oriental rugs, and in their history, and of period furnishing and its history, as well as to lead them in the valley of mediocre design as shown in the so-called popular-priced goods. Do not misunderstand me to say that none of the cheaper goods are of good design, for that would not be true. But the eye must be *first trained* to the true lines of good design before it can pick out the good from the bad.

I know that the general impression seems to prevail that when you talk of a special design for a house or a room or a hat and gown it means an extravagant outlay. We are trying to disabuse our students' minds of this idea and to inculcate, instead, the truth that in many discarded things, thrown away because of seeming uselessness, may be found beauty of outline and truth of design that need only the trained eye to discover their merits. These things, with a little thought and personal effort, can be restored to their former beauty and usefulness. We strive to teach the girls also that it is quite as possible to express a high degree of appreciation of art and design in the simple matter of placing and grouping of furniture in a room or in the hanging of pictures on the wall as in the design for a splendid structure, a group of marble figures, or anything else that calls for expression of design. We are trying to prepare their minds to cope with any emergency that may confront them along the line of educational work; and I think it is important to prepare them for intelligent appreciation of good and bad design and color harmony. How often do we see a person of splendid mind, highly educated,—one who commands the esteem and almost veneration of others for his or her high attainments,—who lacks absolutely all knowledge of design and color harmony, who is in consequence markedly conspicuous by reason of peculiarities of his or her home and personal adornment. We pardon and excuse them, of course, and do homage to their great minds and attainments. But how unnecessary it all is! Why need we have to do that? Why should their message to humanity "suffer loss" to this extent, because of a handicap that might be overcome?

The method we pursue in furnishing this living room holds good in all the rest of the house. We decide on some color scheme. We do this by selecting some one object that will be used in this room—a picture, a vase, or the rugs, for these in most cases prove the foundation for our inspiration for our color scheme and design for the entire room. This basis decides the color of our walls, subject to our light exposure, the paint of our woodwork, if painted, the hangings for windows and doors, the style and finish of our furniture, and every little detail of our design for the decoration and furnishing of this room.

In spite of their protests that they cannot make original designs for this work, we get some splendid ones. Color schemes for house decorations, wall paper, furniture covering, stencil patterns for use in carrying out decorative schemes for various rooms show at times marked ability and a high appreciation of artistic value in house decoration. In our other classes, too, for hats, gowns, etc., they make designs for the complete outfitting of a lady, planning the proper and appropriate gowns and all the little adjuncts of the toilet, describing material and style as well as the cost and the necessary amount of material.

We find that as a result of this work in design they dress in better taste, have a truer understanding of the art of combination of colors, and are able to judge the merits of goods as measured up to the standard of good or bad design. In addition to this, we encourage them when in doubt to look to nature; for the Great Designer never makes any mistakes. He does not line up the trees in rigid rows, but has placed them in varying heights, and even in changing shades of green. The mountains and hills, too, are broken into graceful lines, and the rivers and rills flow in curving lines of wondrous beauty; while to man it was left to draw straight lines and bring the curves of nature's flowers into so-called conventional designs that, of course, have their proper place and use in our present scheme of life. We point, too, to nature's symphonies of color harmony,—how she masses vivid color against vivid color with never a jar or a clash; for always, if you look closely, there will be a neutralizing tint somewhere, so that there is never a note of discord. The more we study nature, the more we know the true value of design and the wonders of color schemes.

RUSSEL B. SHRIVER

## THE NEWSPAPER AS LABORATORY MATERIAL FOR THE RURAL SCHOOL

The daily newspaper and the weekly news-magazine are slowly finding their way as "text-books" in the course of study in the public schools of America. To the average man of affairs who is not aware of the fact that the entire system of education in this country is passing thru a period of revolution and upheaval, this statement about using the newspaper as a text-book in school will sound like one of the many fads and "isms" of "modern" education. In truth, the practical man of business life has a very poor opinion of the general run of school folks. He has a vague feeling that "school teachers" are all right in their way; but their way, according to Mr. Practical Man, is not the way of the real world of flesh and blood and dollars and hard-knocks.

During the last twenty years the leaders in the education world have come to the conclusion that there is much truth in the practical man's view of schools and school teachers. As a result, the world of education has been undergoing a period of self-examination, a sincere searching of the heart. Hurried on by the necessities of actual life and the spur of the modern scientific spirit, the schools of the country have moved far away from the ancient mooring of theory and impracticable studies. The new "learn by doing" method has come in and hung up its hat. The laboratory method is here to stay. The teachers of English, modern languages, history, and mathematics have borrowed the laboratory idea from the instructor in physics and chemistry and made it their own.

The outstanding fact of the present is that your Mr. Practical Man is just twenty years behind the time. The schools and school teachers that he criticizes and tolerates are those of an age that is dead; those of his own school days. If the practical man could "go to school" just one week he would have a tremendous awakening.

The "new education" is with us. Instead of spending our time studying about things, we are studying the



things themselves. This far-reaching principle is the present-day keynote in both the grades and in the high school. For extreme illustrations, observe the work in the physical and chemical laboratories; the visits to the ice and electric plants and other local industries. In short, instead of studying about electricity the modern school studies electricity itself. Years ago the boy and girl studied botany; now they study flowers. In the history class, old pictures, old books, relics, talks with war veterans—all are used and emphasized to bring a keener sense of realism. The new idea is spreading like a contagion and we are just at the beginning of the new order of education.

Under the new system of education the daily newspaper and weekly news-magazine are getting a foothold in every department of the school. In the departments of English and history, however, they find their widest and most immediate use.

In many progressive communities school boards are furnishing high schools with such periodicals as *The Literary Digest*, *The New York Independent*, *The Outlook*, and *World's Work*. In a few schools, small classes in English and in history are required to buy certain news-magazines as routine "text-books," or laboratory material.

A striking illustration of the laboratory method is furnished by a teacher of history in a New York high school. Last September when his classes filed in the teacher assigned a lesson from *The Outlook* and asked the class to take some notes on the war in Europe and on the Mexican situation. This teacher was a psychologist and philosopher. The old-fashioned method of teaching left the pupils with the impression that history is "events in the past." This teacher doubtless succeeded in impressing the cardinal fact upon these boys and girls that history is a thing of the present. Not infrequently a pupil is heard to complain: "I do not like history; the past does not interest; I am interested in the present and the future." The newspaper brings home to the boy or girl the "nowness" of history.

The European war and the Mexican problem are live subjects with practically every boy and girl in school today. Progressive teachers of history, finding a ready-

made interest in these topics, will hardly experience any real difficulty in making the transition to past wars in Europe and to past difficulties with Mexico. It is entirely natural that the alert boy or girl, with interest awakened in the present European conflict, with the accounts of the German drives into France and Belgium would be eager to know about the German drives in the campaign of 1870, whereas a perfunctory study of the Franco-Prussian War, according to the old-fashioned methods, would bring the same weariness and disgust for "history." No doubt many a teacher is experiencing results like this since the beginning of the war.

Several of the news-magazines, notably *The Outlook*, *World's Work*, and *The Literary Digest*, are anticipating the needs and desires of the students and are publishing historical articles that naturally follow the current accounts of the war.

One of the great tasks that lies ahead for the normal schools of the country is, to use a newspaper phrase, to "connect up" the newspaper and news-magazine with the rural schools. For the teacher of English and history the newspapers constitute the very best laboratory equipment, brought right to their doors for a nominal price—thanks to the rural free delivery and the parcel post systems. But this task of the normal school is no easy one. English and history are perhaps the most difficult subjects to teach. The old-time method, let it be repeated, of assigning lessons and hearing them, is not teaching. No amount of apology and explanation can convince the average man or woman of today that they made the most of history in their school days. The average man knows that Columbus discovered America in 1492; he knows the broad results of the Revolutionary War and the War between the States; he knows that Napoleon was a great European warrior; but you must not ask for particulars. All this is being changed under the inspiration of the new order of things; and the right use of the newspapers in the classroom is going to help along the revolution.

A few superior teachers of today are doubtless working out their own plans, but the modern problem of education is in the hands of the average teacher and the average teacher needs to have a plan mapped out for

her; she sorely needs the standards to be set for her by trained specialists.

So much for the class in history. In the teaching of English endless uses can be made of the daily newspaper and the weekly news-magazines. As models of clear, elegant English, the leading weekly news-magazines will measure up to the highest standards. Dr. Heck, of the University of Virginia, advises high school teachers to study the style of such writers as Irvin Cobb and Samuel Blythe, whose articles in the Saturday Evening Post are read far and wide. Their ready and immediate appeal to the man in the street has given them a wide popularity. It may truly be said that they are writing history "while you wait." For good specimens of English the leading news-magazines of America can furnish classes in English with models for study. The fact that present-day subjects are dealt with will prove an aid to most students who find it difficult to maintain a lively interest in the classics of other centuries. Ample material is afforded for work in outlining; for reconstruction; and for general analysis and criticism.

Coming still closer home, the local county daily or weekly ought to prove of some service to the rural teachers of English. William J. Bryan once said that editors of daily papers do not have time to write editorials. They do not have time to think; the weekly editorial writers must do the thinking for the reading population, suggests Mr. Bryan.

There is a great half-truth in what Mr. Bryan says. Another writer, with a somewhat keener appreciation of the situation, commends the daily paper both for the manner in which it flashes the world-news before its readers on the front page every morning before breakfast and also for the instinctive, sparks-from-the-anvil manner in which it hits off the comments on the big news of the world.

The rural teacher who tries to introduce the newspaper into his classroom should bear in mind the fundamental difference between the daily paper and the weekly news-magazine. He should impress upon his students what the daily paper is, and what it is not. He should carefully distinguish between the lightning impressions and hurried array of facts that fill the daily paper and

the carefully sifted, digested, assorted, classified, and expurgated pages of the weekly. Each fills a vital place in the life of the American public. One is the supplement to the other. Both can make excellent laboratory material for the rural teacher of English—provided they are properly appraised before being presented to the student.

Furthermore, the reaction upon the newspaper itself is worthy of consideration. Few newspaper men would not be stimulated to issue a better paper, if they knew that they were furnishing recognized and accredited laboratory material for the schools of their own counties. Not only this, but it would bring the local paper in closer touch with the schools as news centers.

The enthusiastic teacher, just returned from a wide-awake normal school, would be eager to put some of the theories into practise. Soon he would have his pupils gathering news and putting it into shape for the local paper. Articles, compositions, and letters would be not simply credited as work in English but would be forwarded to the local newspaper office for use as "copy." Think, too, of the interest with which teacher and students would look forward to the next issue of the home paper, to see what happened to their contributions.

To the rural teacher who has not given the newspaper question mature thought, it is suggested that she assign "My Home Paper" as a composition early in the school year. She might secure a number of representative exchanges from the nearest office and show them to the students, calling attention to the individuality of each paper, the variance in headlines, in type, in selections of the news, in special features and in the general make-up of the advertising pages. She should give special attention to the editorial column.

The local daily can be used in the English class in a number of ways, which will suggest themselves to the ingenious teacher. One profitable exercise is to select some brief article from a paper and tell the facts to the class and get each student to write an article. A comparison with the article in the paper will be full of interest. Also, teachers can read articles and get students to write headlines to fit; or, better, at first, the pupil should be given some practise in writing "heads". In con-

nection with all this, analysis and correction of errors and criticism of style and choice of words can be done by the students. This kind of work will be far superior to the ancient task of grinding out a composition on some subject remote from the child's life and experience.

If the normal schools thruout the country should take up this work in earnest, who can estimate the effect that it would have upon the teaching force? It would introduce the entire body of teachers to the best current literature of the present day. It is a lamentable fact that a vast number of rural teachers take but a remote interest in newspapers and the news-magazines. It is possible that they did not get into touch with the best news-weeklies in their early home life; they did not have time during the student days in graded and high school; and naturally they have been trained away from this phase of life itself. And here we come back to the philosophy of the entire movement. This is but a phase of the effort that is revolutionizing modern educational methods; that is, to bring the outside world into the classroom and into the vital experience of the student and the teacher. As has been said so many times, the problem is to teach life itself instead of making school a preparation "for life."

It is not within the province of this article to suggest a plan by which state normal schools may be able to bring their students in closer touch with the newspaper and news-magazine. Doubtless, most normals have already made a start in the right direction. It remains for the district school boards to become alive to their opportunities. A practical newspaper man once suggested that he would be glad to turn over the news and editorial departments of his paper to a group of normal students and let them have a genuine object lesson by doing. Another suggestion is to adopt a "Newspaper Day" thruout the State, in which normal schools, public schools, and state institutions would take part. We have flag days, good road days, mother's days—why not a newspaper day?

J. HENRY ROBERTSON

## INTERNATIONAL LAW AND WORLD PEACE

Today the advocates of international peace seem to have little to encourage them, but the need of peace among the nations has never been so apparent. As a community is more likely to install a system of pure water after an epidemic of typhoid fever than before, so a war-oppressed nation is more willing to consider an organization for the promotion of peace when the price of war is being paid than when it is dreaming of territorial expansion and new markets.

It is the purpose of this article to point out the inadequacy of international law as it now exists, and to appeal for a federation of the states of the world that will have power to create and enforce a perfect international law which will promote world peace.

The laws of any one nation consist of those rules of human conduct which may be enforced in its courts. In the United States such laws are found in the national constitution, in the statutes of Congress, in the state constitution, in the acts of the state legislatures, in the ordinances of cities and other local governments, and in the decisions of judges. When an offence is committed in the United States it is a comparatively easy matter for the offended person to get redress in some one of the regularly established courts. International law consists of those rules and limitations which the sovereign states of the civilized world agree to observe in their intercourse and their relations with each other. This law embraces usages ripened into approved customs, conventions, and treaties. For many international disputes there cannot be found any clearly defined customs; and if definitely expressed conventions and treaties are violated there is no impartial government to enforce them. For the settlement of national disputes there are impartial national courts and national executives, both superior to the parties to the suit; but there is no world court to settle a dispute between two national states, and no impartial executive to enforce the decisions rendered by public opinion. Thus resort must be had either to arbitration or to war.

Because there is no international court to decide the

justice of international claims and no impartial executive to enforce the laws, some writers maintain that so-called international law is not law at all—merely customs and national agreements which governments commonly observe, under the force of public opinion, unless the temptation to disregard them becomes stronger than the honor of the government in power at the time.

Because international law is imperfect and not always observed, as instanced by Germany's violation of the treaty for the permanent neutralization of Belgium<sup>1</sup>, is no reason for depreciating the value of international law, but rather a reason for regretting that it is not a more perfect law, and for straining our vision into the future when international law will be legislated into a code as definite as a national code and when there will be a permanent world court to adjudge international disputes, and a world police to enforce the judgments. This would mean a federal World State.

So long as the national flag is hoisted above the flag of humanity in our imagination, the World State is an impossibility; and international law must remain an imperfect law just as national law remained imperfect for so many centuries. But a vision must precede a realization, and the flag of humanity must fly upon a flagpole of vision until an international mind emerges from the numerous provincial minds and can appreciate the symbol of the greater state—a World State.

Notwithstanding the imperfections of international law, it has made peaceful relations between nations the *rule* and war the *exception*; and it has furnished a basis for the settlement of international disputes by means of voluntary arbitration. Derby's work on *International Tribunals* lists 471 cases of arbitration in the nineteenth century, and there have been 125 cases of arbitration since the beginning of the twentieth century. Of these the *Alabama* claims case, the Alaskan boundary case,

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(1) Other recent instances of treaty violations are the breach of the Algeciras Act of France, with the backing of Great Britain, in 1911; the breach of the Berlin Treaty by Austria, with the backing of Germany, in the annexation of Bosnia-Herzegovina in 1908; the breach by Russia, with Great Britain's consent, of the stipulations of the Anglo-Russian Convention, securing the independence and integrity of Persia; and the recent breach by Japan of the Anglo-Japanese Treaty in relation to China.

and the Newfoundland fisheries case settled disputes which might easily have resulted in war between the United States and England.

The Permanent Court of Arbitration was established by the first Hague Conference (1889), and improved by the second Hague Conference (1907). This so-called permanent court consists of a panel of judges composed of four or less from each state, chosen for a term of six years. These judges do not reside at The Hague, but when two states voluntarily agree to arbitrate a dispute five judges may be chosen. Each state involved selects two judges (only one of its own citizens), and the four thus selected name the fifth. These five judges resort to The Hague, where the international court-house donated by Mr. Carnegie is located, and hear the case. The International Bureau, consisting of the diplomatic representatives accredited to The Hague, arrange for such meetings and have custody of the archives of the court. However, no state is compelled to arbitrate its disputes. This court is provided merely for those who prefer peace to war, and voluntarily resort to it.

This stage in the development of an international court corresponds to the second stage in the development of the Roman national system of courts. During the first stage of the development of the Roman judicial system the private litigant submitted his controversy to an arbiter of his own choice for decision according to the conscience of a good and impartial man; during the second, the magistrate or judge was chosen from an official list or panel; and during the third stage the administration of justice was regarded as the duty and therefore the right of the state, and a judicial system was prepared for and imposed upon the citizen.

When W. J. Bryan was Secretary of State the United States entered into treaties with a number of states, including England and France, agreeing that should a dispute arise between the United States and one of these treaty states neither would declare or wage war upon the other until the expiration of one year, so that there would be time for conciliation or arbitration.

In 1914 the American Branch of the League to Enforce Peace came into existence with William Howard



Taft as president and A. Lawrence Lowell as chairman of the executive committee. The definite proposals of this League are as follows:

We believe it to be desirable for the United States to join a league of nations binding the signatories to the following:

*First:* All justiciable questions arising between the signatory powers, not settled by negotiation, shall, subject to the limitations of treaties, be submitted to a judicial tribunal for hearing and judgment, both upon the merits and upon any issue as to its jurisdiction of the question.

*Second:* All other questions arising between the signatories and not settled by negotiations, shall be submitted to a council of conciliation for hearing, consideration and recommendation.

*Third:* The signatory powers shall jointly use forthwith both their economic and military forces against any one of their number that goes to war, or commits acts of hostility, against another of the signatories before any question arising shall be submitted as provided in the foregoing.

*Fourth:* Conferences between the signatory powers shall be held from time to time to formulate and codify rules of international law, which, unless some signatory shall signify its dissent within a stated period, shall thereafter govern in the decisions of the Judicial Tribunal mentioned in Article One.

Of these four definite proposals the first provides that disputes growing out of the interpretation of a principle of international law or a treaty shall be decided in a legal manner by an international court. The second proposal provides that disputes not growing out of the interpretation of a law shall be investigated by an impartial council of conciliation. A decision by such a body could not well be disregarded by the losing state. Moreover, mere delay will often prevent war. The ultimatum of Austria to Servia with its forty-eight hour's time-limit, and that of Germany to Russia with its twelve hour's time-limit made conciliation impossible in the case of the present European War. The third

proposal does not bind the members of the League to accept the decision of the tribunal or the award of the council of conciliation; it merely obliges the members to prevent by threat of armed intervention a breach of the international peace before the matter in dispute has been submitted to arbitration. If thereafter the nation is willing to ignore the award and to face the public opinion of the world, it may do so.

In connection with the third proposal, that the nations mutually compel each other to arbitrate or attempt conciliation before waging war, Mr. Lowell draws an interesting comparison. "It may be of interest to recall the way in which the medieval custom of private war was abolished in England. It was not done at one step, but gradually, by preventing men from avenging their own wrongs before going to court. The trial by battle long remained a recognized part of judicial procedure but only after the case had been presented to the court, and only in accordance with judicial forms. This had the effect of making the practise far less common, and of limiting it to the principals in the quarrel instead of involving a general breach of the peace in which their retainers and friends took part. Civilization was still too crude to give up private war, but the arm of the law and the force in the hands of the crown were strong enough to delay a personal conflict until the case had been presented to court. Without such a force the result could not have been obtained."

Elsewhere Mr. Lowell says: "Most people who have been thinking seriously about the maintenance of peace are tending to the opinion that a sanction of some kind is needed to enforce the observance of treaties and of agreements for arbitration. Among the measures proposed has been that of an international police force, under the control of a central council which could use it to preserve order throught the world. At present such a plan seems visionary." This proposal does seem visionary, but visions sometimes so take possession of great men that genius for organization makes possible tomorrow that which is impracticable today.

Laws are not generally obeyed unless violation of them is followed by punishment, but punishment cannot be impartially administered by the world until there is

a court to decide which nation is in the wrong. A world court cannot successfully administer international laws until they are further perfected, nor can it enforce its judgments unless supported by a union of the world powers. It is really a World State that is needed.

The World State, when it comes, will be a federal state; and it will embrace the states now composing the family of nations just as the United States of America was formed by the union of thirteen states. The World State must have a constitution delegating a limited number of powers to the new federal union, but reserving most powers to the component members. As world customs become more homogeneous and commercial interests more inter-dependent, the powers of the World State must increase just as the powers of the United States of America are rapidly increasing at the expense of the powers of the forty-eight states.

The World State must have a legislative body composed of members representing the governments of the member states. Perhaps the legislature will be composed of two chambers—one consisting of an equal number of members from each state so as to safeguard the small states; the other consisting of a number of members bearing some relationship to the population or potential strength of the states.

The World State must have a court to hear international disputes just as the United States of America has its Supreme Court to hear interstate disputes.

And above all, the World State must have a police force, or shall we call it a world army, strong enough to prevent any state from imposing upon another contrary to law. Thus the World State would reduce the increasing cost of national armies and navies, as one world army and navy with contingents in the various countries for police duty would replace the fifty-odd large armies and navies of the separate powers. And further, war vessels and guns should be manufactured by the World State only, so that armament makers would have no motive to create war scares, and so that no power could show bad faith by secretly creating military stores.

The World State should regulate international diplomacy and prohibit international agreements which

create suspicion. For instance, by the clauses of the Morocco treaties Great Britain, France, and Spain looked forward to the partition of that country while publically guaranteeing its integrity and independence before the world. When Germany learned this she felt the need of a larger navy. Is it surprising?

The World State should bring about a world customs union to create an open door for commercial products, and thus remove an important cause of wars, namely, colonization for trade advantages, and competition for preferential tariffs.

If the tyranny of a monarch produces a civil war, the World State should intervene by force and determine by a fair election whether the existing monarchy is to continue or whether a more democratic government demanded by the rebels is to be substituted for it. So with any civil war; the factions should prepare their platforms and the World State should secure an election with an electorate determined by the world legislature. If a province of one state with a population of the nationality of another state favors being transferred to the other state the transfer should be permitted; if a colony votes for separation from the mother country it should be permitted to do so; and if a number of states desire to unite into a federal state they should be permitted to do so. Of course all of this interference with the sovereignty and integrity of states is radical; it is even tyranny against orthodoxy. But a World State should not guarantee the *status quo* as this would retard progress in absolute monarchies and backward states. The situation is this: unless a World State is given power to settle all matters that are commonly settled by war it cannot prevent war. Violence must be met by force until the world has higher ethics and a better civilization. Reformers are working for higher ethics, but in the meantime is it not well to substitute one world army for the fifty-odd national armies, and give the government of this army discretion and power to use force, if necessary, in the settlement of disputes?

The World State might overcome national prejudice by creating exchange lectureships for teachers and exchange fellowships for students. This opportunity given young men for travel would somewhat lessen their

desire for army life, which offers an opportunity for travel.

The instinctive fondness for a test of valor which is so strong in young men needs a moral equivalent. And if the world army prevents international wars the moral equivalent will be found. William James says: "It would be simply preposterous if the only force that could work ideals of honor and standards of efficiency into English or American natures should be the fear of being killed by the Germans or the Japanese. Great indeed is Fear; but it is not, as our military enthusiasts believe and try to make us believe, the only stimulus known for awakening the higher ranges of men's spiritual energy. The martial type of character can be bred without war. Strenuous honor and disinterestedness abound elsewhere. Priests and medical men are in a fashion educated to it, and we should all feel some degree of it imperative if we were conscious of our work as an obligatory service to the state. The only thing needed henceforth is to enflame the civic temper as past history has inflamed the military temper."

FRANK ABBOTT MAGRUDER

# THE NORMAL BULLETIN

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## EDITORIAL COMMENT

### THE ULTIMATE ASSET

It is but natural that in times when a moral chaos seems to characterize practically all international relations, when men are wondering how certain national standards can be so brazenly put forth as the foundations of national existence, with even a show of sincerity, that the question should suggest itself as to what constitutes, either in the individual or in any group, the real asset. What we are sometimes pleased to consider assets too frequently turn out to be only liabilities; the law, it is true, endeavors to safeguard human rights by exact definition, yet we are too familiar with the court proceedings that concern themselves with determining this very matter. Assets are quite frequently, moreover, merely what we are satisfied to regard as such, and, in themselves, are by no means of a very definitive nature. They are, in reality, such things for which there is more or less demand, and to which we accordingly attach an importance, whether the intrinsic value is present or not. But can any material thing form a perfect asset? Tho commonly accepted as such, there is always, even in the safest material guarantees, an ele-

ment of risk, a possibility that the asset will prove to be merely a fiction, a figment of the imagination.

What, then, can we safely regard as the ultimate asset? The answer, we believe, can be found in the celebrated words of the elder Morgan, in his testimony before a recent Congressional committee. Mr. Morgan was asked what he regarded as a safe security in a business transaction. "The only safe security," Mr. Morgan replied, "is Character." The great financier then recounted many instances in which the character of the individual or the firm was the only guarantee of the faithful performance of huge tasks or of the fulfillment of tremendous obligations.

Character, then, is not merely something for the moralist to descant upon; not something that will come in well when one is ready to die; it is an attitude toward life which determines one's real worth in all that concerns itself with the best in the business sphere or in any other department of life. Upon it reputations, to be sound and lasting, must be built. A man is known to be fair, square, and upright in all his transactions; he has met his obligations promptly and without failing; he is wholly reliable; when he has given his word, a bond could not be better. The character of such a man, and that alone, is the ultimate asset. That constitutes the only perfect security in human transactions.

#### MAKING PROPER PROVISION FOR THE SUBNORMAL CHILD

The efforts of the State Department of Public Instruction to bring to the attention of the people the great necessity of doing something quite definite to improve the condition of the subnormal child in our schools is worthy of the utmost encouragement. That there should be within our state something like twelve thousand children incapable of taking the education offered by our public school system, under the present conditions, furnishes material for some very serious thinking. Especially does this become an important matter, when we realize that under careful supervision these morons, as they are commonly called, may be trained to become, for the most part, reasonably good citizens; but in the ordinary course of affairs as at present administered, they

will very probably swell the ranks of the more or less vicious.

The moron is a mentally defective child; not necessarily abnormal to the extent of being in appearance in any way inferior to the average child. Therein, indeed, lies the great danger; such children, tho they will show by expert tests to be subnormal to a greater or less degree, are customarily classed only as bad, not interested in books, slow in work, or as having this or that set of negative characteristics. In possibly a large majority of such cases, they are defectives. They are cases for special teachers, for the work of an institution designed to do only this work; at least, they are cases that require some sort of separation from the rest of the group. To keep them with the normal children is a rank injustice to the latter, and a source of constant discouragement to the defectives.

The loss of interest, slowness to respond, and apathetic or morbid conditions of children may be accounted for simply in this way. They are not up to the normal; hence, they are failing to keep up with their classes; in spite of effort, they find the work too much for them. Punishment is meted out to them, instead of individual attention; they become constantly more and more ashamed, and confusion increases. The efforts of the teacher are unavailing, simply because they are gaged too high. Living in such an atmosphere for months and years, where practically nothing that is said or done is wholly intelligible, they become desperate, give up their work, and lapse into a mental state from which they seem incapable of escaping. The numbers of boys and girls belonging to this group, tho having certain capacity, soon drift, because of failure to receive any rational and effective ministrations, into social atmospheres where the requirements are not so exacting; and all ambition and desire to improve soon slip away and the descent is easy. As an accompanying trait, they usually lack the moral stamina, the control, necessary to make something of their lives.

The present campaign of education along this line the state has undertaken will have many good results; not the least of which will be to put the teacher on her guard as to the necessity of knowing the children under



her charge individually, of studying them more carefully than she does her text-books, and of teaching unmistakably within the reach of the minds of the children. While probably no state of the Union has done what she should have done in this matter, there is no reason why our own state should not become fully alive to this matter and extend its activities beyond the few larger systems in which a beginning has been made.

#### HE NEVER KNEW HE WAS A FAILURE

Some of the papers of a Middle West state recently gave a brief notice of the death of a man who, tho all his life a consistent failure, never realized his condition, but who was always hoping for and expecting, sooner or later, a pronounced success. The news notice was of the usual sort; incidentally, however, reference was made to the fact that the man was accounted by his fellows as a failure; but one who had never lost hope and had at the hour of his death the same abiding faith of his early manhood that he would eventually be a source of pride to his friends and relatives.

In the eyes of the world the man was a failure; that means he did not succeed in his business ventures; he did not have the power of sticking steadfastly at one undertaking, oblivious of all other obligations, indifferent to the rights of others; and with a purely selfish determination, he could not keep himself at his appointed task. He failed, not once, but often; failure indeed became somewhat habitual with him. He was pronounced a failure as a manager and a money maker.

But he never knew that he was a failure! Was indeed a life lived so buoyantly, so expectantly, so full of faith and hope, whatever the material rewards may or may not have been, a failure? Have we only one possible conception of success? Can it be that a mere material prosperity is the criterion of life success? The man with visions, with the eternal youth and cheer of God was a failure, because his business methods brought him only friends, the community's interest, a zest for life, and a high faith and a forward look, rather than dollars and cents!

The story is simply one of thousands that might be told, of the inability to strike the right note in life. The

man was trying to succeed in a department of life in which smaller men might have made a success; he never found himself, his work in life; and about his name is to be gathered only the thoughts of one who has tried his outing and made a failure. Whatever he was to his family, his friends, his community, in his life of great plans and forward-looking, is to be swallowed up in the stigma that the practical world puts upon the man who does not make his business pay. Tho an inspiration to thousands, he was not a success in advancing his own interests. The standards by which he was judged are, we feel sure, not the standards of the eternal years; in the larger sight of an omniscient God he cannot be accounted a failure.

Life and all it contains is what our attitude makes it; our successes and our failures are what we think of them. They can never be anything in themselves, either of failure or of success. A life of hope, a career marked by faith in the larger things of life, whatever be the outcome of those hopes and that faith, must be a success. Over the grave of such should be placed a monument, as proud as that of the greatest money-king or man of affairs, with the inscription upon it, GOD'S SUCCESS.

#### EDUCATIONAL FADS, FANCIES, AND FALLACIES

Under the very sweeping, general charge that teachers are always experimenting, but do not seem to be getting anywhere, Professor George Trumbull Ladd, of Yale University, reviewed in a recent *New York Times Sunday Magazine* from a distinctly old foggy standpoint some of the more notable efforts of the American public school system to solve its perplexing problems. Much of the criticism is apparently intended to hit a popular note; and one would think, if he did not know the eminent source from which the caustic comments came, that a desire for notoriety in bringing about a renewal of discussion of the principles was not an altogether foreign motive.

It is not difficult to find flaws in human institutions; most of the so-called fads, fancies, and fallacies, however, the author has so proudly set forth about American education have either been discarded by the educa-

tional leaders in this country or have been adopted after long-continued and adequately successful use. While these are, for the most part, not new objections to our system of education, yet they furnish suitable thought for a candid examination of this institution, and may help us to see the futility of setting forth ultimate solutions of the larger problems involved. One thing we can be quite sure of: if the principles so vigorously condemned here are really valuable and have the element of truth in them, they will persist; if they lack soundness, the more thoroly they are held to the light the sooner they will die.

The indictment, to which any unprepossessed professional educator could make a completely satisfactory reply, may be presented, as divested of explanatory matter, as follows:

(a) The American people have been unjustifiably boastful of the success of their peculiar system of education.

(b) The entire present system of education in this country is in a state of flux, a period marked by nothing else so plainly as by this, that it is a period of transition.

(c) The older system which the present supplanted, in spite of a lack of elaborate and standardized method and external control, was more serviceable to the family, society, and the state.

(d) The experimenting of school officials is not coming any nearer to turning out honest and useful citizens, helpful members of society.

(e) The psychological principles which are relatively unchanging should be accepted as a guide, and so limit the restless spirit of always seeking for new devices.

(f) The effort to standardize everything, to reduce the practise of every teacher to the same formula, to test the work of all pupils by the same examination papers, is a most pervasive and mischievous practise. It destroys individuality by weakening personal initiative, and so defeats and degrades the supreme end of all education, which is to strengthen and enrich the personal life.

(g) There is an exaggerated estimate of the value of

methods. The method of the old district school produced as good results as the modern elaborate systems.

(h) Spelling, with all the added devices, is not so well and effectively taught as formerly.

(i) Grammar should not be made a study in the public schools.

(j) Teachers are neither users nor lovers of good, plain English; nor do they read, except in so far as they are required to do so by their school duties.

(k) The use made of written examinations, for both teachers and pupils, operates in a disastrous way; the really important thing of personal qualifications is a neglected factor.

(l) Discipline thru the arousal of interest should not be substituted for the cultivation of interest as a means to the end of education thru the preparation of the mind by discipline.

(m) To make play into educative work is quite a different thing from trying to convert the work of education into mere play.

(n) A deplorable lack of discipline pervades the educational institutions, as well as the homes, of our country.

(o) Encouragement has been given to "option" in practically all phases of our educational system, until the whole has been shamefully degraded.

(p) The bid for numbers is resulting in the weakening of the courses given; for numbers will come only when the subjects of study are within the grasp of the students.

(q) We are relying upon the deceptive and injurious fallacy that public morals can be improved by other means than the cultivation of the conscience of the individual.

(r) Teachers of the positive sciences are discouraging that spirit of reverence with which man's moral nature should invest the universe.

(s) Our need is an improved personnel among our teachers, a stricter discipline, and the most truly "practical education" of an outcome of high moral characters.

## EDUCATIONAL NOTES

The National Education Association, meeting in annual session in New York City this month, will be attended by a multitude of teachers and school officials from every section of America and also from foreign countries. A most elaborate program, including topics of every possible interest along educational lines, has been prepared, and many very prominent names are listed as speakers for the various sessions. To give an idea of the magnitude of this great assembly, it may be said that about 30,000 out-of-town guests are expected to attend; the meetings will be held at the same time in twenty different meeting-places; and something like three-hundred addresses will be delivered according to schedule, to say nothing of the numerous informal discussions. This year a southern man, Dr. D. B. Johnson, President of Winthrop College, of Rock Hill, South Carolina, is President of this greatest of educational organizations in the world.

For interests outside of the meetings themselves no city in America offers greater opportunities for the members of the National Education Association than New York. Arrangements are being made locally to furnish guides to visitors who are compelled to economize their time in sight-seeing. Some items of special interest to educators and public welfare workers are: the various schools, of every conceivable type; the great higher institutions, Columbia University, New York University, the College of the City of New York, Pratt Institute, etc.; model flats, tenements, apartment houses, and hotels; playgrounds, infant milk stations, fresh air homes, hospitals of all types; art museums; summer roof gardens; the immigrant station; the juvenile, domestic relations, and night courts; giant newspaper offices; seaside resorts; industrial establishments of every description; and other attractions too numerous to mention.

Virginia must rank as one of the first of all the states in summer school attendance this year, according to the reports that have come in from the various summer schools maintained by the State Department of Public Instruction. All of the six weeks schools, and there are

now five of these—two more than in former years—report greatly increased attendance over last year, and the smaller, four weeks schools seem also to be well attended. Taken all together the attendance on these schools this year is a record-breaker and speaks well for the work in the classrooms during the coming session. Most of the summer schools have now passed the merely inspirational stage and have been put on a basis of real, solid work. Thousands of Virginia teachers are being better prepared every year for their important work by this means, which is the only means open to a great majority of them.

The usual round of commencements has passed into history, and hundreds of hopeful young lives have started out upon a new era of endeavor. They will be successful in a more or less degree according as they embrace the opportunities which will come to them for service. There can be no success apart from service. They have received, it is theirs now to give; and only as they do this will they justify the diplomas which have been placed in their hands and the sacrifices which noble-hearted men and women, teachers and parents, have made for them. May they have learned the lesson that true success consists not in surpassing someone else, nor even in equalling some one else; but in just doing from day to day the very best that one can do with the powers that are his and the opportunities that come to him, or that he can make for himself, for serving others!

Reports from alumni meetings at the various institutions show an increasing number of the "old boys", and of the girl graduates also, at the annual reunions. One institution in our state had last year sixteen out-of-town men present, whereas this year the attendance from outside the college community was nearly three hundred. This was the result of an unusually active campaign by a paid secretary and the arranging of a most attractive program of entertainment, with the slogan: "Your money will not be good in— on Alumni Day, June 13;" which was carried out to the letter. One loyal alumnus finally discovered an old negro janitor who was willing to open his palm long enough to receive a coin, but aside from that it was an impossibility to spend one's cash on that day. Perhaps herein lies a secret for other institutions.

In his latest report, the United States Commissioner of Education calls attention to what he considers notable progress in the direction of securing that equality of educational opportunity which is essential in a democracy. Some of the signs of such progress are greater interest in: the health and care of young children; home education of a better type; the kindergarten as an integral part of the public school system; longer terms and better salaries for teachers, especially in rural communities; compulsory school attendance; the adoption of the larger unit in the administration of rural schools; the raising of standards for teachers' certificates and increased facilities for preparing teachers professionally; the increased attendance of high schools; and the greater differentiation and better adjustment of courses to meet the varying needs of vocational life. Surely these are good signs of good times!

The importance of education as the chief bulwark of strength for any nation is strikingly shown by the fact that in the European nations torn by war very little reduction has been made in the appropriations of public funds for educational purposes. More attention is being paid to military education in practically all countries, those at peace as well as those at war. In neutral countries this is doubtless an outgrowth of a feeling that it is necessary to be prepared for defense against possible hostile invasion either during or immediately following the conclusion of the great European conflict.

The passing of the common roller-towel has been noted with great delight by all enthusiasts in the campaign for public health. The important measure covering this was introduced into the General Assembly by Delegate John M. Steck, of Winchester, one of the ablest members. The law applies to schools as well as to other public institutions and to industrial establishments. The common drinking-cup or dipper, the roller-towel, and the feather duster—these three—and may the fate of the last be even as that of the other two! All praise to our most efficient and wide-awake State Health Department for its great work for our schools as well as for the public health in general!

The so-called "six-six plan" of organization for high schools seems to be growing in popularity. It is shown

to be a measure of economy and a logical organization from an administrative standpoint. It results in holding more of the pupils in the advanced grades, and it separates the older children from the younger on playgrounds, in halls, etc., which is a decided advantage. The designation "Junior High School" has doubtless come to stay. It is now common to find, even in our conservative southern cities, junior high schools embracing the seventh and eighth grades and the first and second years of high school work. Two or more such schools as feeders to a Senior High School, embracing the third and fourth years of high school work, probably is the most economical and desirable plan when cities reach proportions to justify it. Usually the high school doing the senior work also offers the first and second years of the high school course for the section of the city nearest it.

Members of the faculty of the State Normal School at Harrisonburg are developing into authors of considerable prominence. Dr. John W. Wayland, who was already the author of a large number of volumes of importance, has added much to his reputation as a teacher and writer by his most valuable work on "How to Teach American History," recently published by the Macmillan Company. This book has met a most cordial and appreciative reception thruout the country. Within the last two months has appeared, also from the Macmillan press, a volume by Professor Cornelius J. Heatwole, entitled "A History of Education in Virginia." This work which is reviewed in this magazine, fills a real need; and, being from the pen of so able an educator, it cannot fail to be well received everywhere in educational circles. Material is now in the hands of the publishers (Lippincott) for a small, but extremely practical and useful, work on "Home Devices," compiled by Miss Rhea C. Scott, Assistant Agent for Home Demonstration Work in Virginia, a member of the faculty of this school for the past six years. This book will contain clear and concise directions, accompanied by drawings and illustrations, for making in the home at small cost numerous devices of a labor-saving and efficiency-increasing character for the busy housewife. It is understood that still other volumes are in course of preparation by members of this faculty, and their appearance will be awaited with interest.

J. A. B.



THE COMPREHENSIVE EXAMINATION PLAN OF  
COLLEGE ENTRANCE

It is a very significant fact that Mount Holyoke, Smith, Vassar, and Wellesley have just cut their cables and launched out jointly upon a new plan of college entrance similar to that adopted by Harvard, Princeton, and Yale. In 1919 admission by certificate will be entirely abolished by the four standard women's colleges mentioned. In the interim candidates may enter by certificate or by the present method of examination in all subjects or by the new plan of four "Comprehensive examinations," which plan is believed to combine the best elements of the certificate system and of the examination system.

The comprehensive examinations are to be only four in number, and are to test for intellectual power rather than merely to measure the amount of knowledge accumulated in the whole range of secondary school studies. The candidate is to choose her four subjects as follows: (1) English or history; (2) a foreign language; (3) mathematics or chemistry or physics; (4) a fourth subject, chosen by the applicant with the approval of the college committee.

In addition to these examinations will be required "a school report covering the entire record of subjects and grades for four years, and a statement from the school principal including an estimate of the applicant's scholarly interests, special ability, and character." Of course Bryn Mawr has long stood out alone as permitting no entrance except by examination.

Goucher has not fully entered into the foregoing plan with her sister colleges, but has worked out for her own purposes a more elastic scheme. She will continue to admit by certificate, as well as by either examination plan, relying much upon the statement of the secondary school principal that the candidate is of college calibre. But, once admitted, the student is expected to make good—is on probation as it were—and failing to measure up to college standards in the first semester, must lose her ranking.

In consequence of these new measures the custom of having weak students enter college burdened with condi-

tions will be done away with and the word "unit" will henceforth be tabooed from the vocabulary of these institutions.

E. P. C.

Irwin Shepherd, Secretary of the National Education Association from 1893 to 1912, passed away April 17th at his home in Winona, Minn., at the age of seventy-two.

He was intimately associated with the National Education Association for more years than any other man has been. It was his distinguished service as non-salaried Secretary that led to the creation of the office of paid secretary, in which capacity he was ranked as one of the most efficient executive secretaries in the United States. It was during his term of office that practically the entire Permanent Fund was accumulated, and in those years, largely thru his advice, not an investment of those funds was made that was of doubtful value.

—N. E. A. Bulletin.

The annual meeting of the National Education Association is of special interest this year to one member, James Cruikshank, former principal of New York City Schools and retired from active work in 1906. In 1857, a call was issued to the presidents of ten state teachers' associations for a meeting to be held in Philadelphia, August 26, for the purpose of organizing a national association. Forty-three persons were present representing twelve states. The National Teachers Association was formed at that time, but in 1870 the name was changed to that of the National Educational Association and later, in 1907, was given the name of the National Education Association of the United States. Mr. Cruikshank is the only present member of the Association who was at the Philadelphia meeting, and, so far as is known, is the only person now living who was present.

Many noted persons, not in the educational field, will appear on the various programs. William H. Taft, former president of the United States speaks on the topic, *Is There Waste in Modern Education?* His Excellency, the Chinese Minister, V. K. Wellington Koo, will discuss *Chinese Education; American Schools and*

*the Working Man* is the subject of Samuel Gompers, President American Federation of Labor.

So many departments and organizations meet at this time, so many programs of unusual interest are scheduled for the same time, that it makes it very difficult for one person to attend all of the meetings which he would most like to hear. Probably the most valuable part of the present meeting is the many breakfasts, luncheons, and dinners arranged for by different groups and which are to be used as a means for getting close to the vital problems of some particular phase of the educational world. Informal round table discussions are to be carried on at these times which will have a great influence on the future solution of many educational problems.

At the Detroit Meeting in February, a program was devoted to the study of promoting THRIFT by means of the schools. Saturday Evening, July 1, was devoted to this topic. Such topics as *Normal School Preparation for Thrift Teaching, Teaching Thrift thru the "Common Branches," Thrift and the Teacher*, show the trend of this movement.

It is of interest to the primary and kindergarten teachers to notice the progress made by the new organization, the *National Council of Primary Education*. A luncheon is scheduled at the Peg Woffington Coffee House on Thursday, July 6th. After the luncheon there is to be an informal discussion of the topic, "Our Overcrowded Primary Classes, and the Teacher's Responsibility for Public Opinion." The reports from local groups are expected to show a pleasing growth in all sections of the country.

#### VIRGINIA ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SCHOOLS FOR GIRLS

The tenth annual meeting of the Virginia Association of Colleges and Schools for Girls, held June 13-15 at Chatham Episcopal Institute, was a very delightful social occasion, school and town vying with each other in charming hospitality. It was a fine opportunity also for gathering information on questions affecting schools for women. The Virginia institutions represented were Blackstone, Chatham, Farmville, Freder-

icksburg, Harrisonburg, Hollins, Randolph-Macon Institute, Roanoke Institute, Sweet Briar, Virginia College, Virginia Intermont, and Westhampton. The heads of most of these institutions were present, making with other delegates and visitors a total of fifty in attendance. Dean Keller, of Westhampton, was among the newcomers welcomed by the association. Dean Lord, of Goucher College, Baltimore, was a most helpful guest. Neighborly greetings came from school for boys thru Principals William Holmes Davis, of Danville, and T. Ryland Sanford, of Chatham. Dr. Orië L. Hatcher, head of the Bureau of Vocations for Women is always a moving spirit at these meetings; and Miss Ella G. Agnew, who spoke on Canning Club Work, belongs to all the girls of Virginia.

The keynote of the meeting was information, more light on the subject of college entrance and advanced credit in special, as well as on the whole Junior College problem in general. The most important resolutions adopted by the association were perhaps the following:

- (1) That the Comprehensive Examination plan of college entrance recently adopted by Mt. Holyoke, Smith, Vassar, and Wellesley be carefully considered by the entire association during the coming year.

- (2) That we join with many other institutions of the country in asking that an extra set of the College Entrance Board examinations be given *in May* in order to meet the needs of our private schools.

- (3) That, in view of the continued and increasing agitation thruout the country of the question of junior college standards, we wait for further light before attempting recommendations of any final sort, but that junior colleges be urged to focus their efforts, at least for the present, on courses which are the natural content of the freshman and sophomore years, and among these, upon such courses as involve the minimum requirement in the way of laboratories; also that they acquire from the colleges with which they are seeking affiliation as explicit information as possible in regard to the li-

brary resources needed for doing the work of these first two years adequately—the association believing that another year, and especially two years more, will bring a considerable amount of light upon the general problems of the Junior College, both from the many institutions of this type thruout the South and West and from the colleges and universities with which junior colleges must effect relationships thruout the country.

(4) That, while granting all the difficulties in the way of a generally accepted standard, and the practical necessity for meeting them from year to year, the association fix its aim upon the final attainment of a generally accepted standard for the secondary school, the junior college, and the A. B. college; and that each year mark some progress as definite as possible, however slight, towards that goal.

(5) That a system of report cards be inaugurated whereby the colleges for women in Virginia and outside the state may regularly make known to a committee of the association the standing and progress of those girls who go up from our secondary schools and junior colleges for higher work.

(6) Attention was called to the scholarships offered by Hollins College, Sweet Briar College, Virginia College, and Virginia Intermont College to girls who pass successfully the College Entrance Board examinations.

The association next year will be entertained by the Radford State Normal School, the meeting to be held between January and June, 1917, at a date to be fixed definitely later. It is hoped that, coming within the school year instead of during vacation, this meeting will be exceptionally large.

## SCHOOL AND ALUMNAE NEWS

The Shakespearean pageant held in the latter part of May made a splendid impression upon the students and the community; there were about seven hundred people in the various representations; and the spectators of the various programs, which took two entire afternoons, reached into the thousands. No important phase of Elizabethan life or character was neglected; and the whole was pronounced a creditable revival of the days of Shakespeare. The revels culminated in a grand procession, after the manner of those of Queen Elizabeth.

The celebration was inaugurated by an "Elizabethan Tea," given by the Household Arts Department of the school the day before the pageant proper. Merry maidens dressed in quaint inn-maid costumes received the guests in a room decorated with all manner of old-time furnishings, and lighted by candles; while viands prepared from recipes used in Shakespeare's day were served from a great banquet table bearing ancient platters, trenchers, etc., of true Elizabethan style.

The commencement play this year was taken from Shakespeare; the selection was "The Winter's Tale." In keeping with the tradition of the Senior Class plays, it was a distinct success.

The commencement sermon was preached by the Rev. J. E. Hicks, D. D., of Danville, Virginia. The Right Reverend D. J. O'Connell D. D., of Richmond, delivered the commencement address to over sixty graduates. The commencement exercises were held in the auditorium of the new Student Building.

The class of 1911, the first graduating class of the school, held a reunion during this commencement. A large number of this class, as also of other alumnae, were present during the commencement exercises.

Those who registered at the alumnae meeting, with their present or next year's address, are as follows:

### 1911

- Amelia Harrison Brooke—Assistant to Matron, State Normal School, Harrisonburg.  
Ruth Bouldin MacCorkle—Harrisonburg. (Not teaching.)  
Mary Stella Meserole—Grade Teacher, Charlottesville.  
Maude Tyson Wescott—Grade Teacher, Belle Haven. Goes to Peabody to teach next winter.

## 1912

- Hilda Mae Benson—Grade Teacher, Manassas.  
 Clara Louise Greenawalt—Rural Teacher, Winchester.  
 Anna Pearl Haldeman—Principal, Clear Brook.  
 Emma Grace Rhodes—Grade Teacher, Pulaski.  
 Edmonia Blair Shepperson—Supervisor of Manual Arts, Richmond.  
 Vada Whitesel—Critic Teacher, Sixth Grade, Harrisonburg.

## 1913

- Wilma Ione Bell—Grade Teacher, Harrisonburg.  
 Marceline A. Gatling—Teacher of abnormal children, Norfolk.  
 Mabel Lewis Hitt—Eighth Grade in Beaver Dam High School.  
 Bessie Marie Leftwich—Grade Teacher, Lynchburg.  
 Frances Isabelle Mackey—Instructor of Manual Arts, Harrisonburg Normal.  
 Bessie Price Millner—Grade Teacher, Schoolfield, Va.  
 Alma Lucretia Reiter—Third Grade, Waterman School, Harrisonburg.

## 1914

- Anna Rachel Allen—Teaches English and Household Arts in the Middletown Agriculture High School.  
 Florence Esther Allen—First four grades, Clearbrook.  
 Virginia Ruth Buchanan—Governess, Brandy, Va.  
 Tracie Estella Burtner—Primary Teacher, Jennings, La.  
 Kathleen Chevallie Harless—High School Teacher, Christiansburg, Va.  
 Florence Arabelle Keezell—High School Teacher, Mt. Clinton, Va.  
 Mary Elizabeth Marshall—Primary Teacher, News Ferry.  
 Elizabeth Frances Saville—Primary Teacher, Cedar Bluff.  
 Margaret Virginia Tardy—Grade Teacher, Rockbridge Baths.

## 1915

- Althea Lee Adams—Teacher, Shenandoah Collegiate Institute, Dayton, Va.  
 Hildegard Mary Barton—Post Graduate Student, Harrisonburg Normal.  
 Mary Christian Bosserman—Assistant Principal, Mint Springs. Next year Fifth Grade, Waterman School, Harrisonburg, Va.  
 Harriet Leah Brown—Fourth Grade, Waterman School, Harrisonburg.  
 Ruth Mae Brown—Grade Teacher, Broadway, Va., Second and Third Grade.  
 Lillian McGruder Chalkley—Grade Teacher, Tazewell County Va., Third Grade.  
 Frances Rapplye Cole—Primary Teacher, Low Moor, Va.  
 Mary Joseph Davis—Supervisor of Manual Arts, Richmond.  
 Eva Funkhouser—Teacher of backward children, Waynesboro.  
 Frieda George Johnson—Grade Teacher, Lovetts, Va., Sixth and Seventh Grades. President of Alumnae Association.  
 Corinne Snowden Jones—Primary Teacher, Broadway.  
 Laura Lee Jones—Teacher of English and History, Highland Belle High School, near Lexington.  
 Edith Juliette Lacy—Private Kindergarten, McDonogh, Md.  
 Mary Lillian Millner—High School work, Broadway.  
 Velma Moeschler—Instructor, Household Arts Department, Harrisonburg Normal.  
 Maria Catherine Murphy—Catholic Colored Missionary work, Rock Castle, Powhatan County, Va.

Ruth Adele Sanders—Grade Work in Virginia Industrial School, Bon Air, Chesterfield County.

Agnes Brown Stribling—Third, Fourth and Fifth Grades, Kenilworth, Dinwiddie County.

Bessie Swartz—Third and Fourth Grades, Mt. Clinton, Va.

Mary Elizabeth Tardy—Principal of a two room school, Ruffner, near Lexington, Va.

The seventh summer session of this school opened on June 12, with the largest enrolment made in the history of the school. Of the 550 students in attendance, more than two hundred are registered for the summer school professional certificates; a large number for credit on normal school courses; some for special work; and comparatively few for first and second grade certificates.

Under the efficient management of Mr. W. R. Smithey, Director, and Mr. W. H. Keister, General Manager, everything is running smoothly; and there is abundant promise of an ideal summer school.

Since the publication of the annual catalog, in May, a number of changes in the faculty of the School have been announced for the coming year. There will be a considerable addition of new courses, particularly in the Department of Household Arts. Included in this Department, in addition to the courses already announced, will be the following: Household Bacteriology; Household Sanitation; House Planning, Construction, and Decoration; Home Furnishing; Extension Work and Demonstrations in Household Arts; Special Problems in Supervision; Institutional Cookery and Catering; Institutional Management. The interest in this line of work has grown very rapidly, and the number of students has increased in such proportions as to require additional instructors, courses, and equipment; consequently plans have been made to extend the work considerably for the coming year.

Mr. William R. Smithey, who has been Registrar and who has had charge of a part of the mathematics classes for the past three years, has been appointed to an instructorship in the Department of Education in the University of Wisconsin, and he will pursue graduate studies there the coming year. Dr. William T. Sanger will take his place as Registrar. Dr. Sanger is an A. B. of Bridgewater College, an A. M. of Indiana University,



and a Ph. D. of Clark University. He has also been a graduate student at Columbia University. While at Clark University he was Fellow in Psychology. For several years he has held the chair of philosophy and history in Bridgewater College, during which time he has been an instructor in Education in our summer session.

Mrs. R. B. Brooke, who has held the position of Matron since the beginning of the school, has resigned to accept a similar position at the Episcopal Theological Seminary, near Alexandria, Virginia. Miss Margaret H. Simons, of Charleston, South Carolina, who for a number of years has been connected with Converse College in a like capacity, has been selected as Matron for the coming session.

The dining hall, kitchens, and pantries, and all the work concerned with the preparation and serving of meals, will be in charge of Miss Hannah B. Corbett, who holds the B. S. degree from the Household Arts Department of Teachers College, Columbia University. In addition to her duties as Director of the Dining Hall, Miss Corbett will give instruction in "Institutional Management" and "Institutional Cookery and Catering." Students who are looking forward to positions as dietitians, housekeepers, matrons, managers of dining-rooms, lunch-rooms, etc., may take these courses. The equipment of the boarding department will offer excellent facilities for practical work in this line.

Misses Leftwich and Moeschler in the Household Arts Department will be succeeded by Mrs. Pearl Powers Moody and Miss Gertrude Button. Mrs. Moody is a graduate of the State Normal School at Florence, Alabama, and holds the B. S. degree from George Peabody College for Teachers, having specialized in Household Arts. She has been a student in the University of Alabama, and has taught for a number of years. Her father, Dr. James K. Powers, was for a long period President of the State Normal School at Florence and also of the University of Alabama. Miss Button, after graduating from the Manassas, Virginia, high school, attended Cornell University for four years, and received the B. S. degree in Home Economics at this great institution. She was one of the pioneer canning club girls

in Virginia, and her father was for a number of years in charge of the Agricultural High School at Manassas.

Mr. Raymond C. Dingleline, who holds the B. S. and M. S. degrees from the University of Virginia, has been appointed an instructor in mathematics. Mr. Dingleline was for two years an instructor in the University of Virginia, and he has held an instructorship in Johns Hopkins University during the past two years while pursuing post-graduate work leading to the Doctor's degree. He has taught mathematics in our summer session for several years.

Miss May Engle, a graduate of the Indiana Conservatory of Music, who is the new Supervisor of Music in the Harrisonburg Public Schools, will have charge of the Vocal Music in the Normal School. Miss Shaeffer will continue to give instruction on the piano and pipe organ, and will also retain the classes in school music methods and appreciation. Miss Hoffman will continue her work in piano music, and Mr. Harmon will continue giving instruction on the violin and other stringed instruments.

The construction of the new dormitory (No. 3), for which ground was broken on May 10 and the cornerstone for which was laid on June 5, is progressing well. The building should be ready for occupancy during the Winter Quarter. It will provide rooms for seventy-six students.

The dining division of the boarding department will be moved during the summer to its new quarters in the Student's Building, and the space now occupied by it in the basement of the first dormitory will be adapted to use as laboratories and classrooms in Geography, Rural Arts, and other subjects.

#### THE SENIOR CLASS TO ITS ALMA MATER

An educational institution has all the characteristics of a person. An individual has a body—flesh, bones, blood, and nerves, plus that indefinable thing we call spirit; the first are only conditioning factors to the last. The institution we see all about this hill is an organism with all these factors working together toward a single end, the growth of the spirit. Its body is these buildings and equipment; its blood, these subjects of study; its

nerves, the faculty and the student body; then there is that indefinable, yet highly conscious, thing that gives it personality. This personality is the end and essence of institutional, as well as individual, development. We call this essence by various names—spirit, ideals, policies, plans, reaches of hope, soul.

We, the members of the senior class, have been a real part of this institution. We have been sheltered by this stone and mortar, we have profited by this equipment, we have felt the throb of the subject-matter, or course of study, in our institutional veins, giving vitality to our intellectual life. We have been made intellectually conscious by the contact with the institutional nervous system, the faculty and the student body. The ultimate essence of this institution has gone deep into our souls.

It is told of Quintilian, the great Roman teacher of the first century, that it was his custom to assign to his pupils the task of putting into the mouths of some of the great Roman orators speeches that they might utter on the vital questions of his day; so I, representing the senior class of 1916, will venture on this occasion to speak words the members of the class might wish to say.

We have spent two years or more at this institution—two good years. We shall know some day that they were our best. What have the experiences of these years meant to us?

(1) *Our intellectual horizon has been broadened.* We have learned to use books, to use ideas and facts, and to think more clearly about our past experiences, and to extend our thinking into new and larger fields of human interests. We have learned to know science and art and a child. We have learned to know that this is only half of life, that the other half is loving these things and setting value to our experiences.

(2) *Our interest in mankind in general and children in particular has taken a broader sweep.* We feel that we are a part of the great world of humanity and this world is growing fresh and new because we see it thru a child. We have learned that children and school constitute one of the supreme interests of humanity and that this interest will grow in intensity in us with the coming years.

(3) *Our respect for truth has increased a hundred-*

*fold.* We have learned the art of finding truth in nature and in humanity. Our instincts have been redirected and heightened into higher and finer values. We have learned the fine art of being open-minded, of recognizing truth and certainty wherever it may be found. We have learned that growth is the finest thing in all the world, that our *ability to serve* measures the progress in our intellectual and spirit growth.

(4) *We have learned the nature and function of the human feelings in life.* We know what is high and low, what is fine and good and beautiful and true in human life. We know what it is to have respect for our fellows. We know something of what culture is; what determines the temper of man's soul. We know that nothing so ennobles the soul, that nothing so purifies the springs of life, as love; that nothing is so deadly to wretched pessimism and cynicism as pure, unselfish, liberal love.

(5) *Our religious hopes and moral visions have been heightened into a more sacred and far-reaching social significance.* We know that service to our fellow man and to growing childhood is the supreme function of life. The sense of obligation to each other and to humanity at large has given us a new philosophy of life, and thru this a new heaven and a new earth.

(6) *Our trust in God is deeper, truer, and nobler.* We know that God is the embodiment of supreme beauty, that our souls yearn for this beauty in our sweetest and highest experience; that life is a continual striving for the radiance of this presence, and that

“There are sermons in stones,  
Books in running brooks,  
And good in everything.”

(7) *Our belief in work is saner and surcharged with deeper significance.* We know that work is the basal element in all lasting happiness, that with work comes hope, with hope, plans, and with plans, a future. We know that after work comes love and joy.

(8) *Our ideals have been lifted to loftier heights.* We know that this is a sign of growth and a signboard along our pathway. We know that nothing more sad

can happen to us than to lose the ideals and fall to lower levels of life.

We promise here and now to maintain the highest standards of life and work and to carry them into the schoolroom; and they shall be a part of our success and the means by which children shall learn the high art of living richly and well.

CORNELIUS J. HEATWOLE.  
Honorary Member for 1916.

#### GRADUATING ESSAYS—JUNE, 1916

The titles of the graduating essays of the members of the class of 1916 present a rather interesting study of the range of the modern woman's thought and activities. Of a truth, her province is as inclusive as that of Sir Francis Bacon, for it is no less than "all knowledge." The effect of school life and academic interests are very naturally quite manifest, yet her scope is by no means narrowed to the outlook of one profession; her vision is as broad and far-reaching as the field of woman promises to be in the very near future. The essays and their authors, which we are inclined to think are fairly representative as a group, are as follows:

SOCIAL EFFICIENCY OF AN INDIVIDUAL—Mary Helen Bendall.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE ENGLISH DRAMA—Marie Baird.

THE LITERARY POWER AND INFLUENCE OF MR. AND MRS. BROWNING—Ellen Kay Bowman.

TENNYSON AND THE SEA—Anna M. Brunk.

THE EFFECTS OF THE HARRISONBURG STATE NORMAL UPON THE SCHOOLS OF ROCKINGHAM COUNTY—Mattie Brunk.

DRAWING AND ITS VALUE AS TAUGHT IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOL—Esther Buckley.

COMPARISON OF THE RURAL AND URBAN CONDITIONS AFFECTING THE LIFE OF SOCIETY—Nannie Burnley.

SOCIOLOGICAL STUDY OF A MINING TOWN—Stella Burns.

A HISTORY OF MUSIC—Josephine Burton.

DRAWING IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS—Marian E. Chalkley.

- A SOCIOLOGICAL STUDY OF MY HOME COUNTY—Nannie May Clarkson.
- CHEMICAL CHANGES INVOLVED IN BREAD-MAKING—Beatrice M. Coleman.
- TESTS FOR BUTTER SUBSTITUTES—Mary Constable.
- THE DEVELOPMENT AND VALUE OF MOVING-PICTURES—Grace Marian Darling.
- SCHOOL LUNCHESES—Edna Dechert.
- THE BROWNING LOVERS—Mary Anne Early.
- SOCIAL LEADERS—S. Lucile Early.
- STEPPING STONES TO EFFICIENCY IN THE HOME—Caroline Eisenberg.
- HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE TEACHING OF COOKING IN THE UNITED STATES—Irene Elderkin
- THE MOST PROMINENT ENGLISH WOMEN OF EACH AGE—Lillian Long Elliott.
- WOMAN SUFFRAGE—Ellen Engleman.
- MUSIC IN SHAKESPEARE AND SHAKESPEARE IN MUSIC—Garland Hope Farrar.
- DOMESTIC SCIENCE AND ITS CULTURAL VALUE—Sarah C. Ferebee.
- THE PRESENT STATUS OF AGRICULTURE IN THE UNITED STATES—Delucia S. Fletcher.
- SOME DUTIES OF THE TEACHER OUTSIDE OF THE SCHOOL-ROOM—Vada V. Glick.
- A HISTORY OF THE KINDERGARTEN—Elizabeth Agnes Rush Greaves.
- CRIME AND HOW EDUCATION AFFECTS IT—Ruth Grove.
- THE TEACHER AS A SOCIOLOGIST—Clarice F. Guthrie.
- THE TEACHER AS A SOCIOLOGIST—Mary C. Hankins.
- BELLS IN HISTORY AND LITERATURE—Esther J. Hubbard.
- A PLEA FOR A COORDINATE UNIVERSITY IN VIRGINIA—Nancy Hufford.
- THE DEVELOPMENT OF TEXTILE ART—Lizzie Miller Jarman.
- THE YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION AS A TRAINING SCHOOL FOR SOCIAL EFFICIENCY—Mary Jasper.
- RECREATION—Clarita Guion Jennings.
- THE HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE TEACHING OF SEWING—Ann Jones.

- THE SCHOOL LUNCH—Mary G. Jordan.
- THE VALUE OF KINDERGARTEN LITERATURE IN LIFE—L. Louise Leavell.
- THE SCHOOL AS A SOCIAL CENTER—Blanche E. Lowman.
- SOCIETY AND THE INDIVIDUAL—Margaret V. Magruder.
- EDGAR ALLAN POE, THE GENIUS OF AMERICAN LITERATURE—Marie Meisel.
- THE ROMANS AS BUILDERS—Geneva G. Moore.
- SHAKESPEARE'S ENGLISH HISTORICAL PLAYS—Rachel Orndorff.
- THE SCHOOL AS A SOCIAL CENTER—Lucy Anderson Parrish.
- NEGRO EDUCATION—Virginia Edith Pugh.
- THE SCHOOL AS A SOCIAL CENTER—Mary E. Quigg.
- THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE ENGLISH NOVEL—Virginia C. Ridenour.
- SOCIAL PROBLEMS IN THE RURAL COMMUNITY—Annie Elizabeth Ritchie
- DUTIES OF THE HOUSEWIFE CONCERNING BUTTER AND BUTTER-MAKING—Margaret Vance Ropp.
- AMERICAN SETTLERS, PAST AND PRESENT—M. May Rowbotham.
- THE CHURCH AS A SOCIAL CENTER—Lillian D. Shafer.
- WHY GO TO COLLEGE?—Louise Sherman.
- BURNS'S INTERPRETATION OF HIS OWN LIFE—Irene Sibert.
- THE NEED OF INDUSTRIAL WORK AND HOW IT MAY BE INTRODUCED INTO THE RURAL SCHOOLS—Rosa May Tinder.
- THE BIBLE STUDY COURSE IN THE STATE NORMAL SCHOOL AT HARRISONBURG, VIRGINIA—Margaret H. Thompson.
- BUTTER ON THE FARM—Otelia B. Wachsmann
- MINERALS IN FOOD—Kathleen Warner.
- THE INDUSTRIAL PHASE OF THE BOY PROBLEM IN THE CITY—Ernestine Williams.
- SCHOOL GARDENS AND THEIR VALUE TO THE COMMUNITY—Ruth Witt.
- SOME VALUES OF SUPERVISED PLAY—Ruby Worley.

## PERSONAL MENTION

Since her graduation in 1912 Miss Pearl Noell of Bedford has been doing fine work as a teacher. The first three sessions she had charge of the fifth and sixth grade of the Clintwood schools. Last year she was principal of a two-room school in Charlotte County. A notable feature of Miss Noell's work at Clintwood was the organization of the Ashby Club among her boys. The name of the club, with its ideals, was probably suggested to her while at the Normal School, near which stands the stone marking the spot where General Ashby fell. Thru the Ashby Club she stirred up in its members a high sense of manhood and secured a definite formulation of moral standards.

Miss Florence Allen, a member of the class of 1914, is making her mark in the rural schools of Frederick County. At the annual school fair last spring her school captured nearly all of the prizes offered to pupils in several fields of competition. She also arranged an elaborate and appropriate May-Day celebration for her school and the surrounding community.

Miss Bessie Rucker of Darlington Heights, Virginia, a member of the class of 1912, has won conspicuous success in her work since leaving school. Last year she had charge of the normal training department in the Clintwood high school.

Miss Mabel Hitt of Culpeper, who graduated in 1913, has taught during the past two sessions at Beaver Dam, Hanover County, Virginia. She was among the number of loyal alumnae who returned to this year's commencement.

Miss Hilda Benson, a member of the class of 1912, taught first at Manassas, Virginia, later in Maryland. During the two last sessions she has held a responsible position in the graded and high school of Brookville, Md.

Miss Lillian Chalkley, class of 1915, taught successfully last session at Richlands, Tazewell County, Va. She has been engaged for the same position next year.

Miss Kathleen Harless, who completed the regular normal course in 1914, has taught during the past two sessions in Christiansburg. The first year she had



charge of the fourth grade; last year she held a position in the high school. She is shaping her work for specialization in mathematics and is looking forward to a course of university training.

Miss Althea Adams, a graduate in 1915, taught last year at Dayton, Virginia, in the Shenandoah College Institute. We are informed that she will continue work in the same position next session.

Miss Bessie Leftwich, a member of the class of 1913, has been teaching successfully in the city schools of Charlottesville during the past three sessions. For next year she has accepted a position in Lynchburg.

Miss Edith Martz, who completed the regular normal course in June of 1916, has recently finished an excellent year's work as teacher of music and high school English in the school near her old home in Loudoun County. Miss Ida Monroe, who is well remembered as a student here for several sessions, was a teacher in the same school.

Miss Marian Brand of Texas, who has been a student in our department of domestic science and household arts at different times, has just closed a successful term as supervisor of home demonstration work in Louisa County, Virginia. She will resume her work in the same position next fall.

## BOOK REVIEWS

A HISTORY OF EDUCATION IN VIRGINIA, by Cornelius J. Heatwole. (The Macmillan Co., New York City. Price \$1.25)

No book published in recent years has been of such living interest to Virginians engaged in educational work as is this most praiseworthy volume from the pen of a noted Virginia educator. Not only will it cause every Virginian to feel pride in what his native state has accomplished along educational lines; but it will also serve to place the Old Dominion in a truer light for those outside of the state who have, thru lack of knowledge of her rightful position educationally, failed to give her the credit due. In the preparation of the work the author has sought many sources, some of them quite unfamiliar and somewhat inaccessible to the general public; and he has also conferred with numerous educational leaders on certain specific topics which he discusses. This story of Virginia's educational evolution begins with the earliest settlements, treats in an interesting manner the early attempts to establish free schools, the period of the academies, and the various institutions erected in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries for higher education. Various social and political conditions are pointed out as affecting educational conditions and determining educational policies. In 1818 the State Legislature had made certain provisions for public education, and subsequent sessions had added to these, but no effective system can be said to have been provided for prior to the Civil War. The tardiness with which this came about is explained in large measure by the peculiar social conditions prevailing in Virginia, making the situation as regards education at public expense very different from that prevailing in the states to the North and East. After the ravages of the war period had subsided the energies of the old commonwealth were bent toward rebuilding operations; and these included in the general scheme for improvement a system of public education, which began to take form about 1869. In this year a new constitution was adopted, including the first provision for a complete system of public education in Virginia. The great work of that wise and sturdy pioneer, Dr. William H.

Ruffner, first Superintendent of Public Instruction in Virginia, is shown by references to his reports and other sources; and the development of the school system in the following years is traced in a concise but readable way. A chapter is devoted to the development of city school systems, one to higher education for women, one to education for negroes, and one to a description of certain special technical schools. The closing years of the nineteenth century witnessed an educational renaissance, and under the leadership of the Capon Springs Conference, later known as the "Ogden Movement," including in its membership some of the greatest leaders in public service in America, wonderfully rapid strides were taken, marking a new epoch in public education in the state. Public interest was aroused to an extent never known before; and this resulted in constructive legislation along many lines of progress. The result has been a period of achievement during the last two decades surpassed in intensity and value by no other section of our country; and Virginia has been definitely committed to a policy of educating "all the children of all the people," and of giving to each an equivalent opportunity of choice as to the kind and amount. As Dr. Paul Monroe says, in his introduction to this book: "To the training of the teachers upon whom the greater burden falls every support should be given. Instruction which makes clear to them the settings as well as the object of their work, which shows what has been overcome as well as what remains to be done, is of value. To this end, this volume of Mr. Heatwole, accurate in fact, judicial in temper, loyal in ideals, cannot fail to be of definite value to every teacher of the 'Old Dominion.'"

DEMOCRACY AND EDUCATION, by John Dewey. (The Macmillan Company, New York. Price, \$1.40.)

It is highly gratifying to those who have so eagerly followed Doctor Dewey's system of educational theory in the past, to know that he has in these late years given much attention to writing. His recent volume on *The Schools of Tomorrow* sets forth the extent to which his educational theory has been put into practise in this country, and the more recent one, *Democracy and Education*, elaborates and restates his educational theory in

the light of modern scientific method for determining correct practise in education.

The volume contains discussions of the more familiar topics upon which he has written before, such as, natural development and social efficiency, interest and discipline, the nature of subject-matter, and aim in education; but in addition he brings the same philosophical attitude in these subjects to such problems as the significance of geography and history, labor and leisure, physical and social studies, individual and the world, and vocational aspects of education. The volume closes with chapters on Philosophy of Education, Theories of Knowledge, and Theories of Morals.

The volume is a splendid summary of Doctor Dewey's theories on various aspects of modern educational problems. It will serve admirably as a text in such courses designated in teachers colleges and normal schools as the Philosophy of Education.

C. J. H.

A BOOK FOR SHAKESPEARE PLAYS AND PAGEANTS, by Orie Latham Hatcher, Ph. D. (E. P. Dutton and Company, New York. Price, \$2.00 net.)

Tho not designed merely to meet the needs of the Shakespeare Tercentenary, the appearance of this book was most timely, and its practical value has been tested out in its fine service in the many pageants and other Shakespearean celebrations that have been so wide-spread during the past two months. Based upon exhaustive research and a long and intimate knowledge of the subject, the book treads with a sure foot on a solid foundation of authenticity and accuracy. It is indeed "a treasury of Elizabethan and Shakespearean detail for producers, stage managers, actors, artists, and students." Part I is devoted to Shakespeare and his England. Part II is more specifically a guide for Shakespeare plays and pageants. The whole is richly illustrated with copies of rare portraits and other pictures to the number of nearly two hundred. We may well imagine that the pages containing these pictures, with the detailed account of Elizabethan processions, the songs and dances of that time, and the costume index with illustrations have been well thumbed in many

a school and community of late, and that they will continue to be a constant source of reliable help so long as Shakespeare is studied and the pageant is valued as a means of education and recreation.

E. P. C.

THE CONQUEST OF VIRGINIA—THE FOREST PRIMEVAL, by Conway Whittle Sams. (G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. Price, \$3.50 net.)

This volume, which is based upon the writings of those who participated in the conquest of Virginia, and who, therefore, had first-hand information regarding the aborigines, gives a well-rounded picture of the Indians—their pursuits, beliefs, ceremonies, customs, and institutions, political and social; and of the location of their villages. It is an authentic account of the country and the race that inhabited the land before the English came to enforce possession. Particular features of the book are to be found in the dictionary of Indian words and names, in the detailed accounts of the great burial mounds in the Ohio Valley, and in the matter-of-fact description of the Indians who still live in Virginia near the City of Seven Hills, and who still perpetuate in many ways the habits and sentiments of their fathers. The book is of great interest and value to students and especially to teachers in the schools of Virginia and West Virginia.

J. W. W.

SIDE-STEPPING ILL HEALTH, by Edwin F. Boyers, M. D. (Little, Brown, & Company, Boston, Price, \$1.35.)

In this book Dr. Boyers writes of the common ailments to which all flesh is heir, their causes, prevention, and cure, in an easy, colloquial style which will doubtless appeal to the average reader more than a strictly scientific wording. That it has done so is shown by the fact that the book was reprinted within two months of its first issue. Some of the headings of chapters are: "Colds and Their Causes;" "Why Care Coughs?" "Why Does a Head Ache?" "The Demon of Insomnia;" "The Quest of Beauty;" "Side-Stepping Stoutness;" etc.

M. I. B.

THE REVOLUTION IN VIRGINIA, by H. J. Eckenrode.  
(Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston. Price, \$2.00 net.)

Dr. Eckenrode's book, which is a distinct contribution to Virginia history, is based chiefly on original sources of information in the archives department of the Virginia State Library. Works based upon this great collection of archives have of course been published heretofore, but probably no one except Dr. Eckenrode has ever examined it exhaustively with a view to producing such a book as he has given us. The great figures of the time, Patrick Henry, Thomas Jefferson, George Mason, and others, are intimately portrayed. The great movements of the period are studied from the original records. Particular interest attaches to the facts related concerning the loyalists in Virginia, of whom there was a considerable number. Under the title, "The Progress of Democracy," are presented many items of value regarding the political, religious, and social conditions that developed from the Revolution or formed important phases of it. Dr. Eckenrode has rendered the public a notable service in the preparation of this volume.

J. W. W.

#### OTHER RECENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

(These books may be reviewed at length in a later issue)

SOCIALISM IN AMERICA, by John Macey. (Doubleday, Page & Company, Garden City, New York. Price, \$1.00 net.)

A notably vigorous, terse, and enlivening survey of American socialism, as it has been and as it is. As a vivid and unconventional study, it should prove a valuable contribution to the social literature of our day.

CHILD AND COUNTRY, by Will Levington Comfort, George H. Doran Company, New York. Price \$1.25 net.)

A rich book of life and love and human effort, in which there is here and there a fine touch of Thoreau and Hawthorne. It is a book that is well designed for teachers, for in it the education and development of the

child is pictured as it takes place in an atmosphere of purity and strength.

**YOUR BOY AND HIS TRAINING**, by Edwin Puller. (D. Appleton and Company, New York. Price, \$1.50 net.)

A sane hint to parents as to what they shall tell their boys of the body and its functions, and when these things should be told. It is a practical study in adolescent psychology.

**THE SOUL OF WOMAN: an Interpretative Study of the Philosophy of Feminism**, by Paul Jordan Smith. Paul Elder and Company, San Francisco. Price, \$1.00.)

A fresh consideration of the spiritual life of woman, the greater value that woman as woman has to contribute to Life. It is an exposition of the new Feminism as presented by the seers of modern literature, based upon the belief that the primary purpose of woman is, not suffrage and social reform, but spiritual.

**THE INFLUENCE OF JOY**, by George Van Ness Dearborn. (Little, Brown and Company, Boston. Price \$1.00 net.)

A scientific exposition of both the mechanism and the significance of the emotion with which it deals.

**THE PHOToplay**, by Hugo Muensterberg. (D. Appleton and Company, New York. Price, \$1.00 net.)

Professor Muensterberg has made a thoro study of the drama on the screen and in this little volume he gives the results of his psychological and esthetic investigation of the "Movies". The meaning and beauty of the new art of the film, the significance it has for our time and the possibilities for the future are brought out in the author's characteristic style.

**ESSAYS AND LITERARY STUDIES**, by Stephen Leacock. (John Lane Company, New York. Price, \$1.25.)

A collection of brilliant essays dealing with the vital things of contemporary life and literature and ranging over the whole field of modern thought and inquiry. The essays are illuminated thruout by the author's singular gift of humor and his characteristic originality of thought.

REACHING THE CHILDREN: a Book for Teachers and Parents, by Henry C. Krebs. (The A. S. Barnes Company, New York.)

A practical contribution to the means that may be employed for the training of children.

PRIMARY ELEMENTS OF MUSIC, by Inez Field Damon. (The A. S. Barnes Company, New York. Price, 32 cents.)

This book is designed to present such instruction in the rudiments of music as is sufficient for intelligent sight-singing.

THE TRAVELS OF BIRDS, by Frank M. Chapman. (D. Appleton and Company, New York. Price 40 cents. net.)

An attractively written and printed book by The Bird's Historian about our birds and their journeys to strange lands.

THINKING AS A SCIENCE, by Henry Hazlitt. (E. P. Dutton and Company, New York. Price, \$1.00 net.)

This is a book in which the author shows that the mind can be made efficient, just as the body can, by care and exercise. He indicates concrete methods which will increase mind power, and tells not only *how*, but *what* to think.

SONGS OF CHILDHOOD, by S. Evelyn Dering. (The A. S. Barnes Company, New York. Price, \$1.20)

The words and music to little classics in song and verse, by a composer deeply imbued with the thought and spirit of child life. The songs will veritably appeal to the child heart and leave a lasting charm and influence on the child mind.

A BIBLIOGRAPHY OF VIRGINIA, by Earl G. Swem. (Davis Bottom, Richmond, Virginia.)

This is the Quarterly Bulletin, Virginia State Library, devoted to "A Bibliography of Virginia". It contains the titles of the books in the Virginia State Library which relates to Virginia and Virginians, the titles of those books written by Virginians, and of those printed in Virginia. It is an invaluable piece of work to those who may be from any viewpoint interested in Virginia, its past or its present.



## WITH THE MAGAZINES

### ARE YOU STRONG ENOUGH TO REST?

This question is asked by Dr. William Brady in the June *Illustrated World* as an introduction to several timely suggestions for the many tired workers who are looking forward to a few weeks of summer vacation. He reminds us of the fact that many return from their supposed "rest" in a worse condition physically than before they quit work, because of the rush of getting ready, the badly planned journey, the often crowded and uncomfortable boarding-place, and the over-exertion induced by strenuous efforts to have as "good time" as possible in a short time. Dr. Brady complains that he himself finds it hard to get an outing because of the many broken-down vacationists demanding his attention.

He advises training for a vacation just as for any other test of endurance by some exercise or exercises for a few weeks beforehand, such as an extra walk each day, going thru the motions used in swimming for a few minutes each night and morning, and, in general, putting the body in as good condition as possible. Dr. Brady cautions against drinking unboiled water while on the vacation, eating tinned meats, exposing one's self unduly to the sun; and recommends the selection of a place where old clothes and comfortable shoes may be worn without fear of criticism.

### THE EDUCATION OF TRAVEL

Those who expect to spend even a part of their summer vacation in travel, or those who are hoping to do so at some future time, cannot fail to be interested in the scholarly and delightful article with the above title, contributed to the May *Educational Review* by Dr. Charles F. Thwing, of Western Reserve University. Beginning with the statement that the two great forces in life and education are truth and personality, Dr. Thwing shows how travel may afford education by means of both these forces, tho chiefly by truth thru observation, if what we observe be rightly interpreted, classified, assimilated, and, most of all, appreciated, as appreciation educates both the head and the heart.

Education thru personality is gained by meeting and becoming acquainted with people of different kinds, different habits, different opinions; thus we are helped to rid ourselves of conceit, arrogance, and intolerance.

Travel also gives intellectual enlargement and enrichment. The mind is liberalized, set free; its circle of information and understanding widens; and this enlarged worth of mind and heart becomes a power to bless and to help. Those who properly use travel gather great riches which they are unwilling to barter, but are willing to spend for self and for others, especially after seeing the great need of such help wherever they go.

In fostering the education of travel, a high place should be given to the value of a sense of humor. Travel involves annoyances of all sorts, but each annoyance may have its element of the ridiculous, and a smile or a laugh may tide over difficulties otherwise hard to surmount. Also, the virtue and grace of courtesy is to be exercised. Travel brings out the natural or acquired selfishness of humanity, embodying a constant and silly struggle for the best seats, best tables, etc., but seeing such selfishness should really lead to the grace of unselfishness.

In the education of travel, as in all education, the physical health is of primary worth, and demands unusual care because of the necessary irregularities involved. Sleep, food, exercise, are the trinity of forces to be conserved.

Probably youth is the best period for the education of travel, as a useful supplement to that of the schools; but it should also be pursued thruout increasing years, as a continuation of education which helps to make life richer in thoughtfulness, broader in tolerance, more tender in sympathy, and of nobler effectiveness.

#### READING AFTER THIRTY

In *The Independent* for June 12, R. C. Holliday comments upon the assertion of William Hazlitt that he was never able to read a book thru after thirty; and of Samuel Butler who says that "People between the ages of twenty and thirty read a good deal, after thirty their reading drops off, and by forty is confined to each person's special subject, newspapers, and magazines." Of

course there are notable exceptions to this rule, and it does not appear that any fundamental change in the human brain which inhibits reading occurs more or less suddenly at thirty. Why, then, do so many people cease at that time to read? It may be because of an unwise use of time, or because most of them are at that age in the thick of the fight with real things and the quieter role of spectator offered by reading seems dull in comparison.

But what is the result of this ceasing to read? Mr. Holliday says it is "a hardening of the intellectual arteries" which a continued habit of reading would keep strong and elastic many years longer. The desultory reading of only magazines and newspapers is apt to rob the mind of power of concentration—dilute it, as it were—and the reading entirely along the line of one's own subject narrows the mental channel. When one is making good resolutions at the time, usually devoted to such occupation, an excellent one would be to relearn to read, to keep, as Dr. Johnson said of his friendships, one's reading continually "in good repair."

#### THE RURAL SCHOOL AS THE COMMUNITY CENTER

The June issue of *Education* is a special rural education number made up of addresses delivered at the fourth annual meeting of the Conference on Rural Education in Worcester, Mass. Some of the titles are "The Meaning of the Rural School as the Community Center," by G. A. Works, Professor of Rural Education at Cornell University; "The Opportunity of the Rural School for Civic Betterment," by C. C. Ferguson, Superintendent of Schools, Mass.; "The Rural School as a Community Center," by K. L. Butterfield, Mass. Agricultural College; "The Community Secretary," by E. J. Ward, Specialist in Community Organization, U. S. Bureau of Education. These papers and others by well-known specialists in this subject, or by men who have had actual experience of the conditions they describe, are of real, practical interest to all who are watching the progress of this important new movement now claiming so much attention from educators. All such would do well to send thirty-five cents to the Boston publishers of "Education" for this number and thus secure the latest news from the field.

PRACTICAL CORRELATION OF SCHOOL ART AND  
SCHOOL GARDENING

In the June *Industrial Arts Magazine*, Miss Jennie M. Haver, Art Instructor, Clinton, N. J., describes an experiment successfully carried out last year in the Clinton school. An enthusiastic gardener herself, Miss Haver wished to pass the joy along, so at the close of each drawing period in the grades she would have an informal talk about gardens; and when the children became sufficiently interested she told them that if they would make and care for small gardens of their own at home, small money prizes would be given in the fall to those who brought the best flowers and vegetables to a school exhibit. The money prizes were thought the best means of keeping alive the interest thru the hot summer days. Many gardens were planted, simple cultural directions being given informally during the drawing periods. To hold the garden records, book covers were made, decorated with designs made from flowers, vegetables, and garden implements.

The exhibit was held and the prizes awarded at the school in September. The tables were built from packing boxes by sixth grade boys and the tops covered with green burlap. No prize was given unless there were at least three contestants for it. Paper narcissus bulbs were given to each contestant who failed to receive a money prize. The reproduction in the magazine of snapshots taken by the children show that the exhibit was a very creditable one.

Many of the vegetables were left to be used as drawing models. In the primary grades the single vegetables were used in paper cutting and crayon drawing. Groups of two or three were treated in a decorative way in the fifth and sixth grades; and in the seventh and eighth grades the groups were used with the addition of a kitchen utensil or a piece of pottery.

Outside of the cultural effect of this correlation of the fine arts with the useful arts, and the joy of producing beautiful things, the children were led to realize that honor and happiness may be found thru work well done; and also that they may be important factors in the beautifying not only of their own homes but of their town.

## WHAT GOOD WAS YOUR SCHOOLING?

A few months ago *The Independent* asked its readers to answer these two questions:

- (1) Of all you were taught at school what has proved most useful to you in after life?
- (2) What have you had to learn since leaving school which you might have been taught there?

This month it is publishing responses to these questions. All kinds and degrees of education and of practical life are represented by those who responded, and so great was the variety of opinions expressed that a tabulation was impossible. Some of the replies are very interesting and suggestive. English in its double sense of composition and literature is most often mentioned. The classicists come out strong; mental arithmetic—is not all arithemite “mental”?—is mentioned by several; more than half specify the three R's in some form as their most useful study. Many complain that their schools and colleges failed to provide for the expanding opportunities of practical life. The following are some of the answers:

“The most productive idea in the curriculum was that the first fifteen minutes of each school day were spent in practical drill in remembering telephone numbers and messages, shopping lists, etc., judiciously mixed in with the memorizing of really good prose and verse, and ending with a few minutes of stiff mental arithmetic.”

“A love of reading, a training in thought-getting, in concentration, the memorizing of poems of Shakespeare, Scott, Tennyson, and others, while very young, were the best things I got at school. Next to these, a grounding in Latin that helped much in the use of English.”

“The most useful thing I learned at school was reverence for and belief in authority.”

“I have had to learn throness. My teachers accepted work that was so poorly done that I actually formed habits of incompetence.”

“The most serious lack in my training was the absence

of any course of instruction which could give me even a meager knowledge of my present profession of home-making and child-culture."

"I should have been taught: to endorse a check correctly; to put the "Dr." of a bill in the right place; to pound the nail and not my thumb; to "read sermons in stones, books in running brooks;" to tend a garden; to write legible words instead of hen-scratches; to spell most words of six letters and a few words with ten; to stop when I've said enough."

"Outside of the three R's I learned nothing at school. But one thing I did assimilate, namely, the spirit of a teacher. Not history outlines, not dates, not names she used to make us learn, but the spirit of her face went home. It led me into pastures of thought where I learned to live."

MARY I. BELL

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