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Thirty-Five Cents a Copy
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Contributors To This Number

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When the contributors are members of the faculty of the State Normal School at Harrisonburg, their addresses are not given.
The tradition that only teaching and stenography are open to self-supporting women of the educated sort is dead in all places where the signs of the times are observed; and it ought to be dead in the remotest parts of the country, because it works harm alike to the callings and to the individual following either one grudgingly or without the fitness essential to success. Moreover, it prevents thousands of women from finding in their work the gratification which comes with work chosen as the fullest form of self-expression.

As its title would suggest, the Virginia Bureau of Vocations for Women exists to further the vocational interests of women. It is designed especially, although not exclusively, for Southern women, and is here to give them a better chance at the hundreds of interesting vocations being developed elsewhere for women. It is not commercial in its aims and is not intended to become ever entirely self-supporting, as more than half its work involves no possibility of financial returns, and even such small charges as are made for one form of assistance are remitted or deferred in payment, if special reasons make payment difficult.

Our work takes three main directions, and I name them in what seems to us the order of importance.

Our first and continuous effort is to gain information about all desirable vocations open to women or likely to be opened to them. We study the opportunity which a more or less standardised vocation offers for initiative and growth, its earning value, the training it requires, the place and cost at which this training may
be obtained, the most favourable environment for one following the vocation, etc. We look constantly also for vocations dependent on special aptitudes and individuality, rather than on severely technical training, both because there are many older women to whom this training is impossible but who have marked gifts in the way of home-making, taste, tact, or executive ability in some special direction, and because many young people today are making their way by applying some one fresh idea to a need people may have had half unconsciously. We file every such suggestion and add to our information about it according to our opportunity.

Our study began with an investigation of all opportunities in Virginia for vocational training of the higher sort. We found that very few forms of such training are attempted at all, and that as a result it is usually necessary for such work to be done by untrained workers, for skilled ones to be brought from a distance, or for Virginia women to go North for the training. The cost of this latter is prohibitive for fully nine tenths of those interested in securing it. Our survey made it clear that the need of more vocational training in our own state was the most urgent for us to attempt to supply, and we are at present devoting ourselves largely to that in connection with the general acquisition of further information of helpful sorts.

In domestic science training, Virginia is perhaps better provided, through her normal schools, than in any other form of vocational work. Even there, however, various further forms of specialisation need to be attempted, unless some central institution for domestic science alone is developed. Institutional management, as a subject for instruction, has already been begun in one or two of the schools, and the demand for women trained in this direction increases steadily. Also, there is increased need for combination of training in domestic science with that in social work, with nursing, etc. For training in stenography, there are, of course, various business schools scattered over the state, but none of them has yet felt able to attempt a standard commensurate with the increasing demand for highly trained secretaries. We need throughout the country, a few institutions being excepted from this generalisation, more exacting requirements—both as to general educa-
tion and as to special efficiency in English—for entrance to the business colleges. We need also longer terms of training for such work, and the infusion of much more general information and mental discipline into the student during the period of study. There is pressing need also of advanced secretarial courses of the sort to interest the college graduate and others as well equipped, so that they may go forward in a way entirely to their own advantage. In working towards this end, the Bureau of Vocations has met with cordial response from the main business schools of Richmond, and has learned much in regard to the difficulties confronting them in an attempt to raise their standards very rapidly, lack of practical public co-operation being one of them. One of the Richmond schools, Smithdeal Business College, has, however, already offered to develop an advanced secretarial course along the lines pursued at Simmons College, Boston, and Drexel Institute, Philadelphia. Others will probably do the same later on. Such departments, worthily maintained, would give secretarial work in Virginia the professional dignity which it is rapidly assuming in other places. Moreover, nothing is more evident in the study of vocations than the fact that secretarial training is an invaluable entering wedge to many interesting types of executive and other work. Indeed the executive secretary is becoming almost as frequent a figure in business and in institutional work as the Dean has been for a long time in academic activities. Aside from this, it is becoming a serious question whether every college student would not do well to acquire stenography in his freshman year as a general mechanical aid in the college course and later.

Another discovery resulting from our investigation has been the fact that no training in social work is available in the South, except that in connection with denominational enterprises and occasional isolated courses. This again means that, where trained workers are required, Northern men and women must do the work for us in an unfamiliar environment difficult to understand and accept; or that our people must secure their experience in a very different environment from that to which they come home for work. It means, for the most part, that our social workers have had to do without the technical training. The Bureau of Voca-
tions has felt this situation very keenly, both because many young people in Virginia are eager to do social work of high grade, and because the opportunities for such work here are multiplying steadily, as is evidenced to us by applications from various parts of the South for trained workers. We studied the situation carefully for a year, and decided that the co-ordination of forces already available in and near Richmond would make a valuable beginning of the needed training. We found also that two earlier attempts to establish such a school had been made in recent years, and that much interest in the matter was lying dormant, waiting for a fresh impulse to push the undertaking into execution. In October of the present year we ventured to ask for a conference at our office of the leaders in social work in Richmond and others whose co-operation was indispensable to the success of our efforts. To this conference came representatives of the Medical College of Virginia, Richmond and Westhampton Colleges, the Associated Charities, The State Board of Charities and Corrections, the Juvenile Court, The Traveler's Aid, the Y. W. C. A., the Commissioner of Public Health, the Anti-Tuberculosis League, The Instructive Visiting Nurses Association, the Playground League, and of many other organisations. The response was universal that co-operation would be forthcoming, and that a beginning ought to be made at once. A committee has been at work ever since on the formulation of a plan for this beginning, and although its official report has not yet been made, much is clear as to the direction which such training will take. It is planned to make a beginning in February with certain fundamental courses useful to all social workers, and with such specialisations as it may be convenient to arrange thus early. As soon as practicable, probably next year, a two-year course is to be arranged, but meanwhile all the work offered this year will be directly in line with later enlargements and a part of the plan as a whole. The training offered is to be thoroughly scientific and modern in character, of the sort for which academic credit can be given and recognition wherever the student may later wish to undertake work. The lectures are to be given by members of the faculty of the Medical College of Virginia and of Richmond College, and by recognised experts in special
phases of practical social work. Field work is to be based on study only of such local organisations or institutions as are modern in their development, and groups of courses will be designated to the student according to the special phase of social work which he is interested to pursue—as child welfare, probation work, playground work, etc. Courses are to be offered in economics, sociology, psychology, civics, ethics, various aspects of hygiene, domestic science, etc. Many of those already influential in social work have indicated their intention of taking courses offered, and the widespread interest in the movement seems sure to make it productive of great good. Official notice of it will be sent widely throughout the state, probably throughout the South. The notice ought to have deep significance in every college or other school where students are mature enough to be choosing their careers.

Still another effort has resulted from our study of Virginia resources for vocational training, although it is still too early to predict actual results. No advanced instruction is available in Virginia in the applied arts—such as the designing of furniture, textiles, wall paper, etc.; illustrations for books and advertising; bookbinding, weaving, jewel-making, mural painting, interior decorating, etc. This means that our young people are practically cut off from vocations which in many other places enable thousands to earn their living by the making of beautiful things; also that Virginia purchases of such things are necessarily turning elsewhere the money which should develop and encourage the artistic ability of our own people. Again, in our effort to see what could be done to improve conditions here, we have been met with cordial interest by those with whose work the matter is most closely connected. The President of the Board of Directors of the Art Club of Richmond and all of its instructors have expressed the keenest desire to have these newer forms of art instruction made available in Richmond, and we are working together to make that possible in the near future. All who have considered the matter carefully realise that, aside from the obligation to give Virginia boys and girls a better chance at self-expression through art, Virginia's historical background of Indians, the colonial period, the negro life, etc., offer a rare amount of material for ef-
fective designs in mural decoration, pottery, furniture, weaving, and various other forms of art. The realisation ought to stimulate and crystallise Virginia pride in supporting such an undertaking.

Studying opportunities outside of Virginia for technical training, we find them available in agriculture, architecture, fine and industrial art, business administration, civil service, eugenics, medical social service, household economics, journalism, law, library work, nursing, psychopathic training, medicine, physical training, playground and recreation training, teaching of defective children, public health training; religious training for social work, scientific training in laboratories, etc., research work of various sorts, vocational guidance, statistical training, secretarial work, photography, school gardening, dietetics, probation work, insurance, horticulture, florist’s specialisations, department store education, social work of many kinds. Opportunities for using training in perhaps half of these directions exist already in Virginia; they ought not to be difficult to create in many others. It is a part of our work to suggest new phases of woman’s activity at any point where it seems desirable and to stimulate interest in it both publicly and privately.

A second aim of the Bureau of Vocations, along with that of studying conditions and enlisting interest in bettering them, is the transmission of information as to vocations available. This phase of our work may be described as advisory. Some of it is done in chapel talk to undergraduates, and in individual conferences following such talks; some of it through writing for college papers, through vocational committees among undergraduates, through the lending of interesting clippings showing what some women are doing, through correspondence with students consulting us, etc. Whenever we are able to visit a college, students come in great numbers for consultation, and in many ways it is evident that their interest in the general subject is keenly alive and at work. It must be said, however, that the colleges themselves seem not yet awake to this growing interest or to the care being used in many places elsewhere to guide this interest to the best results. Within the next two years there should be developed in every college, or institution involving any work of collegiate
rank, a systematic course of lectures and private conferences, showing the students how much is open to their choice of future work and helping them to use their college course to the advantage of this work without interfering with the acquirement of a really liberal education. Such help should, we think, begin with each student at least in the sophomore year. We believe, too, that our colleges would do well to buy more books treating of vocations for women; also to guide the interest of the students by calling attention to women very successful in different types of work, and to have as many of such women as possible speak before the student body during the year. There need be no fear of excessive feminism in this: it is merely the educational direction of impulses sure to grow stronger and stronger.

Much of our advisory work is done through correspondence, although this is inevitably somewhat unsatisfactory except when we attempt merely to furnish information as a basis for the other's choice. Letters from many parts of the country come to us asking such counsel, many from Virginia women in quiet country places, from girls newly out of school, from women tired of teaching, and from various others. Naturally, a large number seeking advice come directly to our office; and some day we must have, what we long for daily, a big, sunny living room with comfortable chairs and pictures about, and in the winter an open fire, where those who come to us may sit and talk with us without the suggestion of the office routine and records, which are vital to our efficiency but seem obtrusive when we wish to talk confidentially, merely as one friend to another. Even under present conditions, however, we try to dispense with all avoidable formality and to show that our first interest is in our visitor's own point of view; that we believe most of all in the power of her own individuality expressing itself as naturally as is consistent with other conditions to be met. Sometimes when interviews have failed to convince me of my ability to advise wisely, I choose a book or magazine article from a motley collection of reading matter we keep in the office, ask my visitor to read it and come back to discuss it with me. It may be a play of Ibsen's, an account of some significant public movement, a college catalogue, or something dif-
ferent from any of these; but it is invariably illuminating to discover her power to get the point of it, and her re-action to it. Frequently I ask for some short piece of work, either fresh to my request or already done. No inconsiderable number of those who come to us are cherishing the hope of becoming writers by vocation; and we are never hard on an ambition in that direction, because it nearly always means unusual facility in expression, and that in itself is, of course, a valuable asset in many vocations, whether creative ability goes with it or not. Most frequently, where better acquaintance is needed before any advice can be given, we suggest spending a few afternoons in our office, reading and helping us where this is practicable. This gives leisure for the visitor’s acquaintance with our resources for helping her, and enables us to judge her much more safely before we advise.

What most people erroneously understand to be our one function—that of actually finding positions for people—comes last in our scale of importance and is likely to do so for many years, although we do fill many positions. Our primary concern being with the widening of vocational opportunities for women, and with preparing women to take advantage of these, it seems to us very questionably wise for us to divert emphasis from these aims now for any other work, however much needed. When filling a position means, as it sometimes does, the beginning of a new era for an institution, or the launching of a new idea as to possibilities in woman’s work, or the lifting of great discouragements over financial pressure, or the introduction of some young woman into a new world of interest, our effort seems well repaid, although we do such work under existing conditions at tremendous cost to our larger growth in fundamentals. We realise, however, that to many the Bureau of Vocations cannot interpret itself except through this last function; and so we seek to combine it with the other as far as is compatible with the development of the more permanent values. Moreover, we do not forget that intimate contact with economic conditions which placing a given individual in a given situation brings, seasons our study and counsel.

This account of our work, necessarily a cursory one
in spite of its length, would be incomplete without more explanation of our financial problems. They are the more acute because we have a measure of pride in not emphasizing them until our work is more fully understood as a constituent part of all educational effort, and as the natural ally of all women who are efficient or are capable of becoming so. Colleges, schools, alumnae associations, women's clubs of all kinds, all public spirited organizations, are a part of our natural constituency, as we are of theirs. Our work ought to be endowed, or it ought to exist by the co-operation of those groups whom it serves. We believe that such financial co-operation as is needed will come with understanding. We are waiting for that.

O. L. Hatcher, Director

The mid-day mountains are blue, you say;
The sun-set peaks are red;
But the up-land I saw at break of day
Reflected a rarer hue.
Yet in it was the strength of red,
And the truth of that noon-day blue;
For the color rare
That I saw there
Was a tinting born of the two.

Linda Carter
THE NEAR-OCCULT

If, after a chance informal introduction, a stranger should tell you your name, residence, profession, size of your purse, your present destination, and should volunteer other equally personal information, you would doubtless be somewhat surprised. Or, if a trained animal should, without trickery of any sort, tell you the time of the day from your watch, count the articles in your hand, point out north, east, south, and west, work problems in arithmetic, including fractions, and show skill in algebraic equations; if he could discriminate colors, appreciate harmony and discord in music, and do many other similar feats, you would probably be interested enough to see him perform a second time, and raise a question or two regarding his education. Such forms of skill as have been suggested here are particularly well exemplified in the performances of three famous horses, now carefully studied by experts. Their achievements are of special significance for the sidelight they throw upon several practical considerations.

Clever Hans

More than a decade ago the newspapers of Germany were filled for some months with heated discussions concerning the abilities of Clever Hans. This horse was given a four years' course of training by Mr. von Osten, a retired Prussian schoolmaster of Berlin, then past sixty years of age. Here at last, many believed, was an animal capable of abstract thought of the highest type, whose brilliant responses to complex situations made plain the essential identity of human and animal consciousness, if once given similar means of self-expression. There seemed to be no fraud; Hans was educated. Even his handicap of speechlessness was overcome in large measure by a sign language, expressed chiefly by tapping the right fore foot. He also expressed much by movements of his head: "yes," for example, by a nod. "no," by a movement from side to side. By turning the head in different directions he indicated "upper," "upward," "downward," "right," and "left." He showed remarkable ability in orientation; if a person faced him and raised his right arm, Hans promptly recognized this
by a movement to his right instead of to the left, as might have been expected. Hans often pointed out things or persons by walking towards them. By a system of taps the names of playing cards, the letters of the alphabets, tones of the scales, etc., were indicated. Zero he expressed by a shake of the head.

Clever Hans's specific accomplishments were many. He could sort colors, had apparently completely mastered cardinals from one to one hundred and ordinals to ten. If many things or many persons were to be counted, he did it rapidly; if few, he tapped slowly. He knew thoroly the four fundamental operations of arithmetic and both common and decimal fractions. In response to this problem, add 2-5 and 1-2, the answer came promptly, 9-10, the numerator first being tapped and then the denominator. Here are other problems Hans was fond of solving, as reported by Dr. Pfungst (1, p. 21): "I have a number in mind. I subtract 9, and have 3 as a remainder. What is the number I had in mind?"—12. "What are the factors of 28?" Thenceupon Hans tapped consecutively 2, 4, 7, 14, 28. "In the number 365287149 I place a decimal point after the 8. How many are there now in the hundreds' place?"—5. "How many in the ten thousandths' place?"—9. When Hans answered incorrectly he could nearly always correct the error immediately if asked, "By how many units did you go wrong?"

Furthermore, Hans was able to read German print or script, spelling the words by taps. His trainer insisted that he would not respond to French or English. Hans, moreover, knew the value of all German coins, and carried the entire yearly calendar in his head, so that he could even answer such questions as this: "If the eighth day of a month comes on Tuesday, what is the date for the following Friday?" He could tell the time of day to the minute from a watch and could recognize persons seen but once—could recognize them, too, from photographs taken years before.

Hans showed almost incredible sensory acuity. He could count distant windows and children of the street. Mr. von Osten maintained he caught answers to problems whispered at some distance and, therefore, enjoined complete silence during a performance.
Hans’s sense of absolute pitch and infallible feeling for intervals placed him among the musically gifted. He not only recognized discords, but knew what tones produced them. He preferred old-fashioned music to modern. Withal, Hans showed familiarity with at least thirteen melodies and their time.

Something has also been said of Hans’s individuality, his moods, likes, dislikes, frequently displayed stubbornness, etc. All apparently that he lacked to make him almost human was language; experienced educators declared his mental development to be about that of a child thirteen or fourteen years old.

Professor Stumpf, of the University of Berlin, has reported the methods used by Mr. von Osten in the “education” of Hans. These are shown to be not unlike those used with children. Their concreteness is striking. Frequently rewards for successful accomplishments were given in the form of carrots and bread. Patience and gentleness characterized the instruction throughout. Von Osten, it will be recalled, was a veteran schoolmaster. His methods, as Professor Stumpf says, “were beautifully conceived and might perhaps form the basis for the instruction of primitive races” (1, p. 252).

**Muhamed and Zarif**

When the report of a group of scientists appeared in December, 1904, giving the results of their experimental study of the intelligence of Clever Hans, it discredited in unmistakable terms his power to think abstractly. Wherupon Mr. Krall (2), a wealthy jeweler of Elberfeld, became more than ever interested in the case. He was unwilling to accept this report and made investigations of his own upon Clever Hans, which convinced him that this remarkable horse was educated in the strictest sense of the term. Accordingly, Mr. Krall purchased on his own account several horses with the hope of being able to show their power to think independently. The two most capable of these horses, of fine Arabian stock, were named Muhamed and Zarif.

Krall improved upon the methods used by von Osten in the education of Hans. For example, he had his horses tap with the left foot for tens, and with the right foot
The Near-Ocult

for hundreds thus making for speed and accuracy in replies. Other better methods made for such progress that after two weeks' training these horses executed simple commands, and Muhamed had begun to show evidence of arithmetical ability, in which he later developed particular strength. During the first month, Krall's horses learned to perform commands given in German and other tongues, both spoken and written, including Greek. After five months' training they had attained the level of ability reached by Hans only after four years' patient instruction. In fact, at this time Krall's horses surpassed Hans, even in their independence of expression, and after subsequent training made a better record in every particular.

Of the many marvelous acquisitions of Zarif and Muhamed, there is space here to set forth only mere samples. Muhamed showed particular fondness for the extraction of roots and acquired no small skill in solving algebraic equations. Muhamed, moreover, was trained to carry on conversations with his master, and seemed to show original ideas. When asked to explain certain phenomena, this horse would give strikingly intelligent answers. Muhamed took pleasure in looking at a brightly colored cock pictured in a book. When asked in writing, "What do you do when you want to see the cock?" he replied, "Open book." In one test the cube root of 5,832 was given correctly in several seconds, while the square root of 15,376, and the fourth root of 456,976 were given correctly in about ten seconds (3).

The Explanation

When the feats of Clever Hans were given newspaper publicity diverse explanations were proposed. The character and functions of animal consciousness were debated variously. Not content with opinion, a group of eminent specialists, including the psychologists Stumpf and Pfungst, of the University of Berlin, undertook a painstaking investigation of the powers of Clever Hans. From their many experiments and observations it is evident that Hans was only trained, not educated. He, first of all, got his information, both in regard to questions and answers, chiefly, if not wholly, thru the eye. He responded correctly when the ques-
tioner merely thought the question and thought the answer. Loud calls and commands little disturbed Hans’s tapping, if unaccompanied by movements. Furthermore, he seldom cocked his ears or showed signs of giving auditory attention.

Hans worked best for his master, von Osten, but he worked for certain other individuals. He could not perform accurately if the questioner was unfamiliar with the answer to the problem set for solution. At this stage the question still remained: How did Hans perform his unusual feats? His master believed him educated, capable of responding unaided. He, as far as could be determined, was unconscious of giving any assistance whatever to the horse in answering.

At about this point in the investigation it was noticed that von Osten made certain very slight, almost imperceptible movements of the head and body, perhaps of one one-hundredth of an inch or less, which seemed to serve as the cues by which the horse was controlled. This was the first real hint regarding the answer to Hans’s intelligence.

Further observation showed that when the questioner addressed Hans, he bent forward slightly to better see the horse’s foot, and when the right number of taps had been made, he relaxed and straightened up, as when there is no further need of close attention. Then the horse stopped tapping. Hans could be made to start tapping without a word and to stop in the same manner. Moreover, he could be made to give any answer desired by the appropriate movements of the questioner. Now it was evident why Hans failed to answer correctly when the questioner did not know the answer to the problem. The rate of tapping was observed, curiously enough, to vary with the amount of stooping on the part of the questioner; slight stooping brought slow tapping, pronounced stooping, more rapid tapping.

Slight movements, then, served to communicate to the horse the answer expected whenever tapping was required. In case the horse was to respond by yes, no, up, down, right, left, etc., he likewise got the cue for his response from certain movements of some member of the questioner’s body. But in case Hans was expected to
touch or bring certain objects, as colors and the like, he was guided by the position of the questioner in relation to these, or by his eyes directed toward them.

By this time it must be plain that Clever Hans was indeed clever, tho without human mental powers—trained, that is, not educated. He had remarkable powers of visual observation, for which the eye of the horse may be especially well adapted anatomically and obviously a decided advantage to them in the wild state in the detection of enemies. Certain unconscious movements in his tutor crystallized into habits and these came to serve as a set of signals for the horse.

One significant finding remains to be mentioned. When Dr. Pfungst noted the mode of the horse’s response, he carried the problem into the psychological laboratory, further to study movement as a cue for response. Conditions were arranged so that Dr. Pfungst played the role of Hans and did the tapping with his hand. Some twenty-five persons served as questioners. While Dr. Pfungst made mistakes, particularly at first, it was noted that these were the exact type of those made by Hans. In time Dr. Pfungst became adept at interpreting unintentional movement. He not only was able to tell what tapping was expected of him, but, as well, when right, left, up, down, etc., were expected. Likewise, he was able to interpret the cues for pointing out objects and designating colors. In fact, Dr. Pfungst responded successfully to all his twenty-five or more questioners, except two, and one of these could not get responses from Hans.

The Elberfeld horses, Muhamed and Zarif, have not been studied in the same manner as Clever Hans. Their trainer and owner, Krall, has maintained at length their essential human intelligence. He has published a book (2) of more than five hundred pages to prove his case; for he, it will be recalled, remained unconvinced by Dr. Pfungst and his colleagues that Hans merely responded to the many different slight involuntary movements of the questioner and, therefore, did not think constructively. But Muhamed and Zarif, if given appropriate tests by unbiased experts, would doubtless show the same mode of response as Hans.
Conclusions

1. The fundamental difference between the fruit of mere training and of education seems to be well shown from the study of these horses. Education is truly from within and develops initiative, originality, independence, spontaneity, constructiveness; training, strictly speaking, results in responses motivated from without only. Education, as used here, is the more inclusive term.

2. It is apparently easy for the teacher to answer his own questions thru certain unconsciously given signs and movements. Children are apt in learning and using these cues. It unfortunately tends to produce in them the fruit of training instead of education, the practical aim of which is to develop facility in applying past experience in adequately reacting to present situations.

3. From the study of these horses it is apparent how many of the mystifying powers of spiritualistic mediums, fortune tellers, mind readers, etc., are to be interpreted. The late Professor Muensterberg, of Harvard, made in 1913 a study of Beulah Miller, then a ten-year-old Rhode Island schoolgirl, to ascertain how she was able to read the thoughts of a questioner, tell the date of a coin held in his hand, or name the card just taken by him from a pack, etc. It turned out that Beulah was shown to be decidedly more accurate when her mother or sister was present and knew the answers to the questions. The explanation of the case was that the body betrays the mind more than is generally understood; that these numerous slight bodily movements impressed Beulah more deeply, tho unconsciously, perhaps, than most individuals; and that she somehow, unknown to herself, made use of these data. This, then, is another case of muscle-reading, of which there are likely many.

When such phenomena as those of spiritism are submitted to impartial, critical laboratory investigation, it may be safe to expect that reading the body of the inquirer will be found of vastly more importance to the medium than hearing the message of the spirit seeking to communicate with his friends. To be sure, verbal suggestion may play a leading role also. Dr. Tanner (5) has already given confirmatory evidence of this view.

Finally, it must be said that there has been no in-
ention in this discussion to belittle the achievements of Clever Hans and the Elberfeld horses. These in themselves are almost incredible. Their explanation does, however, unfortunately more or less reduce to the commonplace the next to the miraculous in these exploits, by denying that these horses possess near-human intelligence or power of abstract thought.


THE LOVER OF THE SEA

There's a little gray house, all alone, all alone,
By the side of the singing sea;
On the rocks it is built, near the gray sand dunes;
And nobody lives there but me, but me,
A lover of the speaking sea.

There's a tide that ebbs; there's a tide that flows;
And it carries my dreams for me;
It carries them out to the warning bells,
And they ring back a message to me, to me,
A lover of the sad, sad sea.

There the sea-gulls pass like ghosts in flight;
And their cry sounds plaintively
In the dusk that veils gray wave, gray sky;
And nobody loves it but me, but me,
A lover of the wondrous sea.

Madge Bryan
RELATION OF BACTERIOLOGY TO THE HOME

It was only in 1865 that Pasteur discovered that one microbe or another causes most diseases and other phenomena of nature; and it was this discovery which opened up the whole world of the "invisible" and founded the modern science of bacteriology.

Altho bacteriology, which deals with yeasts, molds, and bacteria, has made its greatest contribution to the medical profession, others have received a share of its teachings, and at the present time we have dairy, veterinary, medical, and household bacteriology given in many of our schools and colleges. It is the aim of this paper to consider why bacteriology has been thought necessary for the home-maker and for students of home economics.

The course in household bacteriology as given in this school has been planned to be as practical as possible, but the theoretical part of the science is not overlooked. For instance, in the study of milk from the bacteriological point of view we consider two phases: first, the theoretical side of the question, which deals with the production, transportation, and economic importance of clean milk; second, the practical application made in the laboratory by analysing the milk and identifying the bacteria found. Experiments are performed showing the keeping quality of milk with and without pasteurization and the bacteriology of condensed milk.

When studying water, the sources of clean water, methods of contamination, and relation of a pure water supply to public health are discussed, together with water analyses conducted in the laboratory.

The economic value of yeasts and molds is emphasized. Molds are both friends and enemies of mankind. They are friends when they grow in certain kinds of cheese and give them desirable flavors, but they are enemies when they invade the bread box. The manufacture of commercial yeast cakes and the action of yeast in bread is studied.

The distribution of bacteria is taught by performing such experiments as inoculating culture media with
bits of soil and food; exposing a Petri plate to the air of a school room; running a sterile platinum needle between the teeth and inoculating media with it; placing a fly in a tube of media; or rubbing the hands over a Petri plate. The bacteria which grow as a result of these experiments are stained and examined under the microscope. Water analyses are made and the sources of contamination found. The efficiency of various disinfectants used in the home is determined. Pathogenic bacteria are studied to a certain extent.

The fundamental principles underlying sanitation and hygiene which are based on bacteriology are instilled in the student’s mind as being necessary for a proper understanding of these subjects. The aim of the course is to equip the student with a knowledge of how to give convincing demonstrations of the existence of micro-organisms in dust, water, milk, and food, and how to teach children to discriminate between yeast, molds, and bacteria. This would mean that she must be able to prepare culture media and to understand the use of the microscope. She should be able to apply bacteriological truths to her profession after leaving school, whether it be teaching or home-making. It is not necessary to know the scientific names of organisms in order to be on familiar terms with them.

What are some of the problems which confront a housekeeper every day that an understanding of bacteriology would help to solve? A short article like this could not hope to touch nearly all of them, much less to go into detail in any one phase of the subject.

The thrifty housekeeper instinctively dislikes molds when they occur on bread or fruit. She has learned that they thrive in damp weather and in dark places, and that therefore sunlight and air prohibit their growth. But in how many cases does she know what molds really are, where they come from, and why they have an economic value? A knowledge of the few kinds of molds found in the home would include a knowledge of where they grow, how they reproduce, and why sometimes they are poisonous. Such a knowledge would enable her to prevent their growth more effectively. Many people do not know that mildew is a form of mold and that its growth can be prevented accordingly.

Yeast plants are as important as molds in the home.
Altho the art of making bread is rapidly leaving the home, as so many other home industries have done already, and is becoming centralized in commercial institutions, yet most housekeepers have to apply their knowledge of bread-making sooner or later. Do most women know the effect of age on a dried yeast cake as compared to that on a compressed yeast cake, how yeast cakes are made, where the yeast is obtained in home-made yeast, and why a yeast cake should not be dissolved in boiling water? The method of reproduction, the appearance and the temperature best adapted to the growth of yeast plants are all important points. The relation of yeast to the home does not end with bread-making, but can be found in many other practises in the home.

The great problem of food preservation is being solved by devising methods of either killing or checking the growth of micro-organisms. Preservation of food by means of drying and salting is done almost entirely on a commercial scale, but a large amount of canning and preserving is still done in the home. In order to be successful with her canning the housekeeper must kill all bacteria already present in the can and prevent the entrance of others. She uses directions obtained from the experience of commercial canners, who thru experimenting have discovered the secret of successful canning. Yet every year a large amount of canned goods spoils in the home because of improper methods of canning and of failure to observe bacteriological truths. Investigation of the amount of chemicals used as preservatives in the United States by women who thru ignorance cannot preserve food successfully would be a revelation to the advocates of pure foods. A knowledge of bacteriology would show the housekeeper why vegetables and fruits should be sterilized in different ways on account of the pores of bacteria present on vegetables, and why a food containing acid is more easily canned than food without acid.

It is especially important that the mother should know bacteriology, since she has charge of the milk of babies. The campaign against infant mortality has become widespread. The fact that there are 117 deaths of children under one year of age to 1,000 births in New York State has been partly attributed to the careless handling
of milk. Milk stations in cities have been founded for the distribution of clean milk and for instructing the mothers in the proper care of milk in the home. A decreased death rate among infants has been observed near these stations.

Statistics show that most communicable diseases are nursed at home, and we know that every mother has to act as a nurse in emergencies. She should know as much as the professional nurse about methods of preventing the spread of disease. Sterilization of drinking cups, knives, forks, and spoons which have been used by a sick person should be insisted upon for the safety of the rest of the family. Failure on the part of inexperienced nurses to clean their hands surgically before dressing a wound has resulted in many deaths from blood poisoning.

The science of bacteriology has laid the foundation of sanitation, and only an understanding of it can result in proper sanitary conditions in the home. Given a community composed of sanitary homes, and we will find proper public sanitation. An unsanitary home is a menace to the community. The old saying that “No man lives to himself” is especially applicable to the matter of health.

The effects of unsanitary housing are not always immediately apparent. It is only over a period of time that the lack of energy due to a weakened constitution and predisposition to certain diseases is felt by the individual. Unsanitary housing conditions are responsible for the fact that one-tenth of the deaths in the United States are caused by tuberculosis. A very striking example of this is reported by Nowak of a prison which examines for tuberculosis every man who enters. If the prisoner is infected with the disease, he is sent elsewhere. In spite of these precautions the death rate for the institution is abnormally high, and most of the inmates die of tuberculosis. The explanation is that the building is located on wet soil, which causes the rooms in the building to be damp. The bacteria in the sputum and droplets from a person suffering from tuberculosis can be killed by drying and sunlight, but can only thrive and infect others in such a building as described above. Proper drainage can alleviate much of the trouble which comes from damp houses.
Plenty of light and ventilation, with clean surroundings, are essential to good health. The fact that filth contains micro-organisms caused General Gorgas to say when he first went to Panama that the most pressing need was for sanitary surroundings. A pure water supply must be found, sewerage systems introduced and mosquito-breeding places destroyed if the health of the citizens was to be preserved.

Because every woman spends most of her time in the home, she should know how a water supply can become contaminated, what diseases are distributed by water, and that water can be rendered harmless, not by inefficient filters attached to faucets, but by boiling. Not only water used for drinking purposes can be dangerous, but water used for washing utensils which later contain food. There is a widespread interest in the proper disposal of sewage and household wastes in general. It has been found that sewage should not be allowed to enter a running stream either directly or indirectly, since it becomes a danger to people who use the water. Statistics show that the death rate in a community falls after the introduction of a clean water supply and sewerage system, and that the number of cases of typhoid fever, consumption, and diarrhea decrease.

The woman in the home has the spread of disease under her control to a large extent. Whether she takes the necessary precautions in this respect depends on her understanding of the conditions favorable for the growth of bacteria, the methods of preventing their growth, and the methods of killing them.

From the very outset of its history, bacteriology has been inseparably connected with medicine. "To teach women, girls, and prospective mothers to war on visible dirt," says Dr. H. W. Hill, of Minnesota State Board of Health, "is one of the functions of bacteriology. Women must learn to divert, stop in some way, the normal discharges among children in schools and amid families at home, if infectious diseases are to be abolished or abated. The needful information, belief, technique, and habits, cannot be had or established except by studying the basic principles of bacteriology." The spread of communicable diseases has been reduced to a great extent by modern methods of sanitation but this
cannot be continued without the support of the woman in the home.

Food is an admirable carrier of disease germs; and for this reason every one who handles food should be instructed in bacteriology. The hands of any individual are likely to be carrying disease germs. Epidemics of typhoid are often caused by a typhoid carrier who handles food which is distributed among families. One of the best food manufactures in the country has this posted in the work rooms, ""Never return to your work room, after an absence, without washing your hands."" Such a sign would not be out of place in a kitchen.

Not all housekeepers, I think, are so careful as they might be in the matter of tasting from a spoon and putting it back into the food without washing it, or of sweeping and dusting while food is being prepared, or of keeping flies and other distributors of bacteria from food.

Undesirable as food adulteration is, the greater danger lies in unclean food. As has been pointed out before, milk carries many diseases. At one time it was thought that the bovine type of tuberculosis was not transmissible to man, but investigation has shown that it can be readily imparted, especially to the young, by milk taken from animals suffering from tuberculosis. The udder of the cow and the air in the stable contain bacilli, and the only way of rendering milk harmless is by pasteurizing the suspected milk. Meat inspection laws eliminate the carcasses of animals diseased with tuberculosis, but many animals in the country are eaten which have never been inspected. It requires an expert to determine whether the animal should be rejected whose viscera have been found to be more or less infected with tubercles. If the disease is localized, it can be used without danger; but if all parts have been affected, it should be burned. It is certain that a large number of people are eating, without knowing it, meat which has come from tubercular animals.

The danger of receiving diseases from food is not confined to milk and meat, but extends to many other foods, especially to those which are eaten without cooking. Green vegetables grown on suburban truck farms where night soil is used as a fertilizer are almost certain
to be dangerous, since they may contain bacteria found in feces. Pathogenic bacteria are often found in feces, and unless the vegetable is cooked (for washing will only remove the visible dirt) diseases can be carried by this method.

Not only should the woman who has charge of the food for a family be familiar with bacteriology, but every woman who aims to be intelligent concerning matters of public interest. Within the last few years, cities have come to realize the importance of proper sanitary conditions, if the health of its citizens is to be preserved. They have appropriated large sums of money to be used for public sanitation. Engineers and health officers are employed, who aim to prevent the spread of disease. At the same time they do not educate the public in methods of carrying out their regulations effectively. How much better it would be if some of this money were spent on illustrated lectures and demonstrations which should teach a proper understanding of bacteriological truths.

When Dr. Herman Biggs became head of the State Department of Health in New York State in 1914, he took as his motto, "Public Health is purchasable. Twenty-five thousand lives can be saved in N. Y. State within the next five years." At the end of the first year he was able to report that four thousand lives were saved as compared with the death rate occurring in the seven-year period preceding 1913. This was due to a large extent to improved sanitary conditions in the home and community.

It is our earnest hope that bacteriology will take its rightful place as a prerequisite to the profession of home-making and that every one interested in public problems will become familiar with its teachings.

Gertrude M. Button
THE MEANING OF KINDERGARTEN EDUCATION

Until recently there has been a great gap between the Kindergarten and the primary school; neither knew anything about the other, due, very largely, to the fact that they grew out of entirely different conditions. One authority says:

"The primary school grew out of the popular movement of the sixteenth century when along with the invention of printing, and the growth of commerce it became a business necessity to know how to read, write, and figure; the aim was distinctly a practical one; it was utility—getting command of symbols of learning, not for the sake of learning but because they gave access to careers in life otherwise closed. The Kindergarten grew out of the moral enthusiasm of the eighteenth century rather than instruction or discipline, an ideal emphasized to the point of sentimentality."

Dr. John Dewey says that the Kindergarten was (note he says was) a union of the nursery and the philosophy of Shelling; a wedding of plays and games which the mother carried on with her children to Shelling's highly romantic and symbolic philosophy. The first Kindergartens in America were philanthropic and likewise the first Kindergarten training schools were private; a great many of these private schools are still in existence. The Kindergarten, altho worked out by Froebel, was decidedly a woman's movement; for a long time men had nothing to do with it, nor any interest in it; and then native curiosity got the better of them and they began to study it carefully, and such men as Milton Bradley, Dr. W. T. Harris, of Toronto, Percival Cole, of Australia, G. Stanley Hall, Dr. John McVannel, Dr. John Dewey, and Dr. William Kilpatrick have done a great deal for it.

The child-study movement which brought out such great changes in the school has also brought about great changes in the Kindergarten and has been the means of bringing the Kindergarten and school closer together. In the summer of 1895 G. Stanley Hall, feeling that the Kindergarteners needed to know a little more of the child and less of the Mother Play and symbolism, invited all the Kindergarten training teachers to a conference in Worcester, Massachusetts. Only five Kinder-
garteners accepted his invitation. They spent six weeks there discussing interesting problems and returned to their work, feeling that the child ought to have a better showing; and thereupon two schools of Kindergartens arose. Those on the one hand who still emphasized a systemized philosophy, a general course of study fitting all children of different surroundings and symbolism, and those on the other who emphasized the child, his impulses and instincts, a particular program fitting a particular group of children, and child psychology.

It is not my purpose to discuss the two schools, but for fear that there may be doubts in the minds of some as to just what we do, I propose to tell what we aim at in the Kindergarten. We used to be so exclusive that we spoke a language all our own, we talked about "Mother Play," "The Education of Man," "about the "Morning Circle," about "Gifts" and "Occupations," and no one outside our own little group knew what we meant. We used to think that the child came to us "in trailing clouds of glory"; one has only to be with children to know that they do not. Now we believe he comes to us a lively little being, brimming over with activity which needs to be directed. The Kindergarten is composed of children, teacher, and materials, all working together for the development of the children. The age for entrance is usually four and a half years; personally, I prefer children at five and for one year only. The Kindergarten course of study—for we have a course of study, even if we do not teach the Three R's; and every subject taught in the high school, yes, even in the normal schools, has its beginning in the Kindergarten—has for its center the child with his impulses, instincts, needs, and experiences, reaching out for and responding to materials. The early Kindergartner studied her materials (and by materials is meant anything used to develop the child) in order to know the lessons which she should bring to him. The Kindergartner of today studies her child in order to know the impulses and instincts which are craving for materials to build upon. Some of these impulses and instincts are to tell or talk; to investigate, to explore, to find out; to make or construct; to adorn, to decorate, to sing; to wonder at; to nurture, to protect; to co-operate; to be with people of his own age; and more than know-
ing these instincts the Kindergartner, in order to help the child, must know some of the experiences he has had before coming to Kindergarten. She must know his present needs and interests; and she must know the standards which society has set on ideas, activities, and materials. The child comes to Kindergarten with experiences and ideas which he has received at home and one of the first things the Kindergartner has to do is to find out what the stock of experiences is, then weed it out, fill it out, and build it up. "The interests of the Kindergarten child are largely social, he thinks and plays in relation to social needs. He seeks to express thru his materials the images and ideas which have come to him from the life which surrounds him." The Kindergartner selects for him those materials which are best suited to satisfy his impulse to express, represent, and interpret his social environment. The little child’s world is small; he knows most about the home from which he comes; so that when he comes to us in the fall we talk a great deal about that home, the people who live in it, the activities carried on there. We go on walks to see where different children live and we often play games in the children’s yards. Our year is divided into big seasons rather than by weeks or months; from September thru Thanksgiving—the Fall Season, or preparation for winter, as seen in the home, in flowers, trees, birds, and nature in general. December is devoted to Christmas; and no other season is lived more fully. I think it is enjoyed more than any other by teacher and children alike. During January and February one or two common trades are taken up, as for example, the blacksmith and the carpenter and the city helpers, the firemen, policemen, and postmen. Thru March, April, and May activities common to the season engage us, for example, the awakening of life is dominant, together with the cleaning. We aim very definitely to combine the cultural with the industrial.

When it is time for the Kindergarten to begin in the morning, we first see that all the children are seated comfortably, that is, that the chair is neither too high nor too low; then a selection is played on the piano, to which the children listen carefully; they are taught to listen to and enjoy the music, and very often ask to have certain selections played. Then we have songs of greeting and
conversation about the subject under discussion, during which time we try to clear up ideas and give new ones—in other words, broaden the child's experiences. This conversation is reinforced by the actual doing or by pictures; for example, in the fall, when the mother is getting ready for winter, by preserving fruit and making jelly, instead of just telling what she does, we actually make jelly and the children do every bit of the work from the gathering of the fruit to the eating of the product.

We sing songs for the love and joy of singing, not for the knowledge they impart. Our songs are simple in their nature, about the things in which the children are interested. We do some technical work, that is, we aim to have the children sing correctly, and thru little games and plays we teach them to use correct tones. We tell stories, not many, possibly not more than twelve or fourteen during the whole year, but we tell them over and over again until the children make them their own, and in turn tell them back to us. When I say we tell them over and over, I mean the children ask to have them told over and over. We also try to increase the child's vocabulary and improve his English. One of the things we have worked so hard over has been "May James and I" instead of "Can me and James"; and it has made such an impression on the children that the other day one came to me with a smile and said "May you please hold my coat?"

Number is developed indirectly in a great many ways, especially in the games when five or seven children are to be chosen; and I often find the children counting the empty chairs or the blocks or the crayons they are using.

All of our nature work comes thru first hand contact; we walk, we gather leaves; we listen to the birds, we feed the birds; we plant flowers and care for them; we experiment with the cold by putting water out to freeze and observing the result, we experiment with the wind by flying kites and by washing the doll's clothes and hanging them in the wind to dry. Thru plays and games we develop the physical side of the child; whenever it is possible we let the children play out of doors. We do not always direct the plays. I have found it very interesting and helpful to watch the children playing dif-
different things. And I have seen them play everything from High Mass in the Catholic Church to electrocuting a criminal. Last fall, after the circus had been here, I found a child in a cage which the children had made of the big blocks, growling and snapping; he for the time being was a lion, and I was glad to know where he was.

We try to develop an interest in the civic and industrial life; we take the children to visit the blacksmith, then to the carpenter shop; we take them to the fire station, to the grocery and dry goods stores; and the postman and the policeman are our very best friends.

The moral and religious life of the child is not neglected; every morning at about eleven o'clock we have a lunch, one cracker, because the children need it and because of the moral and social values. The children must wait until all are served and a blessing asked before they begin to eat.

Big blocks are used because from a physical standpoint they are better for the child than small ones; clay, sand, weaving, sewing, cutting, folding, pasting, drawing, and painting are also used as mediums for the expression of the child's ideas and "for the production of objects which are of value from the viewpoint of the child as well as of the Kindergarten, either because he feels them to be beautiful or useful, serving some social purpose, or because they fit into his play life." Since we believe one "doing" is worth fifty "talkings about" we give the children many opportunities for doing; with the big blocks they make barns and houses and sleds and automobiles and airships—all large enough to play in. A sand box in which sometimes we make sand cakes and pies frequently represents a chicken yard or farm yard. From clay we model all sorts of things: we make dishes, cakes, and pies, and have a tea party, or we model fruits and vegetables, and play store. Last spring we made marbles, put them in the sun to dry, and then made bags for them. Again, we made flower pots, painted and shellacked them to make them water proof, planted flowers in them and they grew. Again I gave the children paper flower pots, which they decorated; they planted the seeds, cared for them and, as soon as the plants blossomed, they took them home.

At Thanksgiving time we decorated the paper plates which were used at the party given by the children to
their parents, at which time they served the jelly and butter they had made. We draw all sorts and conditions of things. The circus furnishes an unlimited amount of material. From cigar boxes, a set of tools, and a can of green paint, all furnished by the children, we make bird houses for the wrens.

We have a doll around which a great deal of the work centers; in the fall when the family was getting ready for the winter in the home, we got the doll ready, we wove from heavy woolen yarn a muff, cape, and cap; we made blankets for her bed, sewing the edges over and over; we made a feather bed (probably not very hygienic), the children bringing the feathers from their chicken yards. We made a table, chairs, bed, and trunk from soft wood, all really fitting the doll. All of these suggestions came from the children.

Since the child’s art impulse is so closely connected with his constructive and social instincts, we try very hard to combine use and beauty, as I have tried to show in the foregoing illustrations.

The great value of the Kindergarten is not that it makes the school life of the child shorter; it does not necessarily mean that the child is going to be a better reader, but it does mean that the child lives that year a fuller, better, richer, and more natural life and has a background of experiences that he could get nowhere else.

Mary L. Seeger
MOVABLE SCHOOLS

All over the country extension work in agriculture is being carried on; and more and more with this is being given home economies for the women. The question as to whether this is a proper use of funds appropriated for agriculture is not now heard so often, since there is a greatly increased recognition of the importance of the country home.

Years ago farmers' institutes, granges, agricultural demonstration schools, etc., were originated by the various state boards of agriculture, or by specific commissioners, being usually affiliated with the agricultural colleges and experiment stations. At first no thought was given on the programs to the women who might be interested in the improvement of the farm and farm conditions. The grange alone allowed women to become members on equal footing with the men. It was soon discovered, however, that many women were interested; and more than that, they were willing to take home suggestions given their husbands, fathers, or brothers, and to help try them out on the home farm. The women were interested and were able to see something good in these meetings; so they began to ask to be organized into clubs for women, and to be allowed to have programs arranged especially for themselves.

In some of the most progressive sections of the West the women petitioned for a program. The attempt was made in some communities to have a meeting for the women at the same hour that one was being held for the men. This did not prove quite satisfactory, because in many cases the women were interested in the topics under discussion by the men; so now more frequently joint programs are arranged for the forenoon and separate programs for the afternoon. This seems to be a better adjustment of the situation.

Altho, ten years ago, extension departments were found in very few colleges, now they are in almost every state, and often in several colleges and normal schools in a state. For a time short courses were given at the agricultural schools during a leisure season. While they were well attended, it was realized that if the school could be taken to the people it would be even more successful.

Such institutions, realizing the large opportunities for reaching the people, are co-operating with the organ-
izations by sending out trained workers to those who cannot come to the colleges. They find it often more satisfactory to work in connection with the separate organizations, because then the people may feel direct responsibility for the arrangement and carrying out of their programs. This developed into the idea of the agricultural train. Railroad companies sometimes take an active part by providing the cars, crew, etc., for the trip. North Carolina, I believe, claims the first demonstration car for domestic science, having sent out one in 1908. Since then one frequently hears of this being done in connection with the agricultural train for men.

During 1910 some girls' tomato clubs were organized in South Carolina and Virginia with the aid of teachers and other school officials. This experiment was continued the second year in four counties in each of the states, South Carolina, Virginia, and Mississippi. An efficient woman was appointed to take charge of the work in each state. She was allowed a few county workers, whose services were secured for a brief time during the canning period. The work has grown by leaps and bounds until today there are in it about 60,000 girls and 30,000 women who, in rural homes in the South, have undertaken definite work for the improvement and upbuilding of country life.

With the help afforded by the Smith-Lever fund, which is distributed under the direction of the State Agricultural Colleges, the county agents, who originally supervised the tomato club work for the girls, have since 1915 become leaders for the women of the community as well. Clubs are organized, demonstrations given, visits are made in the homes, and helps are freely given in many ways. Ambassador Walter H. Page has truly said, "The tomato was the key that unlocked the kitchen door to the trained worker."

A few years ago in some of the western states and in Ontario, Canada, it was decided that short courses, or movable schools, would be a great advantage to those people who could not leave home to attend the institute held at the college. This plan has met with marked success.

The Home Economics Department at Cornell University has for two or more years taken a very active part in this method of reaching the women in the rural
communities. The casual lecturer arouses interest for the time, but if, after this interest is aroused, a movable school can be held in a community and the members of the club can be encouraged to work out, or even to follow, courses of study, one can readily see how much more real good can be accomplished.

The movable school provides several days of study in some specific subjects, or as in certain foreign countries, several months of study, and then moves on to another community, where the course is repeated. In New York State the services of two people are employed, who devote all of their time to movable schools from October to June. Registration in advance regulates the attendance. To obtain the school, there must be at least twenty-five women registered for the course. A fee of seventy-five cents or one dollar is usually required. This is to make the women feel that it is of real value. At the same time the proceeds go towards helping defray expenses. The club arranges the place and date of meeting, furnishes all supplies and certain pieces of equipment, and entertains the teachers.

The movable schools are being tried this winter for the first time in Virginia. Last summer the Home Demonstration Agents were told that they might have a movable school for their women’s clubs, provided they could arrange for it, get a certain number of women to promise to attend regularly, and entertain the teachers. No fee was charged this year. As this was the first attempt to conduct movable schools, some of the clubs were slow to enter into the project. No doubt next year will show an increase in both number and attendance.

The following counties have tried them this fall:

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<td>34</td>
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<td>“” “” Winter Gardening, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roanoke</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>“” “” Butter Making</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>York &amp; Warwick</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>“” “” “” Sanitation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nottoway</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>“” “” Poultry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>James City</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>“” “” “” Home Nursing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goochland</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>“” “” “” Home Nursing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charles City</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>“” “” “” Poultry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Albemarle</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>Winter Gardening &amp; Sanitation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Louisa, Loudon, Alleghaney, Halifax and Pittsylvania will have their movable schools in the spring.
This year each club was allowed to choose the subjects for discussion. Another year they will know better what to ask for and, consequently, how to get more from the lectures and demonstrations.

Some of the schools were held in churches, some in private homes, and some in school buildings. In the majority of neighborhoods the women took picnic lunches, and spent the day, and every one had a good time. There were generally two sessions each day.

The work of the movable schools is being followed up by each club. The County Demonstrator has courses outlined for the winter’s work, consisting of lectures and demonstrations. The women take active parts on the programs and no doubt will do some good work this winter.

The teachers for the movable schools were obtained thru the State Health Department, the Agricultural College at Blacksburg, the State Normal Schools, and the State District Demonstration Agents.

The aims of the demonstration clubs are, generally, “towards efficiency in the home; the intellectual, physical, and moral betterment of individuals in the household; the encouragement of civic improvement; the establishment of fuller and better community life.” Each member is expected to do some kind of work—to teach her fellow worker the thing she knows best how to do. Regular meetings are held during the year.

One cannot estimate the amount of personal benefit derived thru efforts of a group of women to help each other. Some one has truthfully said, “When a band of women come together with the object of assisting those members in need of instruction and, also, with the object of doing anything and everything which means the advancement of the community and the betterment of community life, you can depend upon it, every individual will receive much benefit thru the effort made.”

S. Frances Sale
STANDARDIZING THE MARKING SYSTEM
OF THE SCHOOLS

The use of some system of marks to designate standing is practically universal. In social relations various titles represent definite positions; in business various forms of organizations show definite standing; in schools various systems, chiefly percentages and letters, rank students. School administrators have been accepting these systems without question, but within the last few years no less than twelve serious attempts to discover the true worth and the degree of precision that could be expected from their use have been made. A careful investigation of the statistical and psychological problems underlying the assignment of grades or marks in schools and colleges reveals two distinct questions. The first has to do with the achievement, or what is to be expected of normal children at certain ages or grades, and thus belongs to the administrative force of the educative system. The second concerns the distribution of ability within the normal group around the standard and must be solved by the psychologist. The relation between these two is so close as to make the study of the first dependent upon the second.

The work of the psychologists has probably been better done than that of the administrators; so the results of their work can be accepted as a basis for the next problem. These investigations have shown that ability in general or in any particular line is distributed in the form of a bell-shaped curve, technically known as “the probability curve,” or the normal curve of frequency. This makes note of the fact that there is but a small number of students of excellent ability, a larger number of good ability, a relatively large number of average ability, a smaller number of sub-medium, but passing, ability and a small number with unsatisfactory ability. There are, of course, no sharp lines dividing these groups, but the percentages shown vary from 40-50 in the medium, from 25-30 on either side. These two are subdivided into a larger group of from 15-20 on each side and a smaller from 5-10 at the extremes of failure.
or excellence. A fair average of these numbers may be indicated sufficiently well in such a drawing as Figure I.

![Figure I](image_url)

It can not be inferred that the grades assigned in each particular class must approximate closely the distribution given. The expression "in the long run" must be emphasized, but the principle devolves upon each teacher, to prepare himself to recognize classes of ability. Should the grades given by any instructor coincide perfectly with the ideal distribution, the fact would be proof that he did not understand the system. On the other hand, should his markings, when taken in the aggregate, fail to approximate the given law, it would be sufficient cause for investigation.

This study shows plainly the fallacy in the theory that a high percentage grade means a high degree of ability or attainment. Where the passing grade is 75 and the condition grade 65, the instructor must distribute to 75% of his students, grades varying only twenty-five points. As it is generally conceded that 90 shall be excellent, he has ten points of variation from which he may select grades for five to ten per cent of his class. When 80 is considered good he has again ten points variation for fifteen to twenty per cent of his class. This leaves him five points, 75-79, for one half of his class. Among this one half will be found far greater degrees of difference than among the other half to whom the instructor's judgment may assign any one of ninety-five different marks. It is one of the injustices of the almost universal marking system that out of one hundred students the twenty-fifth to thirtieth from the lowest extreme of the class should be rated at 75, while the twen-
ty-fifth to thirtieth from the highest can be rated not above 79. Compare the distribution as made in Figure II.

![Figure II](image)

When this has been recognized we have had the departure into a scheme of symbols for grades. This may be done by any set of letters or words. The first device was a series of five words to designate the five psychological groups. Carnegie Institute of Technology uses the words Honor, Merit, Passing, Condition or Deferred, Failure. A common scheme is Excellent, Good, Satisfactory, Passing, and Failure. So many criticisms of these words, because of the implied meanings, have arisen that the better judgment now sides with the choice of the first five letters of the alphabet, just exactly as we have chosen and made a custom the \( x, y, \) and \( z \) of algebra.

Wherever a study of marks has been made, the non-uniformity of standard has led to reform, notwithstanding the fact that there still persists a very general feeling that an instructor should be allowed practically absolute freedom to conduct his classes as he may see fit. While this feeling lasts we may expect individual standards, but it is worthy of note that the adoption of some method whereby a given mark may signify more nearly the same merit in the several departments is not a restraint upon that cherished independence. Study, for instance, the ratings as given in A, B, and C, of Figure III.
Since all of the studies made in this field point to the same variation, it seems unnecessary to do more than show that standardization is a need in every school. William T. Foster’s study of marks given to students at Harvard tells the story very plainly. While no proof is needed to show that low standing in a course is not prophetic of failure in one’s career, yet the undergraduate marks of honor men in the professional schools show such variations that every effort is being made to supplant by scientific guidance the personal equation as the chief factor in awarding marks. Thus a man’s record will tell more about himself and less about his instructors. This same condition has been found in varying degrees in elementary and high schools, colleges and universities.

The use of examination papers as a means of measuring knowledge or efficiency or mental ability, or whatever name may be given to that which is supposed to indicate one’s fitness for a particular grade of work, is so common and is being so extended each year to Civil Service and industrial positions, that it is interesting to note how reliable examinations are. The results obtained from investigating examination grades also offer some basis for expectations concerning the use of tests or scales for evaluating papers.

F. Y. Edgeworth, of Oxford University, first called attention to this and has given his observations thus: “I find the element of chance in examinations to be such that
only a fraction—from one-half to two-thirds—of the successful candidates can be regarded as quite safe, as above the danger of coming out unsuccessful if a different set of equally competent judges had been appointed.” When a number of papers are graded by a number of judges there is as much variation among the several judges as to the value of each paper as there is variation among the several papers in the estimation of each judge.

An endless array of tabular results shows that there is a very serious lack of standards among teachers. But it is true that in all these cases the teachers were from sections where no especial effort had been made to standardize the judgment.

Another force that is strengthening the demand for standards is the greater strength and richness of our schools. As this grows we feel more and more the need of objective standards which are capable of consistent interpretation by all good teachers.

The standard measures now advocated for overcoming this variability are of two types—one purely objective, as the Curtis Arithmetic Tests, the other merely a guide to the formation of judgments by the teachers. Thus the latter is more subjective. The Thorndike or Hellegus scale for drawing or composition is of this type. Each has its advantage. The special test gives greater definiteness and less variation, but the scope is narrow, the amount of work great, and the value of the continued use of the same test is doubtful. With the second type the results, being more subjective, are less precise, but can be applied to the regular work of the child. They increase in helpfulness with time and use; so that with a little practise, it has been found that a teacher can judge with a high degree of accuracy a paper without applying it to a scale. The chief interest in this, however, is the establishment in our minds of a uniformity of standards which will do away with the injustices following from the variability pointed out. We are primarily interested in their serviceableness as instruments for the establishment of this uniform standard in the minds of teachers.

Diversity of standard is shown in a study of the marks of teachers making a wide difference in both plus and minus sums from an average grade. This is the
result of the teachers’ having no uniform idea of how well a pupil of a certain grade should be expected to do a given piece of work. The ratings of several teachers will be uniform or variable according to whether their standards are the same or different. We always have a standard of some sort in our minds by which we measure efficiency, assigning it to any place between zero and perfection. We generally use ‘100’ to indicate the attainment of that standard and each teacher fixes his own idea of perfect attainment for each class. It is very plausible that the concept, standard work for seventh grade, may be a much more uniform thing with teachers than the concept, perfect work. If this is so, the teacher who knows what grade is to be rated has a very serviceable basis for judgment. If the scale proves a true gain in this standardization of judgment it will be a wonderful aid in increasing the reliability of marks.

A diagram of the probability curve was placed on the board of a grammar school room and explained to the class. In a very few minutes the percentage had been applied to the number of children in the class with the result that each knew how many should be looked for in each group. Then the spelling grades for the week were given and they assigned each child to his group. When the second week showed the curve so skewed to the right, the teacher knew that she could increase her demands or assignments and by watching the chart could have some scientific grounds for the belief that the class was really doing enough work. The same idea can be applied to every subject and the work will give due satisfaction and reward. Spelling and the more exacting or formal studies are easily handled and serve for a splendid beginning. Thus the grading of the normal number of pupils under one teacher may be tabulated as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grades</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percentages</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normal No. of Pupils</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Week</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Week</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third Week</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth Week</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>11.75</td>
<td>7.75</td>
<td>4.75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**FIG. IV**
There is another phase of variability which we wish to avoid. Some teachers grade all papers high, while others grade all low. To ascertain how this might be affected by the use of a scale, investigations have been made.

The data here show the same variations when a teacher has had experience with other methods of grading, but with inexperienced teachers or after some use of the scale has been made, and the standards of merit previously fixed in the teacher’s mind have been effaced, we may claim a fair indication that the major part of this variability will be overcome.

The very effort to define general merit in any one thing seems to make variations unavoidable. It is not strange that a general concept of merit which is standard for some grade should become with practice more uniform than any single definition possibly could.

Before we may hope to define merit, we must have a scale devised for the measurement of each phase of merit. While some judgments must always be subjective, it is not an impossible nor an endless task for a teacher to check up her own concept with a scale that shows the various elements that make up merit. If we assume that the chief value of scales is standardization of the concept of merit, we shall not be afraid of the complexity necessary to make the scale effective. There is sore need of data to show the effect of persistent practice with a scale upon the variability of marks.

Even after this standard has been set and scales have been devised to measure this work, the judgments necessary in making the applications should be uniform. Should marks measure performance or ability or accomplishment? In certain cases, for instance Civil Service, it is evident that marks must be based on performance, without regard to native ability or zeal or previous acquaintance with the subject-matter. But in actual school or college work the teacher has more to guide him than mere performance in examination alone. He is able to form some idea of the student’s native ability, to take into account evidences of knowledge afforded in other ways, and thus the issue becomes: “Shall the pupil be marked according to ability or according to accomplishment?” Accomplishment is very largely determined by ability, but it is controlled by previous prepara-
tion, or perhaps still more by zeal or effort. That a capable student who shirks should pay the penalty, or that a dull student who by dint of strenuous effort passes should be credited with success, is axiomatic with most teachers. But the opposite position—measurement by native ability—is strongly supported on the grounds that accomplishment does not so highly specialize a group as ability. Since colleges and schools are filled with students from every walk of life, their grades should represent their native ability.

If this be granted, since native ability behaves like any other biological trait, it follows that in any group its distribution is that of the curve of error, or the probability curve. This curve, it seems, must vary as the class advances, since the elimination of the idiot, the imbecile, and the moron must come early in the grade; this elimination of dull pupils from the lower end of the curve of distribution occurs at points throughout the school system and makes the curve appear obviously cut off at the left more and more as the class advances. However, other forces tend to make this not quite so simple. The standard of ability generally rises with successful work and also with maturity, while on the other hand modern psychology teaches us that along the path of progressive development of ability, arrests occur continually up the years of growth to maturity. Hence a group whose arrested members have dropped out arrives at college with survivors whose ability is just enough to cross the dead line, and the graph of the marks of this group should again follow the normal curve. On this basis the University of Missouri has recently worked out a system and made standardization of marking very simple by laying down rules for the guidance of instructors.

On the other hand, if we mark accomplishment, which is ability plus previous preparation plus zeal, we get entirely different results. If like zeal be exhibited by two pupils, one dull, one bright, the gifted pupil reaps proportionately larger results. It is a product, not a sum, and the graph would show a curve skewed to the right. This curve is still further skewed to the right by certain critical points. Thus the passing marks or the exemption-from-examination marks become a powerful incentive to students of inferior or passing ability to
push their accomplishment to the utmost; while on the other hand, a brilliant student can not attain a mark above 100, and so the curve can not be kept normal.

While the results that might be expected from grading one or the other of these phases of work may be very definitely set, the thought of specialists on the question of what is measured by school marks indicates a fairly general argument that teachers’ marks measure native ability or accomplishment only very indirectly and that directly they measure a complex resultant effect upon native ability of training in the particular subjects in question.

Ten out of eleven of the designers of these curves and scales agree that teachers’ marks should be distributed according to the lines laid down. But when it comes to fitting their standard distribution of marks to the probability curve, the problem involves the arbitrary placing of dividing lines between the groups.

The first principle of this system, that all pupils should first be measured by relative position, is accepted by all; but the second, that this relative position should be translated into grades, is one over which much disagreement prevails. Measurement by relative position is quite a difficult task. It is very hard to assign pupils to their proper class or rank. The rational marking system seems securely based, in so far as it maintains that ranking marks have little meaning unless the percentage admitted to each rank accords with a recognized standard. The mark of failure is not a ranking mark. The fact that more are passed in some classes and fewer in others than we believe should be is no grounds for the assumption that a certain number must repeat a subject in whole or in part. It seems that under proper conditions, with due attention to planning the work, admitting students to classes, and keeping track of their progress, it is quite possible to insure that none shall fail.

_Ethel Spilman_
THE PRAYER OF THE WOMEN

O God of all the nations, Maker of all mankind,
Hear thou the prayer of the women, borne on the wings of the wind.
Gone are our husbands; gone, our brothers and our sons;
Snatched away by the god of war, they are gone—our best-loved ones.
O God, we have borne so much, and must we yet bear more?
Give ear to the wail of the women that echoes from shore to shore.
The war-god has smitten our men; his mailed fist strikes them dead.
Oh, why are the fields of battle all dyed that terrible red?

O God of the universe, against thy great white throne
In tireless cadence beats the women’s pitiful moan,
Dear God, we have borne so much! Oh, may not the war now cease?
Grant now unto thy children the wonderful gift of peace—
Peace to the fatherless babes, and peace to the widows of men,
Peace to those who are left, to build their homes again.
O God of all the nations, Maker of all mankind,
Hear Thou the prayer of the women, borne on the wings of the wind.

LUCILE MCLEOD
THE TEACHER AS AN ASSET
TO HER COMMUNITY

Some teachers contract with their respective school boards with an agreement which binds them for a definite twofold mission, namely, to teach for a prescribed number of hours, for a prescribed number of days in a certain school, for a slender or generous compensation, as the case may be. They also give their word that they will devote a given time to work catalogued as Community Work. Whether pledged by formal contract or by her own sense of duty, the successful teacher is at once mistress of her schoolroom and an active working force for good in the community in which she works.

The chief medium thru which the teacher may hope to serve her community in a spiritual way is, naturally, the Sunday school and church. In a number of places the matter of obtaining persons who can do effective teaching in Sunday school is a real problem. There was a time when anybody who might be depended upon as a regular attendant was sought after as a teacher. The time has come, however, when Sunday school superintendents appreciate the value of trained teachers and they look to the teachers in the public schools for support in procuring such instructors. Such time and thought as may be given to church work may be regarded as an excellent investment. The teacher should feel that the opportunity to serve in the church is a real privilege. It gives her a chance to know a number of people in a helpful way. It is greatly to her advantage that they shall know her out of school. The proverbial Johnny’s mother may think, “The new teacher is learning him to put on airs,” because she has taught him to say, “I saw the birds flying south,” rather than “I seen ’em.” But she will change her mind when she has seen that same teacher scrubbing dusty wood work in preparation for some church celebration. She will probably confide to her neighbor over the clothes-line that “That there Miss Watkins, she’s just as common as anybody.” Strange tho it may appear, “That there Miss Watkins” has scored a point. She has won the respect of Johnny’s mother.
In church work, probably more than in any other phase of community work, a vast amount of tact is necessary to avoid dissensions. Conditions may exist which to the more cultured person seem entirely out of keeping with any idea of appropriateness, but reforms must come gradually. Human nature resents a sudden upheaval of custom. More harm than good is effected by the well-meaning person who, like the misguided missionary, rudely overthrows the idol of the heathen, enjoining him to turn from his god and seek the true God. Less drastic measures must be followed if lasting good is to be accomplished. The teacher could scarcely desire a nobler tribute than one similar in content to that one paid to General Gordon: ‘He at all times and everywhere gave his strength to the weak, his substance to the poor, his sympathy to the suffering, and his heart to God.’

Under the division classified as social, there is a wide scope of service for the teacher. It is hers to make the advances. The young woman who waits to be called upon formally by the people in the town or village where she works, will lose time and friends by her conservatism. She makes a mistake if she waits until there is a grievance to report before going to the homes of her patrons. The teacher will be amply repaid for every bit of the time she spends in social intercourse with the people whom she serves. One teacher remembers well the expression of relief and pure pleasure which glowed in the face of a tired mother when she realized that for the first time within her recollection a teacher had come, not with the story of her children’s misdemeanors, but for the simple purpose of making a social visit. When difficulty did arise, that mother was ready to support the teacher’s policy.

It sometimes happens that thru work with one group of boys or girls material service may be rendered to the community at large. The following story represents an effort to show how this point may be proved.

Tom Whitmer had enjoyed the reputation of being a bad boy—enjoyed is the suitable verb form because his chief source of delight was to gain notoriety by creating a scene in the schoolroom or on the playground. Had he not been the chief instigator in the successful plot which resulted in the resignation of a
former teacher? Tom bragged that he "hadn't never saw no teacher" that could make him do anything. He did not mind a flogging; he had been brought up on that. "Stayin' in" was a girl's punishment. Tom did not boast quite so much in the presence of his father, for he alone knew how to bring his son to terms. Thus it happened, until he reached the manly age of eighteen, Tom was under strict control while he remained under his father's immediate supervision. By and by there came a time when Tom's father acknowledged that he could no longer manage him. About this time the rumor passed around among the boys that there was to be a new teacher in their room. "There'll be some fun, too," they coolly resolved. "We'll soon show her a big time." To make the story short, they did not. Tom, with his bunch, attempted a little experiment, but they were sorry for it because, instead of having the anticipated scene, upon their return to school they were greeted in the usual way by their teacher. Work proceeded in the regular way except that the bunch seemed more thoughtful than was their custom. By the end of the day, all except one pupil had been to the teacher and announced himself ready for his punishment and one by one each was quietly dismissed without knowing his fate.

Among Tom's characteristics was a strong tendency to be obstinate. He was slow about making promises—so slow that he had upon one occasion sat for two hours while his father tried to extract from him a statement in regard to his purpose in following a specified course. One thing must be said in Tom's behalf, however, and that is that, once having committed himself, he stood by his word. His teacher knew Tom and she knew that his explanation would mean the more for the delay, if it finally came—but would it come? School was dismissed; Tom passed out with his companions; the teacher collected her books and papers and went home. All the way she tried to keep up her hope that Tom would yield. Not once did she lose her faith in him because during those first few weeks, whatever else she had failed to do, she had studied Tom with a purpose. Not once during that time had he failed to do what she said, tho he had sometimes waited until the eleventh hour to do it.
That night as she sat pondering about the boy, a knock was heard on the outer door. She started, and, opening it herself, found her heart beating a little faster than usual as she faced Tom Whitmer. His appearance at that hour meant that he had walked a long distance thru the chilling rain; and his teacher knew there had been a mighty struggle within his boyish heart before he had decided to come to her. She longed to put out her hand and tell him that it was all right because she understood, now, but she knew that it would mean more if Tom could win this battle with himself alone. She could only encourage him a little by a smile. Tom kicked the mud from his shoes, removed his hat, replaced it on his head, removed it again, and finally dropped it before he found his voice. Then he put out his big rough hand and said something that made a tear want to come to the eye of his little teacher. Never mind what he said; but the result of the interview was that his father, instead of putting him on the road to work, decided to hire a man to do the farm work, because Tom could no longer be persuaded to stay out of school long enough to do anything worth while at home. Now when difficulties arise at home and Tom shows a tendency to be defiant, Mr. Whitmer calls on Tom’s teacher because “somehow, he’ll do anything that little woman says.” And so he did. Thru Tom’s conversion, the attitude of the whole set is changed, with the result that out of school, as well as in school, there is a group of young men, and not rough, mischief-making boys.

In a number of places, there is no form of amusement provided for the young people. Such condition is unfortunate, because, in their effort to find recreation, boys and girls resort to forms of entertainment which are in no part wholesome. Boys ranging in age from ten to twenty may be found in the village store, the usual popular loafing place, where they take part in the gossip of the town or engage in more degrading occupation. The girls are either kept so “rustically at home” that, when they do get out, their new freedom often makes them go in the wrong way or else they are walking streets, vainly hoping that something diverting may present itself. We should not censure these boys and girls too severely when they get into trouble, since there is nothing except dull care to occupy their minds. The
experienced observer need only look into the faces of boys and girls to know whether or not they are getting youth's heritage. He can tell by their expression whether or not they know the joy of living. How may the teacher help to remedy this situation?

In a community, not unlike the one described, a wide-awake teacher conceived the plan of organizing games for the boys and girls. For the older ones, basket ball fields were provided, while the younger children found delight in volley ball and various other games. In a short time it was noticed that there was a different spirit among the young people in that town. Instead of "hanging around" on the streets, the boys would be found on the school grounds engaged in a hotly contested game. The bright, glowing faces of the girls testified that they had been enjoying vigorous, wholesome exercise. For the first time in their lives they had a chance to know the joy that comes from spontaneous play.

Another teacher thought of an excellent plan by which the people might be brought together in a highly beneficial way. She observed that there were many good voices in the town. The next step was the organization of a music club which proved to be a source of entertainment and instruction for the entire community.

The effectiveness of the teacher's efforts to be a valuable asset to her community will be determined by the spirit which prompts her service.

"God did anoint thee with his odorous oil,
To wrestle, not to reign; and He assigns
All thy tears over, like pure crystallines,
For younger fellow-workers of the soil
To wear for amulets. So others shall
Take patience, labor, to their heart and hand,
From thy hand, and thy heart and thy brave cheer,
And God's grace fructify through thee to all.
The least follower, with a brimming cup, may stand
And share its dew-drop with another near."

MARY LILLIAN MILLNER
DISCUSSIONS OF SOME CURRENT EDUCATIONAL INTERESTS

RECENT ASPECTS OF THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH

What with the demand for a more effective amalgamation of America’s alien population thru the agency of the public schools, and the insistent charge that our schools are graduating pupils who are not familiar with the bare essentials of correct speech, the teacher—and especially the teacher of English—does not lack for stimulus to renewed effort. Indeed, such effort is constantly being made, and there has been born in recent years a new attitude on the part of the teacher of English toward his work. From the old English grammars patterned after the highly organized treatment of Latin grammar—a study of classifications and pigeon holes—we have come to the modern textbook which recognizes that “all pupils may be trained in clear and correct speaking and writing, but that only the few may hope to attain excellence in the forms of expression that are peculiarly literary.” From the old-fashioned plan of teaching literature by “cramming into the mind of the child a bulk of information about the author and the poem” we have come to accept a newer method—Miss Bolenius happily calls it the “laboratory method.” “It implies,” she says, “(1) actual contact with the subject studied, and (2) conclusions based on personal investigation.” In keeping with this spirit of regeneration is the study of French schools made by Professor R. W. Brown, of Wabash College, a study made “for the light it might shed on the teaching of English in America.”

All sound principles of pedagogy recognize the essential character of the study of the vernacular; certainly, then, Professor Brown feels, the teacher of the mother tongue in America cannot fail to go about his


work with surer confidence if he knows how the teachers of the mother tongue in another country have gone about theirs. Because he found that the French boy writes "with greater grammatical correctness, sharper accuracy of thought, surer and more intelligent freedom, and greater regard for good form and finish than does the American boy of the same age," he has deemed it worth the while of the American teacher of the vernacular to consider (1) the full outline of the course of study in composition, grammar, and literature; (2) the carrying out of different parts of this course in the classroom; (3) the influence of the teacher of foreign languages on the pupil's skill in using his native tongue; (4) the French boy's teacher; and (5) the results of the methods employed in perpetuating good speech and writing, and the possibility of attaining some of these results in America.

Certainly the simplification of grammatical nomenclature, as adopted in France in 1910, offers a reform which most teachers of English would be happy to see effected in America. One learns that the grammar lesson rarely exceeds fifteen minutes in length, and is usually at the beginning of the recitation. This enables the teacher, as the author points out, to relate grammatical principles to whatever other studies in the mother tongue he may take up for the remainder of the hour. The manual of literary history is used sparingly, for it is the purpose that the pupils shall learn literature, and not facts about literature. And one cannot doubt that the French child will come to have a far finer appreciation of literature than his little American brother if the example of explication given by Professor Brown be typical of the French schools. The example is an account of a splendid recitation in a Versailles lycee, the text for study being a short poem of Lamartine's. The teacher of English who would inculcate in his pupils a true appreciation of literature will find much that is suggestive in this transcription of the class's discussion (pp. 129-148).

We of America are fast learning that it is a mistake to require a pupil to write a theme on a subject before he has been provided, or has provided himself, with a body of facts which may be incorporated in his writing.
So generally do the French teachers follow the practise of working over material in the classroom before permitting the pupils to begin writing, that we are told this may be regarded as an essential part of their method of instruction. They do not expect a pupil to think of what to say at the same time he is thinking of how to say it.

Neither will American teachers, when they have had the opportunity of using Lewis and Hosie's *Practical English for High Schools*. Here is a book which calls for the preparation of material prior to the pupil's writing, which teaches clearness of expression and accuracy of thought, which provides the pupil with real incentive for speaking and writing well. The very fact that one of the authors is Professor James F. Hosie, the able editor of *The English Journal*, will be sufficient to assure the text a cordial reception by the many teachers of English who believe in the work of *The English Journal*. Mr. Lewis is principal of the William Penn High School, Philadelphia. The book is said to be "the outgrowth of the new movement to distinguish between English for work and English for leisure." *Practical English for High Schools* is a working manual which will lend great assistance in the teacher's endeavor to develop in pupils a similar attitude to that of the Frenchman, quoted by Professor Brown, "That which is not clear is not French." The pupil is time and again made to confront himself with the query as to whether, in his efforts to express himself, he has delivered the goods.

The convenient pigeonholes of the grammar of yesteryear are happily missing, and the relative importance of content rather than form is made evident. From a shelf of grammars I have just picked at random one which was published in 1907. Its author considers thirty-two pages the very least he can give to so important, so classified, so inflected a subject as the NOUN. Lewis and Hosie's text, in a scant ten pages (perhaps this is too much!) treats of the same topic, and—what is more than can be said for the older book—the treatment will mean something to the pupil, will have got him somewhere. There is the idea of accomplishment in the very chapter headings. The matter of punctuation is treated under the heading "'Helping the Eyes.'"
time-honored quartet, Narration, Description, Exposition, and Argumentation, are left to their own devices, while the pupil is instructed in “Telling a Story,” in “Making People Understand,” and in “Making People Believe.” Such a textbook cannot but exert a regenerating influence on the teacher of English as well as his class.

Illustrative matter is drawn frequently from such current periodicals as The Youth’s Companion and even more frequently from pupils’ themes. There is something very encouraging to the average pupil in knowing that some other pupil has done the sort of thing desired, that speaking and writing well is not an ability in which only the high lights of literature can excel. And, moreover, the assignments and suggested study will be found to harmonize well with the natural interests of growing boys and girls, for the book is, as its name claims, practical. The authors have kept always in mind their purpose of providing a textbook which would develop in pupils the ability to use correct English in the everyday affairs of life, a textbook in English for the business of living. The problem of the teacher of English will come nearer its solution with the introduction of just such texts as this.

The publication of a book heralding the doctrine of interest and setting forth the importance of practical English, the English we use daily in writing and speaking, is hardly more significant than the publication of a similar book discussing the Teaching of Literature in the Grammar Grades and High School. The Riverside Textbooks in Education, under the general editorship of Professor E. P. Cubberley, now includes such a book, which is an attempt—and a very successful one—to point out to the teacher of English the happy mean between the interpretative, or inspirational, teaching of literature and the detailed analysis, or intensive study. Whereas the first method of teaching charged the teacher with doing all the work, the second method convinced the pupil that the classics were dull and monotonous. Miss Bolenius, a teacher of many years’ practical experience, has put into her volume a wealth of concrete suggestions and helpful sample lessons, so that one feels as if he had just opened the full and well-kept note-book of a splendid and inspired teacher.
Some Current Educational Interests

The first chapter of the book discusses the question, "What is Poetry?" The other ten chapters are devoted to "The Ballad," "The Lyric," "The Metrical Tale," "The Metrical Romance," "The Epic," "The Drama," "The Short Story," "The Novel," "The Essay," and "The Oration," including in each case a detailed consideration of one or more classics commonly taught in the high school. The author has cleverly woven about her treatment of these types a background knowledge of the history of English literature. Much interesting material, gathered no doubt for class presentation and applied there to prove its worth, is included: the little human-interest stories about literary figures, which are so quickening when treated in class incidentally, and so boring when made a subject of drill; the diagrams and graphs which often bring more to the pupil's sense of values than a whole hour of wordy talking; the suggestion of helpful readings; and the names of those who supply such illustrative material as penny pictures and blue prints.

The book will liberalize and invigorate not only the teacher of English, but any teacher who cares for that which is the groundwork of all other studies; and it is so arranged that the technical parts may be easily omitted by the person interested in English literature for its cultural value, and desirous of obtaining many illuminating comments on that body of reading with which every educated American is expected to be acquainted.

Here, then, is a trilogy for the teacher of English who wishes to be familiar with recent aspects of his chosen profession. The book on teaching in France will broaden his knowledge of both composition and literature teaching; the text on composition and grammar will introduce what modern thought accepts as essential knowledge in these matters, relieved of the moss of tradition; and the book on the teaching of literature will fill a long-felt want by suggesting the new demands made on the teaching of English.

Conrad T. Logan
TRAINING TEACHERS IN SERVICE

The problem of training young, inexperienced teachers has been solved more or less successfully by the various systems of normal schools; but the means of increasing the efficiency of those teachers who have spent some years in service present many more difficulties than the first. Frequently these teachers began their work when the state held a very much lower standard for teachers; sometimes habits have so encrusted a good mind that it can scarcely stir; sometimes the necessities of life have pressed too heavily upon the teacher, demanding too much of mental and physical energy and leaving behind an intellectual numbness. Yet these teachers possess a certain economic value that the well-trained, but inexperienced, teacher does not have and which she cannot secure except thru years of teaching classes of children. Therefore, the state and city superintendents have been studying this question: "How can we secure growth upon the part of these good teachers who are behind the times? Our schools are growing so rapidly that those teachers who do not increase their capacity for service, gradually cease to be of much use to our system. Can we inspire them to keep abreast of the times thru some form of personal training?"

There have been several answers to this question. Teachers' institutes, teachers' meetings, leaves of absence, and supervision are all means to this end. But probably the most successful of all is the reading-circle work. Many states have this method of helping the teacher in service. Dr. Cubberly says, "It (reading-circle work) stimulates thinking on the problems of instruction, deepens professional insight as to the means and processes of education, increases the effectiveness of supervision, and tends to develop a professional attitude toward the work of teaching."

The same author makes the statement that he believes that the chief reason why so many men from the state of Indiana have become professional leaders in education, and why so many Indiana students are found in the summer schools all over this country, is due to the fact that for thirty years the teachers of Indiana
have been engaged in reading professional books under the direction of the state reading-circle board.

The state of Virginia has been alive to this fact and as early as 1884 we find that reading courses existed. It is interesting to note the growth in the book list from year to year. The evident reason for this growth is found in the great diversity of needs and interest among the teachers of this great Commonwealth. In the course for this year every teacher and every phase of teaching has been reached.

The teacher who has had little opportunity for educational advancement, and the young teacher who is going to her first school will be very much helped by studying Miss Lincoln’s book on *Everyday Pedagogy*. This book deals with all of the problems which may confront a teacher. It gives in an unusually readable style many suggestions for making the most out of her school. Further on in the book, the different school subjects are taken up and given a brief practical survey. The teacher who has had experience but lacks broader training, especially along educational lines, will not feel embarrassed and bewildered by a great many technical terms, but will gain many helpful suggestions for immediate use.

Kendall and Mirick’s *Teaching the Fundamental Branches* will be of like service to the teacher of the graded school, whether in the city or in the rural districts. This book is more technical, but presents the best development of theory and practice that we have at the present time. The theoretical part is applied immediately to class procedure. Each subject has a well-worked out course of study and a valuable bibliography. A study of this book would enable a teacher to check up her own work by the best standards in the country.

Dr. Hall-Quest’s book, *Supervised Study*, has been prepared especially for the high school teachers, but the subject is just as vital to the intermediate and grammar grade teachers and should be made to apply there. Of all the books that have been written upon this subject during the past few years, this book is the most comprehensive and practical. Every high school teacher in the state, no matter what has been his previous training, should make a careful study of this book and put
into practise many of the valuable suggestions. If this could be done, the efficiency of our high-schools, measured by the increased number and scholarship of its graduates, would be much greater.

The rural teachers may choose the book of Bricker’s, *Agricultural Education for Teachers*. Virginia is pre-eminently rural and agricultural. It is very important that the teachers in the many rural schools in the state should have that training which would help them better understand the conditions under which they live. Other states are attempting a reorganization of their courses of study in order to meet the needs of the rural populace. Therefore, it is necessary for our rural teachers to secure such a foundation that they may intelligently apply the plans being elaborated by the department in Washington.

This is the day of standardization. Everything is being measured by the particular yard stick which science has assigned. Dr. Charles Judd, of Chicago University, applied one of the measuring rods to the Cleveland schools and as a result we have the little monograph, *Measuring the Work of the Public Schools*. Every principal and superintendent should study this book and apply the measurements to his own school, giving himself, and his assistants an unbiased view of their own work. This will place the school, the faculty, and the superintendent upon a much broader professional basis. It will do more to arouse the teachers and get them out of the “rut” into which they may have slipped than anything else.

The remaining two books on the state list, while of entirely different character, are of equal interest to all teachers. Mr. Heatwole’s book, *A History of Education in Virginia*, should be of great interest to every one from the rural teacher to the superintendent, from the first-grade certificated teacher to the college graduate, for it presents in a readable form a complete record of all educational activities from the period of early colonial times down to the present.

*Schools of Tomorrow*, by Dr. John Dewey, is of a different type. The author surveys many experimental schools which are now in operation, in order to show what are the real problems of education and how they
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may be realized. Anyone who reads this book cannot be content to go back to the old plan of "doing the same old thing in the same old way." But it is to the rural teacher, probably, that the opportunity for branching out in new directions may seem possible. For the rural teacher is not hampered by a well-worked-out system which is sacred in the eyes of the superintendent. Thru this book she may find the means of solving the many bewildering problems found in a one-teacher school.

Rachel Elizabeth Gregg

A Note on Practical Problems

For a number of years the writer has been watching with interest the results of certain attempts to make the problems of elementary mathematics practical. These attempts, while laudable, have not always been successful. Numerous exercises, the aim of which was to give the pupil facility in making calculations, have been turned into so-called practical problems by the mere adding of the names of well-known objects. Or the operations to be performed have been so hidden in a labyrinth of words, not always even grammatically arranged, that the main object of the pupil is to find out "what he means."

Any thinking teacher knows, as soon as his attention is called to such problems, that they are by no means practical, yet for some reason, perhaps because they are 'in the book,' he goes on teaching them, and the parent, who hears so much nowadays, about education being made practical, wonders why his child is incapable of solving the simple problems of the home.

Here is a problem chosen from an arithmetic of recent date:

A farmer used inch boards to make an ice box which measured on the outside 8 ft. in length, 3 ft. 2 in. in width, and 4 ft. 9 in. in height. What was the cost of the boards, at $18 per m.? Ans. $2.73.

This is by no means a 'practical problem.' It is at most an exercise for the determination of the pupil's ability to calculate the correct number of 'board feet' of lumber in a box of given dimensions, coupled with a
test of his ability to find the cost of a number of things, when the price per thousand is known.

That such an exercise should be made into a 'practical problem' by the addition of the words, farmer and ice box, is silly. Besides this, the result of making the calculation required by the problem is not the cost of the lumber required to make the ice box. Lumber cannot be bought in the proper lengths to make a box of such dimensions, but must be bought in lengths which require some waste in cutting it to fit. The total amount of lumber needed is not accounted for in the given dimensions, for any small boy who has ever made a box with a top knows that, unless he had a single board wide enough for the top, he must have a small strip or two to brace the top.

One might also say very truly that an ice box, to be of any value, should be made as a double box with sawdust or some other poor conductor of heat between the inside and outside boxes, and, hence, that an ice box made with inch boards would not be satisfactory. Also, at the present day, a farmer who wished an ice box would probably buy a refrigerator. If he were going to build anything as a receptacle for ice it would be perhaps an ice house. If he did build this box he would use pieces of lumber that were already on the place.

Let us attempt to make this a practical problem. Let us say that the farmer is going to build a feed box of the given dimensions, and that he has to buy the lumber of which it is to be made. Put the question in this form: 'Would it cost the farmer more or less to buy the lumber in 16-foot lengths or in 12-foot lengths, supposing that the boards were six inches wide. Would it cost more or less to buy lumber nine inches wide or six inches wide? What would the farmer order from the lumber mill, to build his feed box at the least cost? Would the cost of the lumber represent the whole cost of the box?'

The writer presents this merely as a basis for thought with regard to 'practical problems.' The books are full of such problems, and it would be a very valuable exercise for the teacher, as well as the pupil, to analyze such problems and determine what should be done to make them 'practical.'

Henry A. Converse
NOTTINGHAM FAIR

AN OLD NONSENSE BALLAD

Editor's Note—The following ballad, without a definitely associated name or date, so far as ballad authorities have any means of knowing, was popular with school boys and girls in Rockingham County several generations ago. It may occasionally be heard still in Virginia and Kentucky among children whose fund of old ballads and nonsense jingles has not been crowded into the background by the "ragtime" which has replaced the humor of old days and old ways. It is contributed from the rich collection of local ballads of Miss Martha M. Davis, of Harrisonburg; a ballad enthusiast and an authority in this field of literature.

I.

As I was going to Nottingham Fair,
Riding horseback on an old grey mare,
White mane and white tail, grey stripes down her back,
With not a hair on her but what was coal black,

II

The king and the queen and a company more
Were riding horseback and walking before;
Three half-naked drummers before them did run
With their heels in their pockets while beating their drum.

III

I stepped up to them: "By your majesty's grace
Can you show me the way to I know not what place?"
The king so brazenly scarcely looked down
To show me the way to Nottingham town.
IV
When I got there, not a soul did I see,
But the streets were crowded staring at me.
You would have laughed, if you had been there,
To see a coach and six horses run o’er a grey mare.

V
It snowed and it blowed; I stood in the storm
With my hat in my hands to keep my head warm.
I sent for a glass to drive gladness away,
I choked in the dust—it had rained all that day.

VI
I hooked my horse to the cart, and fishing did go;
Good luck, or bad luck, is luck I don’t know;
My fish did upset, my cart it did spill,—
I’ll sell the grey mare—no, I’ll be hanged if I will.
EDITORIAL

Better Speech

The movement recently set on foot in our state for bringing about a finer appreciation of the meaning of good speech is worthy of a whole-hearted support by all who are sensitive to the confusions and inconsistencies of American English. The emphasis, we believe, is properly placed: the first aim is to create a susceptibility to the niceties of language on its spoken side, to gain a just sense of what constitutes good enunciation and the voice control that means so much for both audience and speaker, and to secure the habit of using the mother tongue free from provincialism and other evidences of a lack of "linguistic pride."

There are many reasons for the timeliness of the undertaking, as Utopian as it may seem. Good English is now recognized as an asset to pretty much every one who uses the language; bad English is painfully realized as a handicap in whatever occupation one may find himself, if he happens to be there by preference. It is not surprising, therefore, to find the movement heartily supported on all sides; nor is it indeed long a wonder
that those manifesting the greatest interest in the success of the enterprise are employers and men of large affairs. An effective speech is, to be sure, a desirable qualification in those who must come into contact with people of any rank; and the most complete service is possible only when a properly modulated voice uses a language in which there are none of the uglinesses of our American speech.

The character of the mind habituated to the use of slovenly English is too well known to lend a charm to that usage, even to a person of less than average intelligence. The use of slang, for instance, does not give so much of piquancy to conversation and an air of independence to one’s mental attitude as it does evidence of one’s inability to make proper distinctions in the use of words, to think clearly, to have a due sensitiveness to the effects of correct speech. To make use of provincialisms, consciously or otherwise, as well as other lapses of sectional breeding, is the mark of narrowness and, quite probably, of unfortunate social environment. To indulge unrestrainedly in exaggerations, superlatives, and other affectations of speech marks one as being desirous of effect without the educational equipment necessary to secure it. Faulty grammar and a slip-shod pronunciation are appreciated at their full value—the unmistakable evidence of humble origin, associations of which one might be ashamed, or of ignorance itself. No, we now fully realize that, when we speak, we are revealing to the world not so much what the words in themselves mean as what our use of them suggests; we are indeed holding up a mirror both to our present and our past, and in the mirror it needs no expert to read whether the three generations have been put behind us or not.

The efforts, therefore, of the American Speech League to improve our use of the English tongue have the largest opportunities of service, in an educational way; they should meet with the encouragement of all well-informed people; and the ideal of a beautiful oral English need not be the dream of the language enthusiast. What one will may be accomplished in the cultivation of one’s native tongue; and the glory of the possession is that we need never lose it.
Organizing the Study of Civic Problems

An important aspect of secondary education, under its reorganized form, presents itself in meeting the requirements of present day citizenship. A striking phase of this problem is set forth in a recent report on the subject by the United States Bureau of Education, when it points out the far-reaching fact that the pupil is a member not only of the local community but also of a national community.

"It would be inexpressibly unfortunate," the report says, "if the studies of local community life and relations should supplant a study of national life and national civic relations. It is held that the two aspects of civic life should clearly supplement each other, and that questions of health, of education, of industry, can no longer be dealt with except in the light of national policy and to the end of national efficiency."

A vitally valuable hint is made in connection with the civic relations of vocational life. Among the many purposes that should be fulfilled the report declares that these should stand out as pre-eminently important: the development of an appreciation of all work and its significance, especially in its social aspects; the social value and interdependence of all occupations; the social responsibility of the worker, not only for the character of his work, but for the use of its fruits; the opportunities and necessity for social control, the economic activities of the community, and the part actually played by the Government in regulating the economic life of the community and of the individual. The more concrete the study of the problems of democracy can be made, the more completely will the purposes of secondary education be met and the more perfectly will the schools fulfill their obligations to the state.

Doubling the Efficiency of the Schools

A sure means of doubling the efficiency of the schools as an educational factor is to help adults to the discovery that the schoolhouse offers opportunities to the grown
person as well as to the child. It needs, however, more than a law making the schoolhouse available for community purposes; there must be constructive community organization backed by real community spirit. The righting of the moral wrong of investing so large a portion of the people’s money in buildings and equipment used less than half the time can come thru neighborhood co-operation and understanding in making the school-house the community center; the reaction, moreover, upon the school for children will be wholly beneficial.

**Military Pedagogy**

As the army has become recently a training school for citizen soldiers, it would seem quite wise to revise the course of study in our military schools in such a way as to include a serviceable and practical course in Military Pedagogy. About eighty per cent of an officer’s work is instruction; hence it would seem quite within the scope of our scheme of preparedness to include sufficient training to qualify graduates to instruct civilians. The army officer would find a knowledge of the best methods of making soldiers out of citizens quite as valuable as the teacher finds the matter of method a help to her in making a citizen out of the average American boy.

Miss Annie Vergilia Cleveland, a member of the faculty of this school since its opening, died here on December 19 after a stroke of paralysis. The remains were taken to her home county of Fluvanna for burial.

A fitting memorial service will be held at the school as soon as practicable. A full account of this service will be incorporated in the next issue of the Bulletin for the benefit of the many students and others who revere the memory of this beautiful Christian character and its significant influence in the history of our school.
A key-note of the recent Educational Conference in Richmond, the great annual gathering of the educational forces of the state, was the often expressed demand for compulsory education. While the last General Assembly made some progress in this direction, the laws of Virginia are still woefully inadequate in this respect. An amendment to the Constitution may be necessary to accomplish the desired result, and this involves a long process extending over several years. The State Legislature must first approve such an amendment and then it must be submitted to a vote of the people, the result of this vote being reported back to the following session of the Legislature for final action. It is to be hoped that sufficient public sentiment can be aroused before the General Assembly of 1918 to ensure the passage of the necessary measure by that body, and afterwards to secure its passage by popular vote. In the meantime it is incumbent upon local officials to see that the present laws are enforced and that evasions under the various exception clauses are reduced to a minimum. Perhaps it is not going too far to say that school officials should be courageous enough to seek the removal of such officers of the law as do not enforce compulsory attendance as far as it may be enforced under the present statutes. It would seem that the so-called “ouster” law could be applied here as well as to other cases of failure on the part of public officers to perform their duty.

Several influential organizations in Virginia and a number of prominent educators have made strong declarations in favor of an educational survey for Virginia. If impartially, intelligently, and comprehensively made, there is no limit to the good that might be so accomplished. This will demand the services of experts, who must be carefully chosen. These investigators must be unprejudiced and trained professional men of the highest type. It is also necessary that every school official from the State Superintendent and the President of the State University down to the janitors of the schools cooperate in every possible way in giving information. The purpose of such surveys is not fault-finding or radi-
cal destruction of existing plans of organization and work. It is rather to make an inventory of our educational facilities, seek co-ordination and correlation of the various educational agencies, and provide a scientific plan of future development, not only for the purpose of securing greater economy, but chiefly for the securing of greater efficiency along all lines of educational endeavor.

In the recent retirement of the Secretary of the State Board of Education, Mr. Evan R. Chesterman, the Department of Public Instruction has lost one of its most valuable workers. Always affable, courteous, and accommodating, he greeted the caller with a charmingly cordial manner too rarely found in public officials. No one ever called on him for help without getting it, if it was within his power to furnish it. Blessed with an unusually bright mind and a warmth of soul that enabled him to bear up under trying circumstances with evenness of temper and cheerfulness, he impressed all who came in contact with him as "a gentleman and a scholar" of the best Virginia type. His numerous friends all over the state will wish him a speedy recovery and many more years of usefulness. His successor, Mr. J. N. Hillman, former superintendent of schools in Wise County, is well and favorably known as a progressive and able educator, and Supt. Stearnes is to be congratulated on securing one so well qualified to take up the work laid down by Mr. Chesterman.

It is understood that there will be three candidates for State Superintendent of Public Instruction at the election to be held during the coming summer. State Superintendent Stearnes will stand for re-election, and will be opposed by Superintendent Harris Hart, of the Roanoke City schools, and Assistant Superintendent J. H. Binford, of the Richmond City schools. Among three such able educators, men of large experience and great achievement in the public school work of the state, it will be difficult to make a selection. In the case of most of the educational voters of the state it will be a matter of choosing one of three good friends and able associates, making the situation all the more perplexing. There is this consolation, however, that no matter which one of
the three is finally elected, Virginia will get a clean and constructive school administration.

The recent work of Mr. T. Slater Settle in the state reminds us that before he went into his broader work, as Field Secretary of the Playground and Recreation Association of America, he was an able inspector of schools under our Department of Public Instruction. The gospel of joy and happiness which Mr. Settle is now preaching should reach to every corner of our state and country. It means the liberation of childhood, and it means "preparedness" of the best possible type. It is significant to note that the so-called "military training" recently prescribed for the public schools of New York State does not mean putting all the boys in uniform, placing guns in their hands, and teaching them how to shoot cannon—but instead includes simple gymnastic exercises, sports, and games. Such a program being formulated by a commission on which were army officers of high rank is particularly significant and timely. Training of this sort means stronger men, healthier men, men who can bear hardship, and men who know how to co-operate for the common good.

The Fourth Annual Report of the Public High Schools of Virginia for the School Year 1915-1916 has been distributed. Its appearance was delayed by the untimely death of Mr. John B. Terrell, to whom that immensely valuable piece of constructive work, the classification of the high schools, stands as a lasting monument. Many interesting facts may be gleaned from this report. We have now more than 1,400 high school teachers in 479 schools, of which 224 offer four-year courses, although only 146 are fully accredited. The report shows the character of training possessed by the teachers, the source of supply, and the salaries paid them. Nearly 10,000 boys and nearly 14,000 girls are pupils in these high schools, and one of the most interesting parts of the report discusses what becomes of the product from this multitude of possibilities. Of 1,667 boy and girl graduates reported, 760 entered higher institutions, 320 began teaching (!), and 323 others entered directly upon their life work. One graduate was reported as "married."—Are our high schools in need of an additional subject in their curriculum?
The visit of Professor John M. Clapp, Secretary of the American Speech League, to three of the normal schools and to the Educational Conference, has served to call attention to the importance of cultivating in our teachers accuracy, clearness, and facility in the use of the spoken word. In many of our schools the written word is doubtless emphasized at the expense of oral expression. In a faculty meeting some time ago the thirty men and women present were asked to submit by "secret ballot" their opinions as to the greatest need of the students, and the result was a practically unanimous demand for better oral expression—not of the "elocution" type, but of ordinary reading aloud and speaking.

In the campaign for a longer rural school term, it has been well said that it will not serve the purpose simply to keep the school open for a greater number of days each year. The average daily attendance in rural schools for the country at large is only 67.6 per cent., which is 11.7 per cent. lower than in the urban schools. The trouble is not with a parsimonious school policy alone, but a large share of the fault falls upon indifferent, ignorant, and selfish parents who fail to see that their children attend the schools while they are in session.

During the past year there were 23,500,000 persons attending school in the United States, which is about 24 per cent. of the total number of inhabitants. Of this number about eighteen million are in kindergartens and elementary schools and about a million and a half are in high schools. There are about 14,000 high schools in our country, and approximately 93 per cent. of the students attending them are pursuing four-year courses. Of the 706,000 teachers in America, 537,000 are women. There is a strong tendency for the relative number of women teachers to increase, with a corresponding decrease in the relative number of men teachers. Even in the high schools is this the case, for the past fifteen years has witnessed a change from an approximately even number of men and women high school teachers to a majority of about 8,000 women at present.

It is to be regretted that the average salary for
teachers in the southern states still remains far below the other sections of the Union. The average for the entire country is $525, the maximum being found in the Eastern and North Atlantic States with $699 and $696 respectively, and the lowest being found in the South Atlantic States with $329—less than one half the former. Mississippi has the record for the lowest average in $234 and New York for the highest in $941. Virginia is ahead of most of the southern states but her standing is not by any means sufficiently high for boasting; on the other hand, it is pitifully low.

Owing to the scarcity and consequently the increased cost of paper for printing purposes, newspapers and other publications are cutting down their number of pages, and even the Federal Government is reducing the edition of its various reports and bulletins. The free distribution of printed matter, formerly of such lavish proportions, is being reduced to the minimum, and applicants are being required to pay for the cost of many such publications. A general campaign has been started in the schools of many cities looking to the collection of waste paper. A paper-baler may be purchased for a comparatively small sum, or one may be made by the older boys in most schools; and a ready sale is found for the baled paper thus collected. Many schools are using this as a means for procuring pictures and other needed additions for which it is usually difficult to get funds from official sources. At the same time the doctrine of economy is being preached and practised in a very effective manner.

At the Virginia Teachers Association, Dr. Thomas H. Briggs, professor of Secondary Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, gave a survey of the Junior High Schools as he has found them in his recent tour of investigation. He said that they might be defined by one word: "Opportunity." They are such for the man with a vision.

There are two distinct functions that have so far been found for this school. One is the reorganization of upper grades of city schools into a better working unit for the purpose of helping pupils to discover for themselves what is of most value to them. The other
is the reorganization of the one or two year rural high school. At present these high schools give a meagre preparation for college and have the effect of weaning their students from the country districts. These courses should give the student some secondary training along broader academic lines, especially in the field of literature, but they should also reorganize much of the secondary curriculum so as to broaden an understanding of country life.

The Kindergarten Association of Virginia, which held its annual meeting at the time of the State Teachers Association, shows growth in numbers and in broadening of ideas. Several interesting discussions were carried on. The discussion of the broader use of the Kindergarten material and occupations found those present bound to a progressive platform. The efforts of the propaganda committee had been rewarded by words of encouragement from many city superintendents. The general opinion was to the effect that they would be glad to install Kindergartens in their school systems if the State Legislature and local appropriations would permit. One noticeable exception was the objection raised by a superintendent who gave as his reason for opposing it that Kindergarten training caused "softening of the brain."

R. E. G.

During the recent Educational Conference at Richmond the "Virginia Society for the Study of Education" was organized. The membership of this body will be made up of those interested in educational research. The results of this work will be presented at the annual meetings and later published in the form of proceedings. This Society can and doubtless will render valuable service to the state.
SCHOOL AND ALUMNAE NOTES

An administrative measure of great interest to us all changes the weekly holiday from the time-honored place of Saturday to Monday; the school week begins with Tuesday, the program of classes and school activities being pushed forward one day. There are many desirable things to be gained by this change; and the new arrangement is expected to work as happily as the schedule put into force this past fall whereby practically all class work is over by three o’clock in the afternoon.

The professional organization in which the faculties of the Normal School and the city schools are jointly concerned has been given the name of “The Educational Society of Harrisonburg.” The Society meets once a month to hear a set lecture upon some current educational activity and to join in a discussion, in the form of a disputation, of such problems as have a bearing upon school administration or instruction. The meetings are arousing great enthusiasm among the faculties of the two schools and are proving tremendously interesting and stimulating.

The last week of November was given, in generous measure, to the campaign for better speech. Such splendid co-operation was shown by all the departments and interests of the school that the desired effect was fully secured. The halls were decorated with posters from the various classes, societies, and organizations; the posters depicted in various but uniformly clever ways the common lapses from good English. Each class, moreover, was given one Assembly period in which to present the different claims and aspects of the subject. The sophomores, for instance, showed the evils of slang; the juniors held a trial of the murderers of the King’s English; and the seniors, in a play of three scenes, presented the absurdities of a misuse or an over-use of idioms, localisms, and peculiar dialectic expressions. The junior class won the banner awarded for excellence in the general showing of posters and public program. The play of the senior class was strikingly original and effective. A copy of the program follows:
COHEE and TUCKAHOE

A Play of Composite Authorship

GIVEN BY THE SENIOR CLASS

State Normal School

HARRISONBURG, VIRGINIA

November 25, 1916

(The purpose of this little play is to contribute to BETTER SPEECH WEEK a few of the Virginia localisms found west and east of the Blue Ridge Mountains.

SCENE I

Porch of a comfortable farmhouse near Harrisonburg. The two kindly old people are a little lonely. They invite the new schoolteacher for the week-end.

SCENE II

Interchange of lingo between Betty, the Rockingham white "ha-a-a-lp," and Mandy, a darkey fresh from East Virginia, called in for the emergency of getting an "extry" good dinner.

SCENE III

The little teacher confides to her new Valley friend her linguistic experiences. A happy combination is suggested.

Cast of Characters

Jacob Miller (a prosperous Valley farmer) . . . . . . . . K. Roller
Miss Dorcas Miller (his gentle sister) . . . . . . . . . . . Eva Phillips
Shirley Wingfield (a young teacher, from Tuckahoe) . Annie Ballard
Anna Stoutamyre (a sweet, quiet Valley girl) . . . . . Lucy Spitzer
Betty Broodekker (native kitchen help) . . . . . . . . Mabel Kiracofe
Mandy (from "Gawdonsville") . . . . . . . . . . . . Mary Warren
Professor John M. Clapp, Secretary of the American Speech League, brought to an effective climax the "Better Speech Week" in a delightful address on the subject of "Beautifying American Speech."

Particularly effectual work has been done in music and dramatics during the past quarter. A number of well rendered plays have been given by the literary societies, while a varied series of musical programs has been given. Just before the holidays, the cantata, "Peace and Good Will," was rendered with unusual finish by a chorus of sixty voices.

The social side of student life has had more opportunity for attention and development in consequence of the rearranged program of classes. Besides the usual student "affairs," many other entertainments have been given in which the students were a large part. An especially attractive event was a supper given on the Sunday evening before the departure for the holidays, in which the student body and the faculty shared honors. A chorus of young ladies sang Christmas carols from the dining hall balcony, while a fire in the open grate and a soft red glow of candles and light added another touch of the Christmas spirit.

The Home Economics Club was organized early in the year with the following officers: Virginia Zirkle, president; Dorothy Spooner, secretary; and Anna Lewis, treasurer. The honorary members are Mrs. P. P. Moody, Miss Gertrude M. Button, and Miss Hannah B. Corbett.

The Industrial Department of our school is endeavoring to develop interest in its line of work by organizing home economics clubs in the country near here and by correspondence with women in all parts of the state with reference to forming such clubs, and also concerning the problems of their daily household occupations. This work is aided to an increasing degree by the students who do their practise teaching in industrial subjects in the county schools, and the graduates in the department who are teaching in the state.

The "Carolina Club", an organization of the girls from North and South Carolina, had its first meeting shortly after the beginning of the present session. The following officers were elected: Rachel Speas, president,
Winston-Salem, N. C.; Irene Moore, vice-president, Rock Hill, S. C.; Ennis Strupe, secretary and treasurer, Winston-Salem. The honorary members are Miss Rose Key and Miss Ethel Spilman, of the faculty of the Main Street School, and Miss Simons, of the Normal School.

The "Senior List," as determined early during the past quarter, is made up of the names of the following students:

**List of Seniors**

**1916-17**

**Kindergarten and Primary Grades**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Household Arts</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Angelyn E. Alexander</td>
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<tr>
<td>Annie Ballard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emma Elizabeth Byrd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virginia Pegram Eppes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ammie Glenn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mabel Kendig</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elsie Rebecca Miller</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nettie Lee Shiflett</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florence May Shumadine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lucy Elton Spitzer</td>
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<tr>
<td>Gertrude Waldron</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lois Yancey</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Household-Industrial Arts**

| Kate Edwina Clary       |
| Emily Gay Eley          |
| Mary Spottswood Glassett|
| Emily Margaret Haldeman |
| Lizzie Miller Jarman    |
| Elizabeth Kabler        |
| Elizabeth Hendren Nicol |
| Kathleen Dickinson Perry|
| Rachel Rodgers          |
| Luna Saunders           |
| Christine Rodgers       |
| Louise Stanton          |
| Stella Mae Thompson    |
| Helen Ward              |
| Mary J. Warren          |
| Virginia Zirkle         |

**High School Professional Grades**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Industrial Arts</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Edna Anderton</td>
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<tr>
<td>Roberta Armstrong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frances Bagley</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dick Bowman</td>
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<tr>
<td>Nellie Loomis Davies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annie May Fitzpatrick</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kathleen Huffman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daisy Johnson</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thelma L. Keen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bessie R. Keeton</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mabel Kiracofe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frances Rolston</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miriam Buckley</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ruth Everett</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zola Younge Hubbard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ruth Marshall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ann Elizabeth Mowbray</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eva Lillian Phillips</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Katie Pruden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annie Elizabeth Smith</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kathryn Brown Roller</td>
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<tr>
<td>Nora L. Spitzer</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Other names will be added as soon as the eligibility of the students is established.
Honor List for the First Quarter, 1916-17

The following students made Honor List grades in their classes during the Fall Quarter, ending December 20, 1916:

**Grade "A" on all subjects:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Misses</th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frances Bagley</td>
<td>Mabel Kendig</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bertha Burkholder</td>
<td>Genoa Swecker</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Olive Cole</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Hazel Davis (4th consecutive quarter)</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Grade "A" on all subjects except one, which is "B":**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Misses</th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mary Clement</td>
<td>Elizabeth Mowbray</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Audrey Girard</td>
<td>Madie O'Rork</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Julia Glascock</td>
<td>Margaret Watson</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ruth McGhee</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Grade "A" on all subjects except two, both of which are "B":**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Misses</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dick Bowman</td>
<td>Ruth McNair</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pauline Callender</td>
<td>Inez Marable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Nellie Critzer</td>
<td>Susie Marks</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mary Glassett</td>
<td>Merla Matthews</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virginia Harnsberger</td>
<td>Elsie Miller</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lizzie Jarman</td>
<td>Elizabeth Nicol</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elizabeth Kabler</td>
<td>Eva Phillips</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frances Kemper</td>
<td>Elizabeth Primrose</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Mildred Kidd</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anna Lewis</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adelaide Lyttle</td>
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<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Grade "A" on all subjects except one, which is a "C":**

| Miss | Maude Moseley |

Normal School Luncheon

At Richmond, during the time of the Thanksgiving educational conferences, teachers and old students of the Normal School found a season of happy reunion. In all, a full hundred of our girls were in attendance. They came from every section of the Old Dominion and, in one or two cases at least, from far beyond her borders.

Acting upon a suggestion from alumnae in Richmond, the faculty took steps for appointing a time and a place for all Harrisonburg folks, teachers and students, of the summer schools as well as of the regular sessions, to get together for eating and talking. The former was a need, the latter a strong desire. Accordingly, all of our name
The Normal Bulletin

who could do so, met at Cole’s restaurant, on Broad Street, at 1 o’clock on Friday, December 1, for luncheon. A spacious hall on the second floor, tastefully decorated in green and white, was placed at our disposal. An appetizing meal was served us and everyone present contributed to the spirit of good cheer and comradeship.

Miss Rachel E. Gregg, chairman of the faculty committee, presided. Short speeches were made by Miss Button, Miss Seeger, Miss Woolridge, Professor Cool, Superintendent Keister, and Dr. Sanger. President Burruss, who was unavoidably kept from the meeting, sent a hearty letter, which was read by Dr. Wayland.

While the “inner man” was being satisfied the “normal woman” made herself known. Beginning at one end of the long table, one after another of the ladies arose, gave her name, told when she was last at the Normal and where she is now working. At the same time a paper and pencil went around from one to another, and everyone wrote her name and address. Here is a copy of the list as it finally appeared, excepting the Normal teachers, who are named above:

Ruth A. Sanders, Bon Air.
Mary Lancaster Smith, Richmond.
Mary J. Davis, Richmond.
Joe Warren, School.
Alice Gilliam, Richmond.
Katherine Jordan, Ivor.
Pauline Ashmead, Lawrenceville.
Ann Jones, Hopewell.
Annie Ritchie, Richmond.
Mary E. Quigg, Richmond.
Esther Buckley, White Stone.
Lillian Lightner, Haymarket.
Lavina Milby, Chuckatuck.
Elizabeth Alford, Etna Mills.
Anna F. Spiers, Hampton.
E. P. Bohannon, Richmond.
Hildegarde Barton, Elkton.
Kathleen C. Harless, Christiansburg.
Marjorie Grizzard, Capron.
Susie Maloy, Beaverdam.
Myrtie Lewis Ballard, Charlottesville.
Mary Jordan Stone, Richmond.
Mary Cook, Danville.
Annie Davis Steger, Richmond.
Lilla Gerow, Petersburg.
Ellen K. Bowman, Yorktown.
Alice C. Rouse, Richmond.
Gertrude Harris, Lorton.
Lacetitia G. Roper, Richmond.
Mary Ware, Fife.
Annie E. Sale, Denbigh.
Elizabeth Powell, Graham.
Lillian V. Gilbert, Manassas.
Mary Early, Dawsonville.
Jennie P. Loving, Keysville.
Mary Jasper, Sperryville.
Rowena Lacy, Oak Park.
Edna Hutcherson, Waverly.
Helen Allgord, Petersburg.
Eleanor M. Dillon, Petersburg.
Mabel L. Hitt, Lignum.
Mary G. Lewis, Orange.
Nannie Lee Burnley, Waterloo.
Janie K. Werner, Charlottesville.
Veva C. Clark, Culpeper.
Lucile McLeod, Greenville, N. C.
Gertrude P. Royall, Richmond.
Martha J. Fletcher, Lynchburg.
Sallie S. Henley, Sweet Hall.
Virgie Buchanan, Chester.
Anna H. Ward, Centralia.
Emma C. Beard, Carysbrook.
Emma V. Winn, Dendron.

A note of thanks was tendered the local committee, Misses Mary Lancaster Smith, Ruth Sanders, Mary Davis, and others, to whom the success of the occasion was mainly due. A general desire was expressed to have such a meeting made an annual feature of the Thanksgiving conferences.

A notable incident of the reunion was the sending of a telegram to President Burruss in these words: "Sixty-one loyal hearts send greetings to Alma Mater."

In this sentiment joined not only those at the banquet, but also the forty others who attended the conferences, but who were prevented by circumstances from taking part in the feast of cheer.
GIRLHOOD AND CHARACTER, by Mary E. Moxcey (The Abingdon Press, New York, Price, $1.50.)

This book, with a few other recent publications, marks an epoch in the application of psychology and sociology to the girl in her teens and will be welcomed by any one who is interested in the development and enrichment of girlhood. The early, middle, and later adolescent periods are handled physiologically, psychologically, and sociologically, but not technically; so that no one need fear the snags of laws and principles which have not been studied from the teacher’s viewpoint. The book is sane, wholesome, suggestive, and very practical, ever presenting the larger field in society for the growing girl, and is inspiring in its ideals, which are considered basic for the higher development in any woman’s life.

N. L.


From Miss Addams’s pen again comes a vision of the great work which is being done by thoughtful women who are ready to devote a life of trained service to the social and economic welfare of the world. Thru the incident of the rumored arrival of a “Devil Baby” in Hull House we are able to see into the lives of the women as the social workers in the settlement houses see into them. It is a psychological treatment of “women of sorrow, reconciled to misery and still enduring more”—of their historical, mental, and social living. We clearly see how they have long adjusted their lives to the social forces and how the remedy must be the adjustment of these same forces.

H. B. C.

THE QUESTION AS A FACTOR IN TEACHING, by John William Hall and Alice Cynthia King Hall. (Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston.)

That thinking is problem-solving or question-answering is a commonplace in psychology. Pedagogie
method has neglected this consideration almost to the present. As much stress, if not more, might well be placed upon the question as upon the answer. This will lead the child to think, to be more than a passive, receptive, remembering agent. *The Question as a Factor in Teaching* considers chiefly the question in teaching stories in the first five grades of the school. The fundamental principles involved are established and ten different stories are treated in detail with reference to provoking thought in the pupil. A last chapter is devoted to the question in the teaching of history, composition, manual training, reading, and arithmetic in the upper grades. What this book does for the story and suggests for other subjects of the primary and grammar grades should be done for all the studies of all the grades, including the high school. Such constructive work will lead to the application in a vital form of one of the most significant contributions of current educational psychology.

W. T. S.

**Personal Health**, a Doctor Book for Discriminating People, by William Brady, M. D. (W. B. Saunders Company, Philadelphia. Price, $1.50.)

Dr. Brady’s “Health Talks” in papers and magazines have made his name and his straight-forward style familiar to many. This book is a sort of epitome of these health talks, and contains much practical advice and information on a subject sadly neglected. The many misunderstandings and misapprehensions of medical and hygienic questions brought to the author’s knowledge thru correspondence with readers of his articles, might be set right by reading his clear explanations of common ailments, and many fees and drug bills saved by using the simple remedies suggested. One of the most valuable features of the book is the oft repeated warning founded on investigation against fake doctors and patent medicines.

M. I. B.

**Advertising and Its Mental Laws**, by Henry Foster Adams, Ph. D. (The Macmillan Company, New York.)

For all forms of advertising over $700,000,000 is spent annually in this country. To prevent waste in
the expenditure of this great sum is a challenge to scientific study. Dr. Adams's book is a contribution to this end. In it he has brought together the results of much research. Advertising offers a problem concerned chiefly with the applied laws of economics, psychology, English, aesthetics, and such information as mediums of publicity, their circulation, price for space, make up, and the like.

The author is a psychologist, and his primary task is to indicate the data regarding human behavior indispensable to profitable advertising. He first defines his problem, gives a succinct chapter on general psychology, traces the development of advertising, the different forms of publicity, experimental methods in establishing the science of advertising, the laws of attracting and holding attention, securing permanence of memory and consequent action—buying. An interesting short chapter discusses sex differences in relation to advertising: men and women in a large measure require dissimilar forms of appeal. Altogether, the book contains sixteen chapters and twenty-three figures and illustrations.

Dr. Adams's work is particularly well adapted for use as a text-book. It is perhaps too technical for the average business man to use to the best advantage. A final chapter summarizing in detail the practical conclusions that may safely be drawn from the investigations made so far in this field would go a long way towards meeting this objection. Specialists and experts will undoubtedly give this new volume a first position on the rapidly lengthening shelf of advertising literature.

W. T. S.

OTHER RECENT BOOKS RECEIVED


An ably worked-out aid to the enjoyment of the wonderful literature of the Bible, as well as a practical means of getting at its great message. The author succeeds in showing the value, beauty, and significance
of Bible literature; gives the student a definite notion of the proper setting, atmosphere, and background for its reading; and outlines fruitful methods of study and furnishes illustrative examples. While thoughtful and suggestive, it is not dogmatic, nor does it have any theological axes to grind.

How to Read, by J. B. Kerfoot. (Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston. Price, $1.25 net.)

A book that will give you a new conception of reading and a new zest for every book you read hereafter.

How to Use Your Mind, by Harry D. Kitson. (J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia. Price, $1 net.)

A fascinating and important book expressing in a readable and practical form the essence of the way to approach work and carry it thru. It is a psychology of study and will be found of tremendous value in the administration of supervised study.

Making the Most of the Children, by Daniel W. La Rue. (The Educational Book Company, New York.)

This book is the result of the effort to answer two of the most important questions that can claim the attention of the parent or the teacher: How can we discover and develop the best that is born in our children? How can we get them acquainted with their own future?


A protest, in the form of autobiographical chapters, against dawdling thru college. It is a book of inspiration for men.


A new physiology particularly well adapted to high schools; the viewpoint of the elementary student
is maintained throughout, thus giving the student of the text a very important advantage. The matter is presented in a simple manner and many teaching devices help to make the book an excellent classroom help. The illustrations are abundant and instructive.


A book written out of a deep and sympathetic understanding of such conditions as surround the adolescent girl. It is, moreover, an earnest attempt to make available to others some of the lessons learned thru the heartbreaks and the glad revelation which mark the pathway to leadership.

**Short Stories, Old and New**, by C. Alphonso Smith. (Ginn & Company, Boston.)

A collection of twelve of the best short stories, introduced and analysed for the purpose of giving a clear conception of what constitutes the short story as a work of art.

**Boswell's Johnson**, abridged, by Stella S. Center. (The A. S. Barnes Company, New York.)

This is the famous biography brought within a scope suitable for class use. It forms one of the attractive, well edited, series of the Barnes English Texts.

**Maeterlinck, Poet and Mystic**, by Edward Howard Griggs. (B. W. Huebsch, New York.)

This is a handbook of six lectures on the great Belgian Mystic, an effort to give a complete picture of the poet.


This is a successful attempt to approach the study of cookery thru experimental work upon the chemical, physical, bacteriological, and biological properties of foods. Each topic is developed by means of a series of
experiments which acquaints the student at first-hand with the leading characteristics of each type of food and gives her such a grasp of the principles involved as to enable her to work without recipes, and to develop those of her own.


A series of brilliant essays on men, women, and literature. Vision, variety, imagination, and penetration are evident on every page. The book, with contents characterized by piquancy, charm, and originality, will be a delight to every reader.


A book that is essentially modern and in every way suitable for actual classroom use.
WITH THE MAGAZINES

PUBLIC SCHOOL MUSIC

In the April Normal Bulletin attention was called to an article in the March Atlantic Monthly by Thomas Whitney Surrette entitled "Music for Children," setting forth the qualities in music which make it an especially congenial subject for children. In the Atlantic for December, Dr. Surrette writes of the claims of music as a public school subject; of prevailing methods of teaching it; the unsatisfactory results now obtained; and ways of bettering our condition.

He claims that far from being one of the "fads and frills" of education, music has a genuine educational value, cultivating on activity of ear, eye, and mind which tends to quickness of decision and accuracy of thinking. Rhythmic movements to music, with their element of joy, have long since come to be recognized as a means of mental and physical development.

These are some of the results that should come from the teaching of music in the public schools, but altho large sums have been spent on books, salaries, etc., children do not often sing because they love to do it, and only a few care to keep it up after leaving school by uniting in choral singing in any form. One who has seen the large part played by music in the national life of European nations, must realize how great a loss our people sustain by the neglect of singing, not only in the pleasure connected with it, but in this means of expressing a common sympathy binding together the people of a nation.

Dr. Surrette is of the opinion that the reason of our want of success in this phase of education is two-fold; the inferior character of the music essayed to be taught; and the mistaken notion that children must learn from the first to sing by note—"the fetish of sight-singing." The music should consist mainly of the many beautiful old folk-songs; the child should be taught to sing these by ear during the first three years of his school life, so as to learn to breathe properly, to produce pure tones, and, above all, to love to sing. He will then be prepared to realize the use and meaning of the technical parts of the subject, and to learn them so as to be able to take an intelligent part in family and community music.
With the Magazines

GRAMMAR, THE BANE OF BOYHOOD

An assistant professor of English in Vassar College, Burges Johnson, author of "Rhymes of Little Boys," "Pleasant Tragedies of Childhood," and other writings showing his appreciation of child life, describes feelingly in the December Harper's Magazine his experience and observation in the matter of grammar in the elementary grades. The conclusion he draws, aided by the fact that there is now at his side "another little chap assigned by certain melancholy powers to the same bewildering enslavement," is that there should be no grammar taught, as a subject, until the pupil enters the high school. The terms and definitions of English grammar can then best be learned in connection with the study of Latin, as they will have more meaning and arouse more interest if the student meets them there for the first time and realizes their necessity as a means to the acquirement of that language as he has never realized it in connection with English.

To support this conclusion, he adduces arguments drawn from child psychology, physiology, and statistics of actual results giving rise to the cry going up from high schools and all institutions of higher learning that pupils coming to them seldom know how "to speak and write the English language correctly," which is the avowed object of the study of grammar. The investigations of psychologists show that the powers of analysis, comparison, and abstraction are little developed before the high school age; therefore the grade children are not ready for the abstract science of grammar; and statistics show that the majority do not learn it, but have to do the work all over again in the high school; still fewer find it a means to the attainment of oral and written expression in English.

As a means of securing this attainment, the writer advocates the use of much oral and written composition on subjects closely related to the ideas and vocabulary of the children. The teacher should furnish models from books, magazines and papers, should be director, stimulator, and final authority, and above all, keep them writing, for an art is mastered after all only by practice.

Until some method is used by resourceful teachers
not dependent upon rule and formula in a book, grammar, the bane of boyhood, must persist; the little boy must learn grammar because of his teacher.

CONSERVING OUR SPIRITUAL RESOURCES

In *The North American Review* for December, Dr. Margaret Sherwood, of Wellesley College, made an eloquent and convincing plea for the recovery and conservation of what she terms "the lost provinces of the soul," our intellectual and spiritual resources.

All of us sympathize with the gallant fight going on for the conservation of forests, waterfalls, all that pertains to the beauty and use of the physical wealth of our country; but are we making as determined a fight, in the same spirit, to train and develop the diviner human powers of feeling, imagination, which represent the larger resources of human nature?

In the great crash of war at present, Germany is showing the culmination of the modern scientific trend, the ideal of recent decades, the entirely efficient human being, with every physical power, and every intellectual power that serves the physical, developed to the uttermost, so as to become unaware of the higher laws that bind the souls of men. From the old extreme of thinking too much of the development of the soul, we are perhaps swinging too far in the other direction towards mechanical pursuits and mechanical pleasures, worshiping and fostering "force," "nerve," "push," rather than the deeper insight, the finer sympathy, the nobler scruple, which is our spiritual inheritance from those who have achieved them, perhaps thru tragic struggle.

The best of this spiritual heritage comes to us recorded in terms of imperishable beauty in the great literature of our own and other races. Can we afford to let slip, as seems to be the tendency, the insight of prophet, poet, and philosopher of old? Today little is known of the poets or the Bible; Sunday newspapers, cheap magazines, the mangled literature of the "movies"—if literature at all—take their place. Shall we not strive for a Renaissance, a revival of real literature for its own sake, for the sake of keeping before the minds of youth, especially, the high standards dreamed, divined, achieved, in the past, of courage, of courtesy, of fair play, of holiness?
Honor as a College Asset

Dr. Bird T. Baldwin, of Swarthmore College, writes in the December Educational Review of the arguments for and against the honor system—that is, the formal recognition and adoption by students and faculty of a system of mutual responsibility among students for honesty in scholarship. A questionnaire sent to 475 institutions of higher learning and replied to by 425 shows a keen interest in the subject, and it is a significant fact that the 123 who have tried it are, with a half-dozen exceptions, enthusiastically in favor of it. In ten institutions it was at one time in vogue, but eight of these have given it up only temporarily. Many institutions include the honor system in student government, as a natural outgrowth. Very large or very small schools find their conditions not favorable for the system; nor is it used in military schools, although Annapolis has recently adopted it by recommendation of President Wilson.

The difficulties which militate against the system, in the opinion of those answering the inquiries, are found to be almost wholly administrative difficulties, which the writer thinks should not be considered as comparing with the benefits to be derived from giving students opportunities to participate in co-operative methods of self-direction, self-control, and respect for the rights of others. It is a democratic method of procedure which should, by cultivating loyalty, honesty, and individual responsibility, tend to make them opponents of graft and selfishness in public life, and better citizens in the truest meaning of the word.

Three Experiments in Pupil Self-Government

The December Education contains an entertaining and suggestive article by Professor R. R. Smith, of Joliet, Ill., in which he describes his experience in pupil self-government as carried out in three Indiana schools. He defines pupil self-government as "the government of pupils under the invisible direction of teachers," and declares that its success depends mostly upon the skill of the teachers in making their direction invisible, although much depends also upon the previous experience of the pupils as regards discipline, and their being largely homogeneous in character.
In two of his experiments, the device—he does not consider it a method—was successful in developing to a large degree a self-reliant, resourceful, thinking student body. In the other school, altho it accomplished some needed changes in school affairs, it was not so successful, because for three years previous the pupils had been used to military discipline of the stricter type; and to be set at the thought-requiring task of constructing a government for themselves and of deciding for themselves the right and wrong of matters was not exceedingly welcome—they were not prepared for it.

Professor Smith sums up the results of these experiments as follows: "As a device it may be used successfully by some teachers, while for others it is a waste of time. Where the conditions are happy, with its various adaptations it can be made to develop the pupil into a thinking citizen, and a thinking citizen is worth while."

**Academic Child Labor**

According to Dr. Baldwin of Barnard College, writing for the December Educational Review, the hated phrase, child labor, is applicable not only to the factory and the sweat shop, but is found in the altruistic profession of teaching, wherever young, untrained girls are sitting on the platforms of little red schoolhouses all over the land, and student assistants are keeping together the freshman classes in colleges and universities. All are alike inefficient and unproductive, an educational waste.

**Measurement of Effect of Latin on English Vocabulary of High School Students in Commercial Course**

This is the title of an interesting discussion by A. S. Perkins in the same Review as to the understanding of English words by commercial students as shown by a series of six tests or measurements. Seventy-six pupils of equal ability were divided into two groups, one group being in the second year of Latin, the other in the second year of a modern language. The net result showed a difference of 29.12 per cent in favor of the Latin students.
Trained for Citizenship: The Boy Scout

The Chief Scout Executive, James E. West, gives in the December Review of Reviews a most inspiring account of the Scout activities, grouping them as Serving the Community, The Daily Good Turn, The Scout Law, Why Scout Work and Methods Appeal to Boys, Preparedness, etc., preparedness not being used in the recent sense given the term, but for right living, and all-round good citizenship.

The Extent to Which Praise and Reproof Affect a Pupil's Work

School and Society for December contains an account of an experiment in the psychological laboratory of George Peabody College. A test was given first to an entire class, then to two separate groups of the class. Immediately prior to the second test, one group was reproved for having handed in inferior work, and the other group was commended for having done exceptionally well. When the papers were examined, it was found that the reproved group had made no improvement while the praised group had improved by seventy-nine per cent. Even those members of the first group who had done well in the first test did not do so well in the second; while those of the second group who did not do well in the first test made better scores in the second one. The percentages of loss and gain express, presumably, the effect of the expressions of praise and reproof.

Intermediate Grades and Departmentalization

The Superintendent of Schools in Clinton, Ind., Donald Dushane, contributes a strong series of articles in The Elementary School Journal for October and November, which will interest the many school people who are considering the merits and demerits of the departmental system for the intermediate grades—the fourth, fifth, and sixth.

In the first paper he enumerates the conditions that need improvement in these grades, and shows how the departmental system may provide this improvement. In the second paper he gives an account of the working of the system in schools where it has been introduced, and
the testimony of teachers concerning its advantages and disadvantages. The whole discussion amounts to a strong argument in its favor as a means of relieving the over-worked teacher struggling to do special work in a multitude of subjects, and of benefiting the minds of children suffering from the many failures of these usually honest efforts, especially the forty per cent of those children who leave school permanently before reaching the higher grades.

School Administrators' Need of a Philosophy

The November issue of Educational Administration and Supervision is called a "Philosophical Number," being mostly taken up with a symposium on the application of philosophy to school administration, contributed to by such authorities as Ernest Moore, Irving King, and the editor, Charles Johnston. Dr. Moore's article has the title named above, and contains much food for thought on the part of the administrator, whether it be of a large or a small institution. The teacher of a one-room rural school is perhaps in even more need of a true philosophy than those who administer large affairs. Dr. Moore says: "True teaching consists in selecting from the vast welter of facts which belong to every subject that little part which is indispensable to the student. Our first duty is to make that selection in the case of everything we teach; and nothing but an adequate notion of the nature and purpose of education will enable us to make it. Next comes the question of methods of teaching; a firm grasp of the meaning of education is indispensable to lead us to a comprehension of the methods which must be employed."

The Fear of the Present

Rea McCain in the November English Journal warns teachers of English against an attitude of scorn toward the work of writers now living, the idea that no modern literature is worthy of study or even of acquaintance. The life of today is expressed by the writers of today, and students should know what is being done about them. They should be able to take their pleasure in reading not sneakingly, but honestly, measuring it by the truth that is in it, and so learning to choose the best—tho by no means neglecting the pastime and intellectual stimulus afforded by the works of the old masters.
**OUR OVERRATED GREAT-GRANDMOTHERS**

Overrated or underrated according to the point of view, says Miss Agnes Repplier in *Harpers Magazine* for December, in drawing a spirited and entertaining comparison between the meek and shadowy woman of the past as described by poets and other writers of the present day, and the real woman as shown by the annals of early times in our country. The qualities usually ascribed to the "new woman" were developed to a large degree in the women of pioneer days whose wits were sharpened by solving the hard problems of existence. The Pilgrim Fathers had to reckon with the Pilgrim Mothers, but their respect was in proportion to their dependence. All thru the centuries, the qualities which make for mastery, perhaps not always apparent, have been developed—the spirit of Eve which is and has always been the inheritance of Eve's daughters.

**MARY I. BELL**

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