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THE VIRGINIA TEACHER

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VOLUME IV
JANUARY - DECEMBER, 1923

JAMES C. JOHNSTON, Editor
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VIRGINIA
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THE BROADER PROBLEM OF METHOD

A condensed report of an address delivered by Dr. W. H. Kilpatrick, of Columbia University, at the Virginia Educational Conference which met in Richmond, the week of November 28 to December 2, 1922.

There are three types of learning situations, each requiring its own treatment. The first and simplest involves typically skills and information. The second has to do with purposeful activity, where an "inner urge" or purpose supplements and indeed makes best for the element of satisfaction demanded in the first type. The third type represents the problem of broader versus narrow method, whereby concomitant or associated learnings supplement the learnings of information and skill and oftentimes outweigh them in importance.

1. Where the learning has to do with acquiring such simple matters as skill and information.

In this the will to learn is a principal factor. To learn such requires practice and satisfaction with success, and annoyance with failure. Where there is the will to learn there will be practice, and if the learner can see the results of his practice there will be satisfaction at success and annoyance with failure. For instance, a boy facing last Saturday's football scores has the will to learn, he will practice, it will annoy him if he goes wrong. We accordingly find that he will learn a dozen football scores far more readily than he will learn a dozen dates in history. The general feature of all learning therefore is practice with satisfaction, that is, continued satisfaction.

2. Purposeful activity.

Here there is a mind-set-to-an-end and with it accordingly an inner urge, with readiness to do whatever will attain the end and unreadiness for whatever thwarts. The end defines success and if success is attained there will be satisfaction in the degree that the purpose was strong, and also, it may be added, in the degree that hindering obstacles are successfully overcome. And this satisfaction, by the kind of learning we have just discussed, fixes in the purposer exactly those responses that brought success, better organization of means to end, and better learning.

For example, if one is angry he listens to one who urges violence, not one who suggests another way out. Or suppose Mary has obtained her mother's consent to make herself a dress. Not only when she goes down town to decide upon and buy the materials but wherever she is, perhaps even in church, she has an "inner urge" that leads her to think about and plan for the dress. Sarah, on the other hand, who does not want to make a dress but who is told by the home economics teacher that she must do so, if she wishes to pass the course and in due time secure her diploma, has only an outer urge. It would take a great deal of outer urge to disturb Mary's inner urge, but very little inner urge to disturb Sarah's outer urge. With Mary there is satisfaction at each stage. If by chance she makes a mistake, making both sleeves for the right arm, then comes annoyance. In all learning, it is true that the stronger the satisfaction, the better the learning. A strong purpose means a better organization of steps to the end, better learning what to do and what not to do. The school cannot afford to neglect to develop and utilize strong purposes.

3. The total learning situation.

There are two problems of method, the conventional and the broad. In the case of the conventional problem of method, the question is how best to learn and consequently how best to teach any one thing, simple or complex, as, for example, how to add, or how to learn to spell. This is pri-
THE EDUCATIONAL VALUE
OF THE HOME

A vision of the finer quality and enlarged quantity of mental accomplishments that might result from a helpful collaboration of parents and teachers in the training of the child

As a result of economic and social conditions, the average American home plays a small role in the formal education of the children. They are sent to school as soon as they reach the required age and too frequently come under the tutelage of young and inexperienced teachers, who use the class-room as a means of livelihood to bridge the time between maidenhood and marriage.

Education naturally begins with the relation of parents to children. The human infant is physically and mentally the most helpless of all creatures and has in proportion thereto the longest period of infancy. Children are born with minds as a "tablet rassa,"—all of the knowledge of language, of science, of social customs, and even of ethics and morality must be acquired by the individual. The infant begins life in total ignorance, having only a potentiality for acquiring knowledge, and in some way that potentiality must be transformed into actuality. That is really the function of education—to harmoniously develop all the inherent powers of the individual to the end that he may become masterful in his environments and aid in the formation of a good character.

The home naturally becomes the source from which the infant first obtains his knowledge; and because of the long period of infancy, the pedagogical relations between parents and child are of vital importance. It is ineritably true that a child learns more of fundamental value in the first six years of life than in all subsequent years. The simple rudiments of living, the axiomatic truths of life, and the basis of morality, which are inculcated during these first years, will remain with the individual and shape his character for all his remaining years. The child regards the tenets of its own parents as infallible truths. What children learn in the
home thus comes to have an unchallenged authority over their thought and lives.

A REFORM IN EDUCATION

No greater reformation in education is possible than in re-establishing the custom of parental instruction. There is no reason why the average American family should not be made the most efficient and economical agency of elementary culture.

In previous times, when the home was the only source of primary education, the colleges and institutions of higher learning received students with intellects more keen, and reasoning faculties more alert, than they are now receiving from many of our public schools. Their sum total of facts perhaps was less, but their power of reasoning had become more developed. The ability to think and reason was paramount, and education was more a matter of quality then quantity.

The American people are spending millions of dollars every year for the instruction of children in certain practical vocations that should be learned in the home and with greater ease and proficiency than in the schools. Girls are being taught the rudiments of domestic science, while at home their mothers are cooking the family meals and replenishing the wardrobe. The school can not take into account the finances of the individual family, with the result that when the girl attempts to carry out her school instruction on a small family purse, she is disappointed. She does not know the economy and frugality as practiced by her mother, because her instructors have not taken these factors into account.

It is an anomalous state of affairs for boys to depend on technical instruction to acquire the elements of successful farming or kindred vocations. The average farmer does not possess the vast store of tools and implements in possession of an Agricultural School, with the result that when the girl attempts to carry out her school instruction on a small family purse, she is disappointed. She does not know the economy and frugality as practiced by her mother, because her instructors have not taken these factors into account.

The farmer lad learns many things from practical experience which serve him in the hour of need. The small child making his own wagons and toy houses, occasionally supervised by his father, is acquiring a vast store of practical experience which can not be measured by days or months in college. He is learning to use a hot iron to make a hole if he does not possess an auger, and an ax to smooth a board if he does not have a plane. His finished product may not be as smooth and neat as if he had a more elaborate supply of tools, but he has learned to think—to meet the problems of life and to solve them with the materials at hand.

INDIVIDUAL INSTRUCTION

The home in its relation to the training of children has fallen into a stultifying lethargy. It was once the custom of parents to give instruction in both secular and religious subjects; but many mothers have become so engrossed in social matters, and fathers so bent upon pleasure-seeking after the hours of labor, that little time is left for the children. Some parents, however, are doubtless inevitably intellectually incompetent to care for their children's education and of necessity must send them elsewhere to be taught; but that is no excuse for not taking an interest in the child's welfare.

If parents could be properly enlisted in the instruction of their children a new and intense bond of sympathy and mutual interest would be established. The estrangement which often exists between father and son would disappear; the parents would come to know the real needs of their children and become better able to aid them wisely in all things. They would become the worthy guides and leaders of their children's minds and in turn furnish them with more intimate, systematic, and effective instruction than is possible in any other way.

Parental instruction would make possible individual instruction, which is the ideal means of education. By this method, the individual mind is allowed to unfold and progress in a normal and natural way without undue stress or restraint. Under such instruction the mind of the child may dwell as long as necessary upon any given point until it is thoroughly mastered, and this is impossible in the group system of our public schools. Individual instruction in the home gives the child the right to advance normally and naturally, and this will ultimately result in better mental achievement. In the end the progress would be more rapid because of the thorough mastery of the antecedent steps and rudiments of any subject. A firm foundation would be built before an additional superstructure was
placed thereupon. This makes possible far greater achievements by the individual than in any other way, for where confusion enters, there mental disaster begins. A thorough mastery of each step is the only assured way of mental progress. No mind has a right chance, except by moving forward naturally when fully prepared in the prerequisite stage of any given subject. In the schools, some pupils must be urged forward beyond their real ability or qualifications at the time and others held back from advancement in accordance with their normal possibilities.

THE JOY TO PARENTS

To parents who understand the real meaning of parenthood and are willing to accept its responsibilities, there should be no pleasanter task than to guide the gradual unfolding of the child's mind. Parents could spend many pleasant and profitable hours with the children if they could have a vision of the great work they were doing.

The parental supervision of children would also intensify the spiritual life of the family and thus make it a more ideal environment for the child. The intellectual improvement of the home is almost sure to result in moral improvement; and in nothing perhaps is our present system of education failing so greatly as in the moral outcome.

To train parents to become efficient teachers of their children is a herculean task, but with patience and persistence it could be accomplished. A long time might be required to attain the goal, but it certainly ought to be done unless we are to supinely admit that one of our most fundamental and potent agencies of education shall remain entirely neglected. If the helpful collaboration of parents with teachers could be secured under the present regime of things, many burdened teachers would be relieved from painful anxiety in relation to backward students. It would make possible a finer quality and enlarged quantity of mental accomplishments in the schools,—an end certainly greatly to be desired.

John J. Birch

Beginning with September, 1924, the minimum professional training of teachers in secondary schools accredited by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools will be 15 hours in education.

WHAT VIRGINIA HAS DONE FOR THE EDUCATION OF THE DEAF AND THE BLIND

Virginia was one of the first states to take a step toward the education of the deaf and of the blind.

The first school for the deaf in America was established in the year 1812, at Cobbs, near Petersburg, Virginia, by Colonel William Bolling, a descendant of Pocahontas. Colonel Bolling had two deaf brothers and a deaf sister, who had been educated at Edinburg, Scotland, in the latter part of the eighteenth century. He also had two deaf children, one of whom was William Albert Bolling, who was born at Cobbs, February 21, 1799, and died in Goochland County, Virginia, October 30, 1884, and who was the first pupil of the first school (Cobbs) for deaf mutes in America.

In 1838, following an exhibition by pupils of the Massachusetts School, the General Assembly of Virginia passed an act providing for the establishment of an institution for the education of the deaf and of the blind of the State, and providing for the appointment of a Board of Visitors, charged with the erection of suitable buildings and the general government of the school, known as the Virginia School for the Deaf and the Blind. The State has since provided for its maintenance and growth by regular appropriations.

A site for the school was selected in the eastern part of the City of Staunton and the first, or main building erected. Without waiting for the completion of this building, teachers were employed, and, in rented buildings, the joint schools were opened in November, 1839, with an enrollment of eighteen pupils, only five of whom arrived on the opening day. In the eighty-two years since its establishment approximately fourteen hundred children have been educated; about one-third of these were blind, it is estimated, and about two-thirds, deaf.

The school is situated in a grove of fine elms and oaks, and within five squares of the center of the business district of Staunton. The Valley of Virginia has long been noted for the beauty of its scenery, its delightful and invigorating climate, its good water and
general healthfulness; for these reasons many of the best known schools in the State are situated in or near Staunton.

The school plant today consists of eight massive fireproof buildings of brick and stone construction on grounds ninety-eight acres in extent, with heating plant, laundry, dairy, garden, and pastures, besides a small farm of one hundred and fifty acres, bought to control the water supply of the school. The dairy herd of thirty Holsteins, the farm, garden and poultry furnish the table supplies. Though costing the State perhaps less than $100,000, the plant is conservatively valued at more than $500,000.00. Green lawns and fine old trees, fountains and flowers give a setting of peace and beauty.

Play pavilions equipped with swings supplement the slides, merry-go-rounds, etc., for the recreation of the children in the open air and sunshine. Besides these there are the baseball grounds, tennis court, swimming pool, a large concrete court used as a play and drill ground for the boys in bad weather and for roller skating. The gymnasium has proved of great benefit to the girls and boys. Everything is done to keep the children healthy and happy, and to surround them with a beautiful and uplifting environment.

The State provides this school for her deaf and her blind children for the same reason she provides public schools for those who can hear and see—to fit them for useful and independent citizenship. It is a free school for all white children of our State, of sound minds, too deaf or too blind to attend the ordinary public schools with profit. It is first and last,—a school; not a charitable or correctional institution. It is governed by a Board of Visitors, consisting of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, ex-officio, and six members appointed by the Governor.

The school consists of two separate and distinct departments or schools, one for the education of the deaf and the other for the blind. Weak-minded children are not received. The number of instructors employed is about forty-five in both departments.

The limit of age for admission is fixed by the Board of Visitors at between seven and twenty years. The school session begins in September and ends for the summer vacation in June. A brief holiday is given at Christmas. No charge is made for tuition, board, home care or medical attention, but parents are expected to furnish clothing and railway transportation.

A systematic physical examination by the medical staff, including the physician, the oculist and aurist, and the dentist, is made as quickly as possible to ascertain defects, and a careful record in card catalogue form of every child in school is kept. As rapidly as possible these defects are corrected by treatment or by operation if necessary, and as the defects are corrected the school nurse notes the fact on the record card.

The courses of study followed in the two departments parallel closely the course in use in the public day schools of Virginia as published by the State Board of Education, and usually cover a period of ten years.

The work done in the various grades is very much like that done in outside public schools. The textbooks are different, but the subject matter is about the same. All courses in the grades are planned with the purpose of preparing students to enter the high school at the end of the seventh year.

Reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, and history are the main essentials in the grades, but they are supplemented with a number of valuable courses. In the first three years, children are taught clay modelling instead of drawing. In the second, third, and fourth years, basketry is taught. In the fifth, sixth, and seventh years boys are taught chair caning, broom and mattress making, and the girls are taught knitting and weaving. All students begin the study of music in the second year, with class exercises in rote singing, drill, pitch, and rhythm. Lessons in piano, reed organ, violin, guitar, flute, clarinet, mandolin and brass instruments generally are given. There is also an orchestra in the musical division. Instruction is given to the older pupils in vocal music, both solo and chorus.

As there is such a small number of students doing high school work, there is no attempt made to offer a great number of elective courses. Each student is expected to take four courses each year. Sixteen units are required for graduation. A first year student may select four courses from English I, Ancient History, Physical Geography, Music I, Piano Tuning, (for boys), or Cooking (for girls). Second year, four courses from English II, Medieval and Modern History, General Science, Music II, Piano
Tuning II (for boys), or Sewing (for girls).
In the third year, four courses from English III, Biology, Algebra, Music III, Music IV, or Shop Work (for boys). In the fourth year, four courses from English IV, American History and Civics, a Commercial Course, Plane Geometry, Music V, Music VI. Physical instruction is given each year, making one unit, which may take the place of any elective unit. Not less than eight units must be had in literary branches, as follows: four in English, one each year; two in History; one in Mathematics; one in Science; two or six in Music; one industrial course.

In the education of the deaf the aim is the same as that of all other education, i.e. the imparting of knowledge and the developing of the mind by giving them a command of written English, as that is to be the mode of communication with the great majority of them when they go out from school. The methods of instruction are necessarily very different, and in the primary grades especially, are highly specialized. When a child enters this school on account of deafness, he is almost inevitably very deficient in language, if indeed, he has any language at all; this is of course consequent upon his inability to hear the language of his associates. The emphasis upon language throughout the school life and especially in the earlier years consumes practically the whole time of both teacher and pupil.

The classification of deaf persons is as follows: The congenitally deaf are those deaf from birth, and because of their deafness they are mute until taught to speak. With these are usually included those who became deaf before speech was acquired. The ability of children to speak and use language varies with the age at which deafness occurred, and because their speech is more or less imperfect they are termed semi-mute; these became deaf after speech was acquired. The semi-deaf are those who have some hearing, often enough to help in acquisition of speech and language, and the modifying of tones. These three classes require different methods of instruction, but in most schools they are taught practically in the same way.

In mental capacity the deaf differ but little from the hearing. There are among them brilliant minds, good minds, fair and feeble minds. There are two principal methods of instruction, the manual or silent method and the oral. The former uses natural or conventional gestures and finger spelling in place of speech. The latter employs the natural method of human communication,—speech, and substitutes for hearing the reading of speech by sight from the movement of the lips.

However, instruction is conducted orally in all save four classes, and from the beginning pupils are taught speech whenever it is possible. The classes are small, not exceeding ten pupils usually, and the work is exceedingly difficult for both teacher and pupil. Those pupils whose progress is too slow under oral instruction are placed separately in classes taught by means of the Manual Alphabet. The use of conventional signs in the class rooms is prohibited.

The work of this department is accredited by Gallaudet College, the National College for the Deaf, at Washington, D. C., and graduates of this school may enter with approved standing in most subjects without examination.

The education of the blind child does not differ essentially from that of the seeing child. Both are taught to study, to work, to live with other people. They are equally susceptible to lessons and discipline, provided the blind child has no other disability than lack of sight. The blind learn through hearing and touch. The books in the hands of the pupils are embossed for the use of the blind in one of the punctographic systems of printing; the New York system which for years was used exclusively, is being gradually displaced by the uniform Braille or revised Braille. The pupils use the Braille system of writing, but in the fifth grade instruction is given in the use of the typewriter, and pupils are encouraged to adopt the typewriter for personal use for all correspondence or other written work.

The base of Braille is a cell of 6 points, thus :: The characters consists of various combinations of these 6 points. For instance 3 points in a vertical line form the letter L. There are 62 characters. Each represents a letter, a punctuation mark, or a contraction standing for several letters. This point system was made by Louis Braille in 1825, and bears his name. Braille is used both for literature and music. New York point differs from Braille in that the characters are not
3 points high and 2 wide, but 2 points high and 3 wide. The point systems can be written for notes, correspondence and manuscript books, on special writing machines and also by means of small hand frames and a stylus to indent the points. To write ink print the blind can use any kind of typewriter. They also write pencil script, and there are several ingenious devices to guide the pencil.

Music receives much attention in the department for the blind. Every pupil who shows any aptitude is accordingly encouraged to take every advantage of the courses offered in instrumental, orchestral or vocal music.

Graduates of the Blind Department often enter colleges in Virginia and take their places successfully in the regular classes.

With the deaf-blind, as with the deaf, the main problem is the teaching of language. At first this is done by the manual alphabet. Through the fingers of the deaf-blind it is possible to direct two vehicles of language, the manual word and the printed word. This printed word is the embossed type used by the blind and is taught as soon as possible after the manual word has given the pupil his first clues to language. The skillful teacher combines manual conversation with the game of hunting words on the embossed page, and, by exciting the curiosity of the pupil, coaxes him to follow a story in print. After the deaf-blind child has acquired sufficient language for working purposes the process of teaching articulation is begun. The process is much like that of teaching speech to a deaf child who sees. The deaf child watches the teacher's lips and imitates. The deaf-blind child puts his fingers on the teacher's organs of speech, and imitates their position.

Schools for the Deaf and the Blind were pioneers in the movement for vocational training. Very early in their history, the instructors in these schools realized the imperative need of training their pupils for self-support and, if possible, economic independence; if these boys and girls were to hold their own in competition with their fellows in possession of sight and hearing, they must have trade or other vocational training, which would make them efficient workmen; superior training and efficiency must offset the handicap of deafness or blindness. Emphasis in the vocational courses is therefore laid upon practical productive work of such character and trade type as to develop the maximum efficiency in the trade. For the deaf, printing has been found to be one of the best trades, and to make the instruction practical, a school paper, "The Virginia Guide," has been published for many years. This booklet is also a product of the print shop.

The school offers unusual facilities for manual and vocational training. Varied forms of hand work, including wood work, drawing, weaving, and sewing are given as a part of the general training of the pupils. More advanced work of truly vocational character, including courses in printing, carpentry, cabinet making, shoe repairing, cleaning and pressing, baking, barbering, dairying, gardening, poultry raising, farming, cooking, and dressmaking are given pupils of the Deaf Department. Piano tuning, phonograph and player piano construction, broom and mattress making, chair caning, basketry, knitting, crocheting, cooking, rug weaving, sewing and poultry keeping are the corresponding courses for pupils in the Blind Department. Vocational training makes the pupils self-supporting, efficient workmen from graduation.

The printing trade in its various branches has been for years a favorite with the educated deaf man, and many of the best printing establishments in Virginia and in nearby states employ graduates of this school. Other alumni are successfully following such widely varied lines as baking, shoe making and repairing, carpentry, cabinet making, teaching in schools for the deaf, preaching to the deaf, barbering, the jewelry business, auto repairing, painting and glazing, and agriculture, including dairying and poultry husbandry. The deaf woman, trained in sewing, cooking, etc., makes an ideal home-maker. Some have become teachers and recently a number of bright energetic young women have taken their places and won respect and promotion in one of the modern overall factories of this state.

While not so wide a choice of vocations is open to the blind, the school has every reason for pride in the achievements of the alumni of the Department for the Blind, for it is eternally true that the human mind will triumph over mere physical barriers if impelled by a strong will and guided by a high purpose. Graduates of this department have become preachers, teachers, editors, lawyers, musicians, salesmen, piano tuners owning and
operating their own stores, makers of brooms, mattresses, etc., owning and operating their own shops; both men and women have entered colleges, and some have won their degrees and the highest honors in competition with their seeing fellows.

A new course in salesmanship and business law was added in 1921 for the blind, as any man with a trade or a profession should know the fundamental principles of salesmanship if he would best succeed.

Military training has also been adopted for the deaf boys and through the War Department fairly complete equipment has been provided for a company of fifty or more of the larger boys. The purpose of this was to develop the boys mentally, morally and physically and to develop initiative and quickness of thought.

Good health is in reality made the first consideration at this school. Each teacher keeps for each member of her class a careful record from month to month of the weight and the gain or loss; report is made regularly to the superintendent; and any child showing loss of weight or serious underweight is referred to the school physician. The school life and routine is carefully supervised. Regular hours, abundant sleep, healthful exercise, a cheerful atmosphere, opportunities for vigorous play and plenty of good wholesome food and fresh milk, together, work wonders with the growing children.

Athletic games of all kinds are encouraged and the baseball, football and basketball teams have won many laurels. The girls vie with the boys in athletic accomplishments. Special instructors supervise regular exercises for the different groups of children daily.

The health record of the school will compare favorably with the health record of any group of children of equal number in the state.

The deaf child's amusements, excluding musical entertainments and lectures, are exactly the same as those enjoyed by hearing people. Blind children have relatively few resources for recreation and amusement or enjoyment as compared with seeing children. Every effort is made, however, to let them attend musical entertainments, lectures and church.

The school recognizes very fully its responsibility for the moral and religious training of the pupils. The responsibility is indeed a heavy one. In addition, correct social usage must be taught so that after leaving the protected environment of the school home, the pupil will emerge a trained, self-reliant young man or woman ready to assume the duties and responsibilities of a citizen of the State and a valuable member of society.

The whole home life of the school is planned to meet these exacting requirements. It is much like that of a normal family; the housemothers for the girls and smaller boys and the supervisors for the larger boys are as carefully chosen as the teachers because their function is equally important.

In the department for the deaf religious services are provided in the school. Sunday School classes are conducted by the regular teachers under the direction of the principal, and on Sunday afternoon or evening a general chapel service is held by a member of the faculty or a visiting missionary to the deaf.

The pupils of the department for the deaf attend regularly the services of the Sunday School and church of the parents' choice in the city. The pupils have their own Y. W. C. A. and Y. M. C. A. services on Sunday evenings. All religious instruction is non-sectarian. Literary societies and frequent parties on national and state holidays offer opportunities for the development of the social graces and easy and correct manners.

It is hoped that the legislature will make provision for the establishment of an independent school for the blind and turn the present one over to the use of the deaf, as the establishment today is crowded to actual discomfort. This dual plan was never intended to be permanent and the founders contemplated the separation of the deaf from the blind as soon as their numbers grew large enough to justify the establishment of independent schools. There can be no social intercourse between them, and their education must be conducted along independent lines. There is practically nothing in common between them. Each class must have its own teachers, school-rooms, dormitories, study halls, shops and assembly hall. It is thought that a school for the blind will be established in Charlottesville, Lynchburg or Roanoke, Virginia. The school for the colored deaf and blind children is situated at Newport News, Virginia.

Ethel Livick
PROJECTS IN THE GRAMMAR GRADES

An exposition of the whole-hearted, purposeful act carried on amid social surroundings

There is no doubt that you have heard the term project defined many times, not only here at the meetings, but at any educational conference you have recently attended. To make clear the discussion which is to follow, I believe a clear conception of the term is necessary. Dr. Kilpatrick says it is a whole-hearted, purposeful act, carried on amid social surroundings. Many of us have the idea that a project means that the children must be doing something with their hands. Of course children are thinking as much when they are working with their hands as when they are dealing with abstract ideas. The point I wish to make is that some projects need no handwork to aid pupils to obtain the desired results. There may be as many varieties of projects as there are purposes in life.

This morning I shall try to give to you some practical suggestions for carrying out your work in teaching through projects. I shall discuss how we can stimulate pupils to desire to solve problems, the important part the teacher must play in guiding pupils, some way by which we can check up the work so that we shall know what we have accomplished, and how we can best organize our projects so that the highest educational aims will be realized.

Some teachers believe that they should wait for the children to suggest some purposeful activity. Dr. Kilpatrick says, "Either the child or the teacher may originate the suggestion. The essential point is that while the activity is in progress it operates as an inner urge to define the end, guide the pursuit, and supply the drive."

The schools in which many of us are teaching are just breaking away from the type where seats are nailed to the floors and children almost nailed to the seats, where it is considered a crime if a child asks a question or leaves his desk, and where the teacher asks rapid-fire questions which are answered by the pupils in the exact words of the book. For awhile at least we shall have to use every means in our power to stimulate children to ask questions and make suggestions. They have become used to accepting without a murmur the tasks which the teacher has set, not with whole-hearted interest, but as though it were decreed by fate.

The point of contact in launching a project is the activity most clearly related to pupils' lives and interests at the time. A teacher, teaching fourth-grade children in a place with which she was not familiar, asked the pupils for information concerning the city. The children's interest seemed to center about a Colonial mansion which had been opened to the public as a museum. Some of the pupils had already visited it, and suggested that it would be nice if everyone in the class could see it. When they were asked why they thought it would be of interest to the other children, they said because there were so many curious things there that we do not use now. Then followed a brief description of some of the furniture and "curious things," which had been seen by the children who had already made the visit. Of course they were all interested and delighted with the prospective visit. It was quite a success. They saw all sorts of Colonial things—foot-warmers, candle-moulds, spinning wheels, Colonial dresses, plate-warmers, four-poster beds, etc. During the discussion which followed, some child asked, "Why is it that we don't have those things now?" From that question, the problem arose "How did Colonial life differ from the life of today?" The point of contact was the visit to the Colonial home and through that visit the pupils were stimulated to ask questions. Out of the question grew the problem and out of the problem grew the project.

In one of the fifth grades in Winchester, the pupils discovered after they had been weighed and measured by the school nurse that many of them were underweight. The teacher's question, "What can we do about it?" led to a splendid project on Better Health. The teacher stimulated the pupils to proceed further than merely finding out that they were underweight.

Some fourth-grade children were discussing the number of automobiles they had
seen pass through Winchester from other states. At the teacher’s suggestion, they decided to find out why cars from all over the country went down the Valley Pike. The discussion aroused so much interest that the pupils undertook a detailed study of the Shenandoah Valley. The teacher originated the suggestion, but the children accepted it as their own.

A second grade was stimulated to make and dress some dolls by another second grade sending children to show the ones they had just completed. Immediately they all said, “Can’t we make some, too?”

Besides excursions and visits made to various rooms, pictures and models are a great help in stimulating pupils. It is a good plan to open books on the reading table to some interesting picture or story, or to mount pictures on bulletin boards, or exhibit charts, showing results of standard tests. A host of questions and many suggestions for projects will soon arise. It is our duty to guide the pupils to think carefully and choose wisely.

After the project had been decided upon, the teacher must still stimulate and guide the children. Bonser says that we must remember that all expressed interests of childhood are not of equal worth, that “Children express many interests which, if indulged, lead to almost nothing of value, and frequently to the development of habits and attitudes that are unsocial or anti-social. One very important function of the teacher is to select and direct the interests and activities of children so that they may continually lead forward and upward to higher stages.” Projects begin on the level of the interests of the children. They should not stay there. Gradually through the wise guidance of the teacher, they should be brought to a higher level. The teacher should be able to see these opportunities for guidance, and to direct the work accordingly.

While making furniture for a Colonial house which the children had built, a teacher found that the pupils knew how to use the clay, paper, and wood with which they were making it, and that they had the idea of size and proportion, but they were simply making furniture, not Colonial furniture. Here was an opportunity for her to lead the children to a higher level. She was wise enough to see and take the appropriate lead. A conference of the group was called, the furniture was brought to the meeting and compared with pictures and models which were in the room and the furniture in the Colonial house they had visited. It was not long before a child said, “Our furniture is nicely made, but it isn’t Colonial.”

Then they were willing to re-make and correct their mistake. There was no coercing. The children felt within themselves the inner urge to make their house truly Colonial.

Group discussions afford one of the best opportunities for teacher-guidance. The second grade class which had been stimulated by another class to undertake making and dressing dolls, a project in which the initial interest was manipulated, was led by a teacher to become extremely interested in the growing and manufacturing of cotton through a group discussion concerning the material to use for the dolls’ clothes.

In the same way, the class of children who were underweight were led to see the necessity of pure food and fresh air through the teacher’s guidance, and through her ability to follow appropriate leads.

When we have completed a project, how can we know what the pupils have actually learned? I believe that the lack of checking up and summarizing is one of the greatest dangers of teaching through projects. Bonser again says, “The interest in moving forward to new activities tends to cause a neglect to summarize, emphasize, and resolve into usable form the essential elements of thought content called forth in the work, leaving subject matter in isolated fragments rather than as parts of a gradually expanding organization of thought.” He suggests that as the general principles running through our projects recur they be emphasized and at the end generalized. It is advisable to stop often and say “What have we learned so far?” “Is there anything we need to spend more time on?” “What facts should we learn never to be forgotten?” The use of standard tests is a valuable means of testing progress, if the results are used intelligently.

But there is one thing upon which we have not touched, something more important than the ability to read well, or to manipulate tools which can not be measured by any standard tests but which we must constantly
beware of and constantly ask ourselves about. I am speaking of the attendant or concomitant learnings. When a project has been completed, what has the child learned of the correct relationships between him and his teacher? Has he learned the right way of attacking a problem? Has he learned to be honest? Has he learned to play fair? Has he learned to think of the teacher as a friend and not a tyrant? These things we can not measure, but in all our work with the children we are helping them to form right or wrong attitudes. Teaching through projects affords extraordinary means of aiding children to form right attitudes because they are living, not preparing for future life. To understand more fully the values of concomitant learning, one should read Dr. Kilpatrick's articles in the January and February (1922) numbers of the Journal of Educational Method.

Before going farther, I wish to speak briefly of the place drill has in project work. Some teachers believe that it is a sign that they are poor teachers if they stop to drill. This is not true. Bagley says that it is sometimes necessary "to take a procedure out of its purpose context and give it a little time and attention in its own right." Dr. Bonser says, "There must be some drill in a systematic way after values and meaning have been made apparent."

Personally, I have rarely found a sufficiently strong purpose for adequate drill, but I have found that children enjoy drill for its own sake. It demands a quickness and alertness that they really enjoy. It has the element of competition which is present in the games they play. Just a word of warning here. We must be sure that the child finds his greatest satisfaction in competing with his own previous record. Many of the pupils in Winchester are keeping their own individual graphs in arithmetic and spelling, so that each child will be able to know his own progress. A class graph is kept on the board in the same subjects. In this way, a child does not become discouraged trying to reach the high standards of one with a higher intelligence quotient, neither does one with a high score feel that he need not work because he has a higher standard than other pupils in his class.

"At what time during the activity should we stop to drill?" one might ask. The time to drill is when the need for drill is felt by the class. When the pupils were measuring the material for the Colonial house, they found that they needed more drill on measurements than they could obtain from measuring the wood they were using. Immediately a number of days was spent drilling on it. Again, last year, the pupils found that it took them much too long to obtain information for use in their geography and history. As a result, five minutes a day was set aside as a drill period to increase the rate of silent reading. At the end of six weeks, a marked improvement was shown. Another class discovered that it was below grade in spelling ability. The Ayers' spelling list was posted, and the pupils drilled themselves in spare moments on the words listed there.

So that we can best guide our pupils, check the results, and realize the best educational aims, projects should be planned by the teacher with much care and thought. We should have in mind very definite objectives to be reached through the project along the lines of knowledge, attitudes, skills, interests, and habits. The details of the plan should not be followed. The making of it, however, will enable us to guide the pupils in their activities and attain the desired results.

To accomplish this, the teachers in Winchester are making two charts. On one they have written the project as they have planned it, and as they think the pupils will work it out. The other is a progress chart, on which is recorded the progress of the activities. It varies considerably from the first chart.

Pupils may plan to build and furnish a Colonial house instead of Colonial rooms, or they may decide that they would rather learn certain facts about a country by making a map on the sand table instead of making a poster as the teacher had planned. Perhaps we'll find that some of the details are too difficult, and that something simpler will have to be substituted as happened in this case. Often times, quite the other way, we find that the children are better planners than we are. The pupils of the sixth grade decided that they would study the different types of Greek architecture so that they could model the columns of the Parthenon correctly, which they were making from clay.

The most important thing to remember is
that it is attitudes, skills, interests, and habits
that we wish to develop and that teaching
through purposeful activities affords the best
opportunities for this development, because
so far it has been the best means of putting
the child in "complete possession of all his
powers," which I believe, is the true aim of
education.

Florence L. Robinson

AN AMERICAN IDEAL

Prepared by the Research Division of the
National Education Association

The American Ideal," says Secre-
tary Hughes, "is the ideal of equal
educational opportunity, not merely for
the purpose of enabling one to know how
to earn a living, and to fit into an economic
status more or less fixed, but of giving play
to talent and aspiration and to development
of mental and spiritual powers."

How near are we to realizing this ideal?
The man in the street will tell you that it
has been practically realized—that American
children are offered equal educational oppor-
tunities and that if anyone does not get an
education it is his own fault. That this
popular conception of the adequacy of our
educational system is far from the truth is
shown by an examination of the facts.

An opportunity to get an education that
gives "play to talent and aspiration and to
the development of mental and spiritual pow-
ers" can not be given where schools are not
in session. Are all American children offered
equal educational opportunities as measured
by the length of the terms our schools are in
session?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Average school session in days</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>New Jersey</td>
<td>189</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New York</td>
<td>188</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arkansas</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Carolina</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Let us grant that the schools of South
 Carolina are equal to those of New Jersey
in everything except the length of the term
maintained. Then the child in South Caro-
linha with 109 days of school has 58 per cent
of the opportunity to attend school that the
New Jersey child has with 189 days of
school. If 59 per cent equals 100 per cent,
then the children of those States have an
equal educational opportunity.

But the "average school session" does not
tell the full story. Because a State main-
tains an average term of 100 days does not
mean that all children in the State are able
to attend school for that period each year. If
one district maintains no school and another
a standard 200-day school the average is 100.
Just such inequalities as this exist in many
States. In 1920, 120 Arkansas school dis-
tricts levied no school tax at all; over 70
pursued the same policy in 1921. In at least
two States there are some districts where
no public school will be held this year, or if
any, only the month or so possible with State
aid, according to Mr. Alexander of the Edu-
cational Finance Inquiry. A bulletin just
issued by the Bureau of Education shows
that in twenty-four of our States there are
227,570 children living in districts that main-
tain school less than four school months per
year. In these same States there are at the
same time over a million children who have
an opportunity to attend school over nine
months a year.

What is the practical effect of such in-
equalities? Suppose that a South Carolina
child wishes to cover the same amount of
work that the New Jersey child covers in the
eight years before he graduates from the
elementary school. The child in South Caro-
linha must go to school the full term for four-
teen years to do this. If he goes to school
day every day from the time he is six until he is
twenty he will just be able to do it. Similarly
the quarter of a million children now living
in districts with four months of school must
go to school the full term for eighteen years
to do the same amount of work that is covered
in eight years by children living in school
districts maintaining school for nine months.
Few children are able to continue their ele-
mentary school training for eighteen years.
The result is that thousands of children re-
ceive but half, or even less than half the
amount of elementary education that others
receive.

Next, let us consider the opportunity that
American children have to learn to read and
write. Reading and writing has long been
looked upon as the very foundation of an
education. Do all children have an equal
opportunity to learn to read and write? The figures for illiteracy of the Federal Census of 1920 show that there were 531,077 native-born children between ten and twenty years of age in the United States who have not had the opportunity to learn to read and write. All of these children, had they started to school at six or even eight years of age, would have had more than enough schooling to remove them from the illiterate class in the Census. It should be remembered that the Census classifies only those who have had "no schooling whatsoever" as illiterate. Of our 5,000,000 illiterates, 3,000,00 are native born. Over a million are white of native-white parentage.

The percentage of illiteracy in the rural districts is four times as high as in the cities. If our rural schools had been as effective as our city schools in removing illiteracy, there would have been 1,800,000 fewer native illiterates in the country in 1920 than there were. The willingness to tolerate the make-shift rural school is responsible for the existence in our country today of nearly 2,000,000 native-born adults doomed to go through life lacking that most elemental educational attainment, the ability to read and write. Yet the Federal Census is really an under-estimate of the prevalence of illiteracy in our country. The draft indicates that 16.5 per cent of our native-born adult population is illiterate, rather than 5.3 per cent as the census shows, if those who are unable to write a letter home and to read a newspaper in English are classed as illiterates.

No schoolroom is effective unless it is taught by a competent teacher. Do all American children have an equal opportunity to have instruction by a trained, competent teacher? In some States over eighty-five per cent of the teachers are normal-school graduates. In other States less than ten per cent of the teachers are normal school graduates. The survey of the schools of New York State, just published, states: The most significant fact regarding the preparation of rural school teachers is the very small proportion of normal school graduates in the one-teacher schools. It would seem that, out of a total of 8400 teachers in one-teacher schools, no more than 420 have had the amount of preparation generally agreed upon as the lowest acceptable minimum for elementary teachers.

The country child in New York State who attends a one-teacher school has one chance in twenty of coming under the instruction of a teacher who has met this minimal standard; the child living in a village has more than one chance in four of having such a teacher; while the child living in a typical city of the third class has less than one chance in five of not having such a teacher.

The results found in New York are not unusual. Studies have revealed the same condition in over a score of States. Thousands of children are being taught by immature, incapable transients in the profession who possess no training in addition to that given in the elementary school. Other children receive instruction from capable, well-trained, competent teachers—graduates of both a high school and a standard Normal school.

The money available to obtain teachers in different districts reveals another inequality. The average salary paid Massachusetts teachers in cities over 100,000 population in 1922 was $1,589. At the same time at least eighty

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teachers in this State were receiving annual salaries of less than $500. It is estimated that 40,000 teachers in thirty-six States of the country were similarly underpaid in 1922. Teachers in the large cities of the country in 1922 received an average salary of $1,848. Does anyone believe that the qualifications of the teacher who is willing to accept a salary of less than $500 are to be compared with those of a teacher who is receiving an annual salary of $1,848? Certainly there is no equality of educational opportunity as far as the type of teacher instructing our children is concerned, and nothing is so fundamental in the effectiveness of a schoolroom as the teacher who presides over that room.

Do all children have an equal opportunity to attend an adequately supported school? The average expenditure per pupil attending in one State in 1920 was $136—in another State $21. Once again averages are misleading. The situation as it actually is can be ascertained only by studying in detail the conditions within individual States. Inequalities are great even when one city is compared with another. In Massachusetts, for example, the city of Dover spent in 1920 $150.84 per pupil, while another, Somerset, expended $42.24 per pupil. The recent New York school survey gives data for one thousand common school districts in which the annual expenditure per pupil varied all the way from $20 to $185. Forty-three common school districts expended less than $35 per pupil and twenty-two districts expended more than $185 per pupil. Can the educational opportunity offered in the school where the yearly expenditure is $20 per pupil be compared with that offered where the average yearly expenditure per pupil is $185? Once again the facts are clear—equality of educational opportunity as evidenced by expenditures for school support does not exist.

If there is nothing like equality of educational opportunity in such fundamental educational provisions as those described, can there be educational equality in any phase of our educational system? It is clear that there can not be. Our learned Secretary of State was right when he placed equality of educational opportunity among America’s ideals—an ideal far from realized. “The investigator finds the richest Nation on the earth denying multitudes of her children any educational opportunities and herding thousands upon thousands of others in dismal and insanitary hovels under the tutelage of wretchedly underpaid and proportionately ignorant, untrained, and negative teachers; finds hundreds of communities able to provide luxurious educational facilities with almost no effort, while thousands upon thousands, despite heroic exertions, can not provide even the barest necessities.”

How long is the United States willing to keep equality of educational opportunity among its unrealized ideals?

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**WHAT SHOULD A COURSE IN CLOTHING INCLUDE IN HIGH SCHOOLS? IN NORMAL SCHOOLS?**

*In which clothing is interpreted in its broader modern aspects*

The name High School may mean either the old four year high school or the high school organized on the new basis of the three-three plan, the junior and senior high school.

In planning a course of clothing each organization has a somewhat different situation to cope with. A course can be planned much more wisely for the six-year high school than for the four-year, since in the junior and senior high school we have control of more of the years of work and can proceed more logically and psychologically. Whereas, in the four-year type we are not certain of the previous preparation or training of the children.

The most important factor which should influence us in planning the content of a clothing course is the aim of the girl. Based on their aims the high school girls may be divided into these most common groups:

1. Those preparing for college or normal school who take the Academic or Classical course.
2. Those preparing to enter the business
world who take the Commercial course.

3. Those who have not found themselves, but grope their way through school and drift into the General High School course.

4. That group who are interested in home activities or who expect to enter industries which are the outgrowth of home economics studies. These naturally take the Home Economics course.

It is taken for granted that we all agree to the fact that some clothing work, along with other home economics studies, should have a place in every course taken by the girls in high school; for, no matter what her aim is, she needs a proper course in home economics to help her live a happier, healthier, and more economic life. But the course in clothing for the home economics girls should differ somewhat from that followed by girls in other courses.

There are five aspects or phases of study in clothing: they are the artistic, economic, sociological, hygienic and technical, each of which should have a place in every clothing course. The only difference there should be in the different courses is in the amount of time and emphasis placed on these different phases. This amount of time and emphasis depends upon which of the several high school courses this work is a part of, whether Home Economics, Commercial, or College Preparatory.

Other factors affecting this difference in emphasis are the conditions of a community, such as the nationalities represented, the industries, the social and economic status of the families. Due to certain of these conditions the people of a locality may already appreciate perhaps the artistic or economic elements of clothing and would therefore need to have brought to their notice for study the sociological, hygienic, and technical.

Now, heretofore, and at the present time in many places, the technical work has never suffered from neglect; in fact, it has almost entirely eclipsed the other aspects. It is no wonder our subject has been called “sewing,” for it deserved just that name and we are having a difficult time to correct that idea in the minds of the people, not only of those of other departments, but even of our own. We aim to have them realize it is not sewing, but clothing that we are teaching; and the surest way to get that across is to have our work deserve that name. It will not be done unless we broaden our course and make it not only a Subject of Doing, as sewing is, but a Subject of Study as well.

Is there not plenty of subject matter for thought and study in regards to clothing? If we would have our work deserve the same respect and stand on an equal basis with the other subjects in the school curriculum we must remember that the value of any course is commensurate with the thought content.

In one of the reports at the meeting of the American Home Economics Association, February, 1921, this remark was made: “Our girls do not need advanced cooking and sewing, but they need great emphasis on the social side of the home, the appearance and the economics of buying. They all buy clothes and know nothing about them. Why do we leave them to buy at the mercy of fashion?” We need to put in a course that will function in the girl’s life.

We will first consider a rather comprehensive survey course that may very wisely and conveniently be made a required part of each of the courses offered in high school other than the Home Economics Course. The year or years and the distribution of the time of the course must be decided upon according to the organization of the individual high school.

Now, these girls who are going to college or entering business are not going to have time or will probably not care to make their clothes, but they are going to have to know how to select appropriate and attractive clothes, to know the effect of clothing upon their health, how to care for their clothes, etc.

The economic side offers opportunity for the study of the cost of clothing, which includes the study of the clothing budget; the comparison of the cost and value of homemade and ready-made garments; the care and renovation in connection with which may be taken simple lessons in darning, patching, and care of dress accessories; the study of textiles, prices, properties, inexpensive substitutes and adulterations; the conservation of materials in the home by seasonal storage, cleaning and laundering.
Some lessons should be devoted to the hygiene of clothing, its daily use and care, including laundering and cleaning; with its effects upon health; the study of kinds, sizes, and styles of different articles of clothing conducive to good health; the conditions, sanitary or otherwise, under which they are manufactured.

The last named suggest the sociological side in which the students should get an appreciation of factory conditions, child labor, the Consumer's League and its work, and the ethics of shopping.

The artistic phase would include the study of materials, their texture and design; the color, line and style of costume suitable to individuals, to time, and occasion, which would mean the selection of a suitable and attractive wardrobe.

This study does not exclude the constructive side, however. Simple garments are to be made as a means of adapting and illustrating some of the subjects of study, and will give the girl some knowledge and appreciation of the use of patterns and sewing machine and some fundamental principles of garment construction.

In the Home Economics Course the aims of the clothing work are: first, to enable the girl to become proficient in running her personal affairs intelligently; second, to prepare her for going into professional establishments, as millinery or dressmaking, to become more proficient; third, to prepare her for entering higher schools for further study along those lines and later to teach this specialty.

The clothing work for these girls differs from the foregoing scheme principally in the amount of time given to the subjects and in the amount of practice application. There is also opportunity given for elective work where the girl is interested in a specialty and is contemplating more advanced training after leaving school.

The survey course, just described, is a very good one for the home economics girl to start out with, for it will give her an idea of the scope of the work and prepare her for more specialized and intensive work later. But for the home economics girl this course may be more condensed than for the other students, for she will enlarge upon all the phases later on. The practical side of the course may be extended to include more construction work; as the making of simple garments not only for herself, but for others, possibly for some institution of charity in the community which will offer opportunities for practice.

The work in textiles in the high school should include a working knowledge of standard materials covering their characteristics, properties, widths, and cost. The properties of materials which affect their relation to health and their laundering qualities should be known, but the production, manufacture, and distribution is necessary only so far as they affect the cost and are related to the girl's responsibility as a consumer. This textile work should not be isolated from the clothing course, but should be taught with it so as to contribute to, and find application in, the clothing course.

Following this introductory course may be given more detailed work in clothing. Although the artistic element is an important one in all clothing courses, this course should be especially closely related to the design course, for the aim of it is to teach the girl to plan a suitable and attractive wardrobe. There should be close co-operation with the art teacher, and dress designs should be discussed in the art class in advance of the selection and construction in the clothing class. The construction problems may include the making of personal garments, as middies, shirtwaists, cotton dresses, wool skirts, etc., using commercial patterns.

Beyond this work more specialized units may be offered, a certain number being required but allowing a choice, such as Elementary Millinery, Dress-making, Remodeling of Clothing, Children's Clothing, including the Layette, etc. In all of them we must remember to make them as broad as possible and not as purely technical as the name suggests.

This then constitutes a suggestive clothing course for a high school.

**THE NORMAL SCHOOL**

Most girls entering the normal school take only the two-year Home Economics Course, one reason being that it is the only one offered in most normals. At the end of this time they are prepared to teach in the Junior High School or grades. Those who continue for four years are planning to teach in Senior High Schools or become supervisors of this work.
Many girls, when they come to the normal school have already had in high school all the technique of clothing desirable in the first year of normal school work, but lack other phases, while others have had no work at all in clothing.

In planning the course of study we must take these conditions into consideration and remember that, in order to teach this work, the student must appreciate its broadest possible scope and must provide herself with a much greater amount of knowledge and technical ability than she will expect of those whom she teaches.

All through the normal school, as well as the high school, it is to be remembered that the art work should be very closely related to the clothing course and the two courses should run parallel.

During the first year there should be given an elementary clothing course similar to the comprehensive survey course suggested for the Home Economics group in the high school, with the addition of more construction problems. This course is necessary; first, because, as mentioned before, many of the girls have had none of this work in high school and second, because those who have had some work need to take it again to get the teacher’s view point.

In the second year of the normal school course the textile work may be somewhat isolated and made a unit of more intensive and detailed study. Besides the textiles in the second year there should be given a unit in millinery and one in dressmaking. The millinery unit may include the study of styles suitable to different types (which calls for a study of the styles of hair dress), the care and renovation of hats and materials, the making of paper shapes, a soft crinoline shape, and the altering and covering of a commercial frame.

The dressmaking unit includes the making of a wool and a silk dress, the study of materials, line, and style for different types, and the care, mending, and remodeling of that type of garment.

The third and fourth years of normal school work lead to the Bachelor’s Degree, and in those years the clothing course should consist of these required units: Costume Design (to be handled by the Art depart-
ment if possible); History of Costume, and Dress Design, which offers an opportunity for applying the principles of costume design and includes the drafting and draping of original designs in practice material and ending in the designing, by either of these methods, and the making up of a wearable dress or wrap.

With the satisfactory completion of this work a student would have the proper background for teaching clothing in a high school.

Gertrude Greenawalt

WITHDRAWAL DEPENDS ON INDIVIDUAL, NOT COURSE

More than twice as many pupils withdraw from technical courses in the high schools as from academic courses, according to a study of three high schools in Cincinnati. R. J. Condon, superintendent of schools, states that this large withdrawal is not due to lack of attractiveness in the practical work, but to the fact that certain types of boys and girls select the more practical, scientific, and technical courses because they can not, or fear they can not, do the work of the more abstract general courses. These pupils would probably drop out before completing the course, no matter what group of subjects they chose.

INSTALL WOMEN’S SCHOOL

Northwestern University Inaugurates Citizenship Course this Month

A citizenship school for women of Illinois, the first in the State to be installed by a university, will be conducted at Northwestern January 20-31.

The school will be continued by the University of Chicago later in the spring, according to Mrs. Henry W. Cheney, president of the Illinois League of Women Voters. Plans for the school are being made on the order of those held at Yale for women of Connecticut, and the University of Wisconsin.

Dr. George W. Kirchwey, of New York, former warden of Sing Sing, and members of the staff of Northwestern will be the principal lecturers. Subjects will include legislation and ballot instruction, public school efficiency, budget making and purchasing in cities, methods of voting and public utilities.
EDUCATIONAL COMMENT

THE revival of a professorship at New York University first held by Samuel F. B. Morse, inventor of the telegraph, has a note of interest for Virginians. Fiske Kimball, noted writer on art and architecture, and now professor of the Literature of the Fine Arts at the University of Virginia, and lecturer at the Metropolitan Museum of Art, becomes Morse Professor of the Literature of the Fine Arts at the New York institution, the chair left vacant eighty years ago by the inventor of the telegraph.

RELIGIOUS conditions, academic freedom, athletics, college endowments, publicity, and related subjects of importance in the field of education were reviewed last week in connection with the annual conventions in Chicago of the Association of American Colleges, the Council of Church Boards of Education, and Church workers of Universities. The educational situation in America, according to Dr. Robert L. Kelly, of New York, the executive secretary, is most encouraging, particularly from the standpoint of numbers seeking college training. Never in history, according to the secretary, have so many young people sought admission to college; so great, indeed, has been the influx of students since the war that nearly all of the larger institutions are overcrowded and have been forced to turn students away. It would seem a great opportunity has arrived for these institutions to raise standards of admission and to realize the administrative ideal of wise selection in the type of students admitted to university training. Undoubtedly service can be rendered, not only to individuals, but to the nation as well, by intelligent selection of candidates for admission to higher training, and many life-tragedies resulting from misfits can be forestalled by stressing quality rather than quantity production by our higher institutions.

JUDGING from the protests sent to President Will H. Hays, of the Motion Picture Producers and Distributors of America, relative to his decision to allow Fatty Arbuckle again to make comedies for the American people, the people at least, if not the Courts, have found Mr. Arbuckle guilty of the charges preferred against him. Of course the public welfare, and not the question of personal sympathy, is the issue in this as in all cases. But there are doubtless two questions that loom large in the mind of the movie comedian and his well-wishers: Does a man accused of crime always remain in the eye of the public guilty, notwithstanding the decision of the Court to the contrary? Do some callings, even in the case of a repentant guilty one, preclude the chance to come back, however sincerely one repents the past and turns his face to the future?

PRESIDENT Harding has joined the advocates of the “movies” in education. While most of his ideas are familiar to those who have taken an interest in the development of educational films, at least a new angle is suggested in his notion of the coordination of the printed page and the screen; the suggestion of a combination of filmized novels and lectures on supplementary topics in educational work ought certainly to evoke considerable interest among teachers of expression, as the educational value of a film itself under the conditions cited would depend upon the skill and effectiveness of the teacher or lecturer. The “human factor” here becomes more prominent than in ordinary demonstration lectures. Whatever discussion Mr. Harding’s suggestions may call forth, it is hoped that no little emphasis will be put upon the gentle art of reading the
masterpieces of literature for values that can never be brought out by the highest skill of the film producer.

A NATIONAL referendum on Federal education being taken by the United States Chamber of Commerce asks the following questions: Do you favor the creation of a Federal Department of Education with a secretary in the President's cabinet? Do you favor the enlarging of the present Federal bureau of education? Do you favor the principle of Federal aid and education in the States on the basis of the States' appropriating sums equal to those given by the Federal government? While this trio of questions will undoubtedly meet a very "favorable" response from school people, it seems difficult to arouse much interest in the matter on the part of the general public. Much more might be accomplished, if the daily press could be aroused to the same pitch of interest as that evidenced in the educational journals.

SOUTHERN women now hold a peculiar position in business and professional life, according to Miss Elinor Coonrod, executive secretary of the National League of Business and Professional Women. The same traits, Miss Coonrod thinks, that have won them social recognition have in many cases been turned to winning laurels for them in the world of business affairs. "I imagine," Miss Coonrod declares, "that if you made a survey you would also find that many of your notable women of New York City made a beginning in the South. If you looked further you would also find that those same Southern women came to success in New York City because they expected it! The better class of Southern women, you must remember, have been surrounded from birth by tradition and adoration. This same setting has served to make them sure of themselves and to expect certain things as their due, whether it be in social or in business life." Miss Coonrod cites many cases of pronounced success on the part of Southern women and assures us that both business and the professions make a strong appeal to them, and that the better class of Southern women are rapidly entering them.

CURRENT EDUCATIONAL PUBLICATIONS

TURNING THE SCHOOLS INTO EDUCATIONAL LABORATORIES

Possibly the easiest way to gain an insight into the Dalton Plan is to spend one forenoon with a class. Let us choose a fourth grade, since the plan is peculiarly suited to these middle years.

The class assembles in its home room. This room is also one of the laboratories, for English or whatever subject the teacher specializes in. Specializes in! Yes, thank heaven, specializes! For these grammar grade teachers are not expected to know a little bit about everything under the sun from aesthetic dancing to frog's eggs; consequently they have an opportunity to know thoroughly either the dancing or the life cycle of the frog. After the opening exercises each child reports to one of the laboratories according to his plan for the morning. That is, if the fourth grade teacher is in charge of the English laboratory, only those fourth graders ready to work on English stay in their home room. The ones who want to work on geography move in to the geography laboratory. There they find a part of the room set aside for the fourth grade, with work tables and chairs. In this room are collected all the illustrative material the school has, such as maps and pictures pertaining to geography. All reference books on the subject are also in the room, instead of being scattered throughout the school. Moreover, the teacher in charge is a trained specialist.

Once the children are at work in a certain laboratory they stay until the task is completed or their interest changes. That is, there are no half hour bells with shifting of groups to other laboratories. If the children become tired they are free to put in part of the time in one of the art laboratories or in the gymnasium. So, if John is working out a problem in geography and wants to stay

at it all the morning, no one disturbs him. One gets a vision of all sorts of educational values: "mind set to a purpose," sustained attention, the will to learn—they are all here.

But John will idle away his time because he does not know what to do! Well, may be, John would in school, but remember he is in a laboratory. He has along with him a definite block of work, his "contract job." Besides, he is working in close association with the other fourth grades in the room and with an expert in geography at hand to act as guide at critical places. This "contract job" given to John covered a month's work in each subject. Therefore, he knew at the beginning where the work was heading. Before the geography teacher gave it to him she had been in conference with all the other teachers making "contract jobs" for him. So there is an opportunity for much correlation of subject matter. In fact, if the faculty is able to do so, there is no reason why the subject lines may not become less marked and the child work on a problem of vital interest unifying many subjects. For, that great impediment to progress in the grammar grades, the iron-clad program, has vanished. Christian has dropped his pack and gone on his way to heaven triumphant!

In order that the children may not waste their time, they are quite definitely guided in its use. When they get a month's assignments, they sign up for them, accepting the responsibility for the contract just as a business man does. These assignments are evaluated in days, so that the child knows exactly how many of the twenty days of history he has completed and can record this on his graph. He also blocks this achievement off for history on the wall graph in the history laboratory, and on the one for his class in his home room. On this home-room graph he blocks in his achievement in each subject. So the child can see at a glance from his individual graph just where he stands, the geography teacher has a record of the work done in geography by all her children, and the home teacher has a record for each child in her charge in each subject. These data are all at hand when the adviser helps him make his study program for the work. If he fails to distribute his time properly or dawdles over his work he is in disgrace. The adviser then makes a study plan for him and sees to it that he spend his time properly, and he must prove his worth before he is his own free man again. Another check is the fact that at the end of the month he must check out in each subject. That is, if he is ahead in arithmetic and behind in geography then he clears the geography away before he gets another "contract job." If he can do the month's work in less than a month, he is not held back for weaker comrades, but is given the next contract at once. If he needs more time to complete the work, he is not hurried. If he is absent, when he returns he begins just where he left off. In other words, the course of study is adapted to the individual differences in children.

The three hours from nine until twelve are spent in the laboratory. The teacher in charge is free to call a grade group working in her room into a conference at any time. Generally it works the other way; they call her in to aid them in a problem. At twelve the classes meet for conference. That is, the fourth grade will meet together with the arithmetic teacher on Monday, with the English teacher on Tuesday, etc. The afternoon program is similar to the morning, except that certain subjects are taught in regular groups then, such as physical education, chorus, and literature.

A considerable number of assignments or "contract jobs" are given in the book. These are of uneven value. Some are decidedly inferior: formal problems in formal subject matter. Some meet the most rigid modern tests; they create a need for the subject matter through a vital problem. All are definite: the child knows the inner workings of the course, and sees things as a whole. All provide opportunity for training in responsibility, in the organization and the expenditure of time, and in the problem attitude toward life. All provide, however, too much written English, and, unfortunately, at the expense of oral work. However much the teacher may differ with some of these assignments, they are bound to prove suggestive.

The Dalton Plan is no panacea for existing educational ills. It is more light on the problem we are all concerned in, the reconciliation of our educational practices and beliefs. To sum up the results of the experiment: it substitutes for the traditional school
an educational laboratory with a flexible program, with schemes for allowing the child to take his own pace through school, and for having him realize his own status quo in any subject at any time. There is insufficient provision for oral recitation, and any reform in the organization of subject matter will be conditioned by the strength of the faculty.

Miss Parkhurst is deeply indebted to Dewey and Swift. From the latter came the inspiration for the term "educational laboratory." The "Dalton" is honor to him to whom honor is due: Dalton, Massachusetts, was foresighted enough to allow the use of its high school for the original experiment, conducted by Miss Parkhurst.

The Dalton Plan was reported some time ago by Evelyn Dewey. This book by Miss Parkhurst herself is intended chiefly for English readers. It is a beacon light toward international understanding: written by an American, with the foreword and several sections by prominent British educators, published by an American firm, dedicated to three women who have labored for the plan on both sides of the Atlantic, with the proceeds from sales in England to go to a school for crippled children in London, it augurs well for the furtherance of Anglo-American friendship. Some books we read to enjoy—yes, even some educational ones! Some we read to follow. Some we read critically, first agreeing, then picking flaws, but all the time honoring them by our serious attention. This book is in the third class. No one who is aiming to so shape his teaching that the children learn through experience can afford to ignore it. For, when the final word is said about teaching through activities, the Dalton Plan will have left its imprint on our educational thought.

Katherine M. Anthony

BUILDING "WORLD-MINDEDNESS"


The present day course of study in the elementary school makes much of geography, and rightly so. For the economic and social aspects of the subject offer an unparalleled opportunity to give the child an understanding of modern life, thus training him in a very definite way for citizenship. Most of our modern texts in geography begin with the fourth grade, but ideas so fundamental for living should be given as early as the child is ready for them. The leading elementary schools of the country have long realized this, as have the normal schools. As a consequence they put much stress upon social studies for the primary grades, studies aimed at an understanding of the child's own world. But if the children in these situations need an introduction to the more formal geography, how much more essential it is for the less favored ones, the ones in village and rural schools.

Lack of materials organized for little children has heretofore handicapped the teacher not trained to do such work for herself. Now we have a book for the children in the third grade; one that they can read easily and that will afford them through its wealth of detail and pictures a clear understanding of their own world.

This book emphasizes the economic aspects of our civilization, showing the child the relation between his home and the outside world. It will at the same time lay the foundation for a "world-mindedness" in the child. For when he has shared the Eskimo's home building problem, for instance,—the help at the close of the chapter will guide him in this—he feels a kinship to him that makes for wholesome internationalism. These problems embody much of the good of the project method, although they are very modestly labelled "Things to Think About and Things to Do."

Geography for Beginners will make an attractive reader for a third grade child; it will serve well as a reference book for the grade whose teacher organizes her own social activities; it will probably do its best service in the hands of the third grade classes of the country.

Katherine M. Anthony

OTHER BOOKS OF INTEREST

(Books listed here may later be reviewed at length).


A thoroughgoing study of the teaching of reading and literature from the third grade
through the high school. Its fundamental idea is that children's reading of literature should always be an achievement of realized, true, and significant experience.


The first two volumes in a series of four, designed for the four years of high school literature. In Book I are grouped both classic and contemporary literature about certain large themes: adventure, history and legend, man and his fellows, nature. Book II features literature as story, in verse, in prose, in drama; it also includes a treatment of the history of American literature.

Beautifully printed, illustrated, and bound. "Not school texts to be used and thrown aside, but books worth a place in the permanent library."


The authors propose less "so-called appreciation" and more real thought expended on literature. Alternate chapters present principles of writing and such high school readings as Poe's tales, Macaulay's "Samuel Johnson," Webster's "Bunker Hill Monument" and Washington's "Farewell Address," Tennyson's "Coming of Arthur" and "Passing of Arthur," "Macbeth," and Macaulay's "The Reform Bill."


A secondary school rhetoric which emphasizes position and argument as the more necessary forms of discourse in actual contact with other people. Stimulating pupils' interest in composition-writing seems not to have been one of the aims of the authors.


Written straight at the pupil. Minimum essentials in rhetoric, grammar, and mechanics are included, but emphasis is placed on language expression in interesting situations.

"The art of communication is best learned through attempts to communicate, with a moderate amount of systematic coaching. English in Service is planned to stimulate pupils to such attempts and to supply whatever counsel will be useful."

Early publication in three separate volumes for grades seven, eight, and nine is announced.


Prose selections for college reading in "freshman English," chosen in the belief that "the best way to teach composition is to lead the student to read a good deal and to write a good deal." A well-balanced combination of the masters and the moderns.


Discusses comprehensively and concretely the problems and procedure of supervision, and interprets the aims and processes of supervision.


A popular book in revised and enlarged form.


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**NOTES OF THE SCHOOL AND ITS ALUMNAE**

**INKLINGS**

"S-O-HO," you say, "The Virginia Teacher is all dressed up!" But did you know that it had some place to go? Yes indeed, the subscription list continues to grow; and there's no telling where we shall stop. Each number is printed in larger quantities than the one before. "What?" you ask, "every number?" Well, just about every number. Just about.

Over four hundred students, including a half-dozen or so new faces, to begin the winter quarter January 3. The old reliable "Normal Special" brought 'em in Tuesday night.—If you've ever suffered from homesickness, you know that the disease reaches the acute stage immediately after Christmas; so you may well imagine that Wednesday morning's lowering sky was not uplifting to drooping spirits. But there have been moving pictures, and radio concerts, and a peppy play at the New Virginia, to say nothing of new classes, new classrooms (four of them! Indeed yes; in the new building across from Harrison Hall), initiations into the literary and dramatic societies, new Breeze, new lots of things.

Standing on the sidelines was fun Friday, the day before the thirteenth. It was "goating
January, 1923

THE VIRGINIA TEACHER

23 day."—Seeing prospective members of the Lanier Literary Society dashing about all day, to class, to meals, everywhere, carrying suitcases, put one in mind of that memorable hero of Stephen Leacock's who "mounted his horse and rode rapidly in all directions."—The Page Literary Society had its goats well in hand: each wore a single glove.—The Lee goats had their society name displayed on large note-books.—Flapping viciously in the wind, the placards which have become part of the Stratford tradition were a distinguishing mark of the players-to-be.

Talking about players-to-be, did you know of the play-to-be? Have your social secretary enter in your engagement book the Virginia Tech Minstrels for January 20. They will be here soon after you read this announcement. The boys from V. P. I. have been here before and always draw a full house. Do your ticket-shopping early.—This visit is a sort of observance of social amenities, too. Last year our Glee Club paid Blacksburg a visit; now the call is being returned.—The Glee Club, by the way, has been somewhat reorganized. Because of the membership Miss Schaeffer renamed the organization during the fall quarter a Choral Club, and from the Choral Club recently selected about twenty girls who will constitute the 1923 Glee Club. The Glee Club has made a name for itself in providing a feast for eye as well as ear.—(We reserve the right to mix our metaphors as we will, and none shall say us nay).

The varsity basketball schedule is now arranged, and out of the various class teams Mrs. Johnston has picked a squad which is putting in some heavy practice for the games to be played in February and March. All the games are with state normal schools, two of them in Virginia and one in Maryland. More games may be arranged later. The schedule you will want to have handy. Here it is: Farmville at Harrisonburg, February 2; Radford at Harrisonburg, February 9; Radford at Radford, February 16; Farmville at Farmville, February 23; Towson at Towson (Md.), March 9; Towson at Harrisonburg, March 24.

Adolph H. Snyder, to whose memory the Breeze staff has recently dedicated the ten-dollar prize which it will offer each year for the best contribution published in the school newspaper, was a newspaper man for more than twenty-five years, and for twenty years was editor of a Harrisonburg paper. To commemorate Mr. Snyder's name in such a manner seems most appropriate, all the more because he was the first secretary of the Normal School Board of this school. The first issue of The Schoolma'am contains his picture, and is dedicated to him. There is also an illuminating sketch of his life to be found there, written by Dr. J. W. Wayland. Mr. Snyder's death occurred in 1910, not long after the first session of the Harrisonburg Normal School opened.

Miss Grace Brinton and Miss Myrtle Wilson were representatives from Harrisonburg at the meeting of the agricultural and home economics administrative officials and teachers in Richmond January 10 to 13.—Mrs. Pearl P. Moody has been granted a leave of absence for the half-year beginning February 1 in order that she may do some advanced work at Teachers College, Columbia University.—Miss Stephens, the librarian, and Misses Cornell and Buchanan, of the Training School, are instructors during the winter quarter, the former having a class in English, the latter two a class each in Education.—Mr. Johnston was recently elected vice-president of the Harrisonburg Kiwanis Club; there is some expectation that the jokes he cannot use on Normal School audiences will be utilized at Kiwanis luncheons.—President S. P. Duke is serving as secretary of the Harrisonburg Chamber of Commerce, pending the appointment of a successor to Andrew Bell.—Miss Frances Sale, formerly of the home economics department in Harrisonburg, but now representing a foundation which gives financial assistance to worthy students, spent several days visiting friends here early in January. Miss Sale has her headquarters at Leesburg, Virginia, but travels all over the South in her work of guiding and assisting several hundred students in many different institutions.

LOCATIONS OF THE GRADUATES OF 1922

APPENDED is a list of the locations of last year's graduates, both in the spring and summer. This list is supplementary to that published in the August number of The Virginia Teacher.

Misses Sophia Simpson, Mary Herring-
Miss Catherine Moore is attending William and Mary College. Miss Catherine Kemp is attending the Farmville State Normal School. Miss Josephine Painter is studying interior decorating, in Baltimore.

Ruth Arrington — Home Economics, Prince George Court House.

Catherine Beard—Grammar Grades, New Hope.

Dorothy Bonney—Primary Grades, Savannah, Georgia.

Edith Bryant, Assistant, Deltaville High School.

Helen Burroughs — Grammar Grades, Thaxton High School.

Anna Carpenter—Junior High School, Brightwood.

Virginia S. Carroll—Home Economics, Worsham.

Anna Clark—Grammar Grades, Christ School, Arden, N. C.

Isabel Crank—Grammar Grades, Forest High School, Forest Depot.

Virginia Crockett—Grammar Grades, Big Stone Gap.

Hattie Deatherage — Assistant High School Principal, Amissville.

Julia Dunaway—Primary Grades, Norfolk.

Katherine Jane Elliott—Principal, Levell Graded School, Chestnut Levell.

Ruby Felts—Primary Grades, Crews.

Virginia Garber — Grammar Grades, Portsmouth.

Virginia Garden—Primary Grades, Barhamsville.

Annie Gibson—Home Economics, Lee County Industrial School, Ewing.

Christine Gladstone — Cypress High School, Cypress Chapel.

Marion Glassell—English and History, Emmerton High School.

Elise Glenn—Primary Grades, Cluster Springs.

Hawsie Lewis Goodloe—Grammar Grades, Swanson School, Albemarle County.

Adrienne Goodwin—Home Economics, Shawsville.

Nannye Hagood—Home Economics, McKenney High School.

Ruth Haines—Primary Grades, Winchester.

Vivia Hairr—Primary Grades, Clinton, N. C.

Gladys Haldeman—History and Chemistry, Boyce High School.

Mary Carolyn Harris—Grammar Grades, Howison.

Mary Louise Harris—Primary Grades, Richmond.

Mary Hess—Grammar Grades, Richmond.

Mamie Jackson—English in High School, Powhatan.

Mary Ethelene Jones—Home Economics, Great Ridge High School.

Minnie Jones—Primary Grades, Carysbrook.

Bessie Kirkwood — Grammar Grades, Vinton.

Eunice Lambert—Junior High School, Catlett.

Ruth Fretwell Lewis — Junior High School, near Quinque.

Edith Lickfold — Grammar Grades, Alexandria.

Christine Long—Mathematics and Science in High School, Raphine.

Ruby Lowman—Primary Grades, Java.

Constance Martin — Home Economics, Proffitt.

Mrs. Winona Miller—Primary Grades, Bridgewater.

Lillian Agnes Moore—Primary Grades, Norfolk.

Helene Moorefield — Grammar Grades, Lawrenceville.

Lucille Murry—Primary Grades, Baltimore, Md.


Marie Painter—Home Economics, Big Stone Gap.

Emily Palmer—Home Economics, Saluda High School.

Isabel Potterfield—Principal Hill Grove School, Hunt.

Edythe Starke—Grammar Grades, Richmond.

Margaret Thoma—History and English in High School, Calverton.

Caroline Thompson—Assistant Principal, Junior High School, Savage, Md.
Allene Westerman — Primary Grades, Millboro School, Bath County.
Virginia White—Primary Grades, Brooms Island School, Md.
Gladys Winborne — Grammar Grades, Myrtle.

ALUMNAE PERSONALS

A GOOD letter has been received from Orra Otley. She and Nannie Burnley are both working in the same office in the Treasury Department in Washington. Their particular duty is to help those persons who have been so unfortunate as to have government bonds lost, stolen, or destroyed. They both express a cherished regard for friends and memories of Blue Stone Hill. Orra’s address is 5430 North Capital Street.

Marion Otley is teaching near the old home in Loudoun County and is enjoying her work.
Jean Robinson is teaching at Strasburg. She has pleasant recollections of the Normal and keeps in touch with former teachers there.
Helen Burroughs is teaching at Thaxton. She sent us a good report of her work a few days ago.
Louise Beatty is hard at work in Lovettsville. She has charge of the sixth and the seventh grades. With her recent letter she enclosed a check for The Virginia Teacher.
Bertha Reese is located at Sebrell. At the teachers’ institute recently held in her county she was chosen to give a demonstration lesson in history and civics.
Marguerite Garrett Etheridge sends a good message from her home in Miami, Florida.
Bertha Nuckolls remembers us in a faraway town of Kansas.
Louise Fuqua wrote not long ago from Drewry’s Bluff.

Wedding bells have been ringing merrily in the holiday season. A few of the marriages that took place were the following:
December 24, Frances Oakes to Mr. Arthur L. Mitchell, at Danville;
December 25, Nellie Strickler to Mr. Stewart D. Pence, at New Market;
December 27, Miriam Buckley to Mr. Joseph G. Spraker, at Clifton Station;
January 1, Ruby Brill to Mr. Saylor C. Hoover, at Mr. Jackson.

Eunice Lipscomb sends hearty greetings to all her friends from Crewe.
Zola Hubbard Leek and her husband are continuing their school work in Louisville, Kentucky.
Bernice Gay, from Portsmouth, sends greetings and best wishes.
Lucy Gatling mailed her recent message from the city of Petersburg.
Janet Farrar is teaching this year in Cleveland, Ohio.

OUR CONTRIBUTORS

WILLIAM H. KILPATRICK, whose address at one of the sectional meetings of the last Virginia Educational Conference we have been authorized to publish, though unfortunately only in a report and condensed form, is professor of the Philosophy of Education at Columbia University. Dr. Kilpatrick is not only an educator of international distinction and an author and editor of wide repute, but a contributor of much of the best in the solution of current educational problems. His recent trip to Virginia was deeply appreciated.

JOHN J. BIRCH is an instructor in the high school of Schenectady, New York. His ideas in “The Educational Value of the Home” touch upon a lamentably neglected phase of the education of the American youth. Mr. Birch holds the Pd. B. degree, and is an experienced teacher of boys and girls.

ETHEL LIVICK is a graduate of the State Normal School at Harrisonburg, class of 1922, and is now teaching in the schools of Waynesboro, Virginia. Miss Livick is closely acquainted with the Virginia School for the Deaf, Dumb and Blind, at Staunton.

FLORENCE L. ROBINSON is the supervising principal of the John H. Kerr School of Winchester, Virginia. The paper we publish in this issue was presented at the recent Educational Conference in Richmond.

GERTRUDE GREENAWALT is an instructor in the Home Economics Department of the State Normal School at Harrisonburg and a specialist in Clothing. Miss Greenawalt is a graduate of Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.

KATHERINE M. ANTHONY is the supervisor of the Training School at the State Normal School at Harrisonburg, Virginia. Miss Anthony is a frequent contributor to The Virginia Teacher and is thoroughly alive to all educational interests. Her review of the Dalton Plan in this issue is a contribution to the literature of the subject.
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Physics in Everyday Life, by W. D. Henderson, Ph. D., University of Michigan. This is one of the latest courses in the field in Physics. The author has taken full advantage of his opportunity to show the application of Physics to the problems of everyday life.

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