November, 1926

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NATURE STUDY IN THE PRIMARY GRADES

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TECHNIQUE IN ORGANIZING LARGE UNITS

by
KATHERINE M. ANTHONY

Reprinted from October, 1925, issue of Virginia Teacher
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# THE VIRGINIA TEACHER

**Volume VII**

**NOVEMBER, 1926**

**Number 9**

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French in the High Schools of Virginia

In the reorganization of the curricula of secondary schools, modern language courses are undergoing many investigations and changes. These courses offer many problems to those educators who are trying to make modern languages conform to the general spirit of the modern curricula. What are some of the problems which have been met? Among them are “What specific objectives can be set up in foreign language work which will be adapted to the pupils who pursue the subject for general training; how shall these differ from the groups who intend to pursue further some linguistic study, or how far will foreign language study contribute to the large objectives outlined for secondary education of the present day?”

Questions arise in the mind of the teacher in regard to the best methods to be used and also just when a modern language should be first presented to the pupil in order to reap the best results. Clement quotes a writer of a recent magazine article: “The changes now actually taking place in the high school curriculum are of wide-reaching significance; among them the future of modern language assumes great importance.”

It is the purpose of this paper to give, as a result of a research of sixty-seven high schools in Virginia, the opinions of the French teachers of those schools, basing the conclusions upon information received through answers to questionnaires which were sent to them. A general study has been made of the preparation of the teachers, the courses of study offered, the specific aims of the teachers apart from the general aims of all high school subjects, the methods of teaching, and the library facilities and the illustrative material for making these methods more effective.

One of the great handicaps to successful results in teaching French in the past five years has been poor preparation of French teachers. This ill-preparedness is due to the recency of the widespread introduction of French into the high schools of the country. As is well known, German dropped out of many secondary schools entirely during the war, and French and other modern languages were substituted. Previous to the middle of the nineteenth century French had been introduced into only a limited number of public secondary schools. The time given to French has increased rapidly the last two decades. In Virginia now two hundred seventy-two of the three hundred fifty-nine, or seventy-three per cent of the accredited high schools, and seven of the twenty-five, or twenty-eight per cent of the accredited junior high schools, offer courses in French.

Table I
Preparation of the Teachers of French in the Secondary Schools of Virginia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of years studied</th>
<th>Number of teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2 and 2 1/2 years</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 and 3 1/2 years</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 and 4 1/2 years</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 years</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 years</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 years</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 years</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 years</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 years</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have spoken French all their life</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Median: 4 and 4 1/2 years
Arithmetic mean: 4.38
Range: 2 to 10 years

2Ibid, p. 216.
Among the group of teachers questioned there is one who is a native of France, one who has spoken French all of his life, six who have studied in the universities of France, and a few who have traveled in France. It may be concluded from Table I that too great a percentage have studied only two or three years to teach two years of high school work. A large number of the best universities and colleges of the eastern part of the United States and a few universities in France have had a share in preparing these teachers.

In making out the French curriculum, it is important to remember that high school pupils are a cosmopolitan group. Imagine a foreign language department with courses offered which could meet the needs of each individual who desires to take it, just as there are in almost every department except the languages, and with teachers of the highest type of genius. Teachers have very rarely seen the possibilities of such a course, but the idea can at least be thought of, which is one of the steps to having such a course. In only seven of the sixty-seven schools is there a course offered for those who would probably not go to college, while two think the pupils get all the necessary training in the courses offered to cover the college entrance requirements. The majority of schools, fifty-two of the sixty-seven, offer two-year courses. Only the largest schools such as Danville, Petersburg, Alexandria, and the larger military academies offer a four-year course, six of the sixty-seven. Seven offer a three-year course and two a one-year course. One of these last two schools mentioned will not give French next year; the other will give two years next year to take the place of Spanish.

The high school curriculum is always influenced by college entrance requirements. To graduate from an accredited high school, credits in a foreign language are required; to meet college entrance requirements, two credits at the least of some foreign language are necessary. Although the specific aims of the teacher should not be exclusively to prepare students for college, it is sometimes the big aim back of all the other aims he or she may have in respect to foreign languages. Although only a small percentage of them ever go to college, their needs are provided for and the larger percentage of them are forced to take some foreign language whether it will ever be of any use to them or not.

Just what aims does the teacher have in teaching French to high school students? Some educators think it essential for general culture, mental discipline, and the worthy use of leisure. Others think French need not be included in the curriculum at public expense, if there are no important mistakes or shortcomings that result from the failure to master a foreign language. Professor Bobbitt asks this question, "What are the deficiencies in one's performance of the labors of his calling that result from the lack of knowledge of foreign languages?" There seems to be little justification for requiring everyone to take a foreign language, when viewed from the point of occupational efficiency. Courses must be offered, however, to meet the needs of those it will benefit. But cannot a French course be made as beneficial as other high school courses in preparing a boy or girl for life? Is not there something to be reaped from it although there is no direct use for it in post-school days? "Students have the right to ask, at the end of the year of work in any subject, that they carry away something that is of real importance to their intellectual development." French teachers should make an effort to give them some real, intellectual training in even so short a time as one year. "Service to the pupil determines the aim of instruction. Work must at all times be of value both to those who

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3Clement, op. cit., p. 216.
5Judd, Psychology of High School Subjects, p. 216.
are to leave the classroom and to those who will continue." Efforts are being made to do this with what objectives in mind?

The group of French teachers in giving their aims in teaching French to high school students give them in this order:
1. The acquisition of an easy reading knowledge (65)
2. An introduction to the life and literature of France (61)
3. The acquisition of credits for college entrance (49)
4. The acquisition of a conversational ability (41)
5. The foundation of an accomplishment that may become useful in business and travel (41)
6. Formal discipline of the mind (38)
7. Preparation for intellectual pursuits that require the ability to read French for information (34)
8. Personal enjoyment and growth.

After the French teacher has her aims clearly in mind, the next problem is to know just what methods to use to make her presentation of the subject matter meet these aims. Amid so many different methods and different ideas about how French should be taught to high school pupils, the best thing to do is to make a thorough study of the members of the class and use the methods which, it is believed, will bring about the best results.

In teaching pronunciation, of the sixty-seven teachers four use the imitation method, eighteen the phonetic method, and twenty-two a combination of the two methods. Some think phonetics are a waste of time in both high school and college work, while others think this method the most effective. One teacher states, "J’ai enseigné les phonétiques une fois mais j’ai trouvé qu’en le faisant on gaspille beaucoup de temps. L’imitation est la meilleure méthode que l’on pourrait employer. La soi-disante ‘Science de lire’ est une méthode dont les charlatans, qui ne sachent rien de la langue française, se servent.” The reason for the disuse of phonetics may be the fact that teachers have not had the opportunity of studying this method and do not feel capable of putting it across to the pupils in an interesting way. Others, because they have a good pronunciation themselves feel they will be more successful in teaching by the imitation method. The value of the phonetic method is being rapidly recognized, as is concluded from the fact that seventeen per cent of the sixty-seven teachers use it exclusively, while thirty-five per cent of them use it together with the imitation method. Again this question arises, Can an American teach French pronunciation as well as a Frenchman? Is the requisite for teaching French pronunciation a good pronunciation? In other countries the teaching of English is intrusted to natives of those countries. French is taught by Germans, Englishmen, and others with excellent results. A writer for the School Review makes this statement: “In Paris the teaching of English is intrusted to Frenchmen. In visiting eight of the largest French lycées I met but one native English teacher, and she was permitted to teach permanently only because she had been naturalized . . . . Pronunciation is not contagious; a little knowledge of the science of phonetics easily turns the balance against the native teacher. Then, too, the native teacher is generally entirely lacking in any scientific preparation for this work.” One of the special difficulties in teaching American children French pronunciation is the fact that French involves forms of reaction not present in the vernacular. “People who have in their vernacular a highly inflected and complex language can learn a simple language very much more readily than one who has as his native tongue such a simple language as English.”

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6Bahlsten, Leopold, The Teaching of Modern Languages.


8Judd, op. cit., p. 236.
for phonetics—the most effective teaching of new sounds to adults. Imitation is recognized as the best for children. A little book called *A Handbook of French Phonetics* by William A. Nitze and Ernest H. Wilkins is an especially good one, presenting a course in phonetics which takes into consideration the needs of the different teachers.

Another great problem of the teacher of French is the selection of the grammar to be used. In this selection the teacher must have in mind her purpose for teaching French, the proper method to be used for satisfactory results, and subject-matter in accordance with the comprehension of high school pupils. In the Virginia schools the method of teaching the fundamentals of grammar is determined largely by the texts recommended in the state course of study, namely, Frasier and Squair’s *New Complete French Grammar* and Fougeray’s *Mastery of French*, Book I. Only three out of sixty-four teachers make use of the direct method. This small number is probably due to the lack of illustrative material used in Realien. School authorities consider it justifiable to spend money for science equipment, but unnecessary for modern language instruction. Twenty-five schools use the grammar method; twenty-one the modified direct method; twelve a combination of the grammar and modified direct method; and three a combination of the direct and grammar methods. It is interesting to note that the grammar method and the modified direct method are equally popular.

As a means of assisting the pupils to build up a French vocabulary, classroom conversation is in great favor. Vocabulary drills are used by seventy-six per cent of the schools. A great many have contests and have the pupils make lists of words from their reading. A very few use games. Other ways mentioned by the teachers are project work, dictated English composition to be written in French, memorization, and participation in plays, and résumé on reading.

Only two of the sixty-seven schools do not make use of classroom conversation. Translation alone is used in these schools to develop the pupils’ ability to understand French. All but eleven schools give dictation. The amount of time given to it varies from five minutes a week to one hour a week, the average time being about twenty minutes once a week. Dramatizing, writing French, having fluent speakers visit the class, and reading aloud French stories are other methods used to train the pupils in the comprehension of French. Pupils of sixteen of the schools correspond with high school pupils of France. Almost all the teachers attempt to show the relation of the French language to the English. Some stress this, but others do not.

Table II

| Library Equipment of the French Departments of Sixty-Seven High Schools of Virginia |
|---------------------------------------------|------------------|------------------|
| Types of books                              | Number of schools | Number of books  |
| Dictionaries                                | 46               | 51               |
| Novels                                      | 25               | 267              |
| Histories                                   | 24               | 91               |
| Short stories                               | 2                | 10               |
| Plays                                       | 2                | 20               |
| Miscellaneous                               | 10               | 240              |
| No equipment                                | 20               |                  |
| Total number of schools                     | 67               |                  |
| Total number of books                       | 679              |                  |

The French departments are sadly in need of equipment to aid in successful teaching. Table II gives the number of books in the libraries of sixty-seven schools. Half of the libraries contain no French books or only one French dictionary. One fourth of them have a collection of novels and histories; a very few have one hundred books or more. Illustrative material is very scarce. Forty-two of the schools have maps of France, twenty-five song books, eighteen wall pictures of French scenery, architecture, etc., twenty-three French games, two souvenirs of France, three cross-word puzzles and six books of illustrated topics. Fourteen teachers have no way to get in touch with any such material. Only nine of these schools
have victrola records for pronunciation. Two of these nine think they are invaluable in teaching high school pupils. Thirty of the teachers subscribe to some French periodical, Le Petit Journal, Lectures Pour Tous, La Presse, Modern Language Journal, or L'Illustration.

The French teachers of the state, besides teaching French, have many duties. One of these is the sponsoring of French clubs. Very few, however, have the pleasure of doing this—only fourteen of the sixty-seven. Among the names given to these clubs are La Bonne Heure, Le Cercle Français, Songs and Recitations, Modern Language Club, La Société Française, and The French Circle. The majority of the teachers devote only two periods of the day to French, and therefore they must teach other subjects. The fact that seventy-four per cent of these other subjects are languages, either English, Latin or Spanish, is very interesting. The other twenty-six per cent have the teaching of French correlated with the teaching of almost every other high school subject.

Although Virginia schools are handicapped in the French departments, her schools, as all other secondary schools, are making progress in solving the many problems in regard to the modern language curriculum. Virginia, as all other states are doing, is watching the work of the committee meetings which represent the Modern Language Association of America and is awaiting and striving to find a satisfactory solution to the curriculum problems.

**BIBLIOGRAPHY**


B. Frances Sellers

---

**TEACHING ELECTRICITY AND MAGNETISM THROUGH THE RADIO**

IN THIS age most children have come in contact with radio and are more or less interested in it. Every good teacher wishes to present her subject through the medium of everyday experiences. Radio offers such a medium for the study of electricity and magnetism (a different topic to present in textbook fashion).

It is a simple matter through a class discussion of radio sets to get from the pupils a suggestion that they be allowed to make one. At this time the teacher should point out the difficulty of the problem and suggest that the pupils decide what principles of electricity and magnetism are necessary for understanding and constructing a radio set. This, of course, will be only a preliminary organization of material and will be gained by discussion as the children leaf through their physics books.

The teacher now puts concretely before the pupils the whole problem. In addition to building the radio, the teacher will offer other related problems for further work and credit.

The applications of the principles set up by the children to the building of the radio are constantly kept before them. This brings unification and organization of all the material.

This plan should not be considered final, but should be changed and modified to suit conditions arising in individual class rooms.

1. **What the pupils do**

A. The class determines to make a three-tube radio set.

1. They make a collection of books and magazine articles dealing with radio, for class use.

This preliminary plan for a unit in electricity and magnetism was a committee report in Ed. 410 for the spring quarter, 1926.
a. They elect a library committee to handle this material.
b. They make a card index of all material.
c. They make a bibliography of these books and magazines for the use of future classes.
d. They keep a notebook dictionary of radio words.
e. Members of the class read and report on the above articles.

2. They decide that each individual will keep a written account of his work. At the end of the project they will assemble the best of the material in one good note-book for the use of future classes.

3. They examine radio sets and make reports to the class.
   a. They elect a committee to interview radio dealers.
   b. They elect other committees to examine private sets.
   c. They determine the kind of set to build.

4. They collect the material and necessary parts for making the radio set.
   a. They list the necessary parts.
      (1) Two audio-frequency transformers, (2) three vacuum-tube sockets, (3) two .00035 microfarad variable condensers, (4) six binding posts, (5) one six-ohm rheostat, (6) one single-circuit jack, (7) one battery switch, (8) one grid-leak and condenser, (9) two sets of coils, (10) three standard vacuum tubes, (11) one 7x15 inch composition panel, (12) one plug, (13) one loud speaker or head-phone, (14) one base-board, 7x12 inches, (15) fixed condensers, (16) one cabinet to fit the panel, (17) A-(storage) and B-(dry) batteries, (18) aerial and ground equipment, and wire.
   b. They secure the material and make as many of the parts as they can.

5. They put the parts together, complete the set, and tune in. The pupils assist the teacher in judging the quality of workmanship on the set.

B. The pupils, with the help of the teacher, decide what principles of electricity and magnetism are necessary for the understanding and construction of the radio set.

1. To find the purpose of an electric battery in a radio set.
   a. They make a simple primary cell.
      (1) They explain the action producing the current.
      (2) They test the effect of the current produced on a small magnet, (magnetic effect).
   b. They cut open an old dry cell battery and explain its composition.
   c. They connect dry cell batteries in series and parallel and test the voltage of each.
   d. They examine a storage battery and explain its composition.

2. To determine the effect of the electric current passing from this battery through the vacuum tube.
   a. They explain the effect of an electric current passing through a small wire, using a flashlight to illustrate the principle, (heating effect).
   b. They examine and explain the instruments in the laboratory used for measuring an electric current.
   c. They explain the flow of electricity through a vacuum tube.
   d. They explain how the detector tube changes the electric waves from radio frequency to audio frequency.
3. To find how the head-phones operate to produce sound.
   a. They observe the magnetic field about a current.
   b. They make a simple electromagnet.
   c. They examine a typical telephone receiver or head-phones, find and explain the use of, (1) the permanent magnet, (2) the coil of wire, and (3) the diaphragm.

4. To understand why we have a rheostat in a radio set.
   a. They test the resistance of several different metals.
   b. They examine and explain the rheostat, and determine its use in the radio.

5. To learn the uses of the variable condenser.
   a. They explain electrostatic capacity by performing an experiment using the gold-leaf electroscope.
   b. They make a condenser (Leyden jar) and explain its use.
   c. They perform an experiment illustrating potential difference.
   d. They interview a radio dealer and find out the values of the various types of condensers.
   e. They determine what causes variation in capacity.
   f. They explain how the variable condenser aids in tuning.

6. To determine the principle involved in a variometer, variocoupler, and a transformer.
   a. They make an experiment illustrating magnetic induction and permeability.
   b. They illustrate electromagnetic induction.
   c. They explain the primary and secondary coils in electromagnetic induction.
   d. They interview a radio dealer and learn and report the value of the different variable coupling coils.
   e. They find out how the variocoupler adjusts or tunes the wave lengths.
   f. They explain how the variometer aids in tuning and strengthening the waves.
   g. They construct and explain a transformer.

C. The teacher suggests the following problems as a challenge to the pupils for additional work and credit.

1. Extra problems in electricity and magnetism.
   a. Connect dry cell batteries in such a way as to illustrate divided circuits or the shunt law.
   b. Explain fully the charging of a storage battery.
   c. Perform and write up an experiment showing the effect of an electric current on a copper sulphate solution (chemical effect).
      (1) Explain the process of electroplating.
   d. Connect an electric bell with batteries and explain how it works.
   e. Examine a fuse and explain its use.
   f. Graph the daily readings of the meter in your home for a week.
   g. Following an explanation in class of the electron theory, write a paper on the subject.
   h. Make a report on the electron or vacuum tube.

2. Problems on the motor and dynamo.
   a. Make a study of the construction and operation of the electric generator.
      (1) Find how the electric current is produced.
      (2) Measure with an ammeter the current generated by
turning a coil of wire within the magnetic field of a horseshoe magnet.

(3) Explain alternating currents.

b. Make a study of the construction and operation of the electric motor.

(1) Examine the electric motor and answer the following questions:
(a) How does the current run the motor?
(b) What is meant by cycle, period, and frequency?
(c) How do the electromagnets of the motor operate?
(d) What is the use of the commutator and brushes?
(e) What is the armature?
(f) What is the field magnet?

c. Write a paper discussing what you learned from your examination of the motor.

3. Problems on the telephone, telegraph, and wireless.

a. Make a study of the simple telephone system.

(1) Construct and explain a microphone transmitter.
(2) Diagram and explain a simple telephone system, consisting of two receivers and two wires.

b. Make a study of the telegraph system.

(1) Construct a simple telegraph sending and receiving set.

c. Make and explain an antenna as used in the radio.

d. Diagram and make a written explanation of your radio set.

II. What the Pupils Learn

A. Information gained.

1. They learn the fundamental principles of electricity and magnetism through radio problems.

a. The electric battery.

(1) They learn the use and structure of the dry cell, wet cell, and storage battery.
(2) They learn the advantages of series and parallel connections and divided circuits.

b. The electric current.

(1) They learn the magnetic, heating, and chemical effects of the electric current.
(2) They learn the method of measuring, insulating, and conducting a current.
(3) They learn the theory of electrons and the use of the vacuum tube.

c. Magnetism.

(1) They learn the principles and uses of the electromagnet and its application to the radio, especially as it is related to the headphones.
(2) They learn the principle of the magnetic field about natural, bar, and electromagnets.

d. Resistance.

(1) They learn the resistance of various metals and the construction and uses of the rheostat.

e. Capacity.

(1) They learn the uses and construction of condensers and the cause of variation in capacity.

f. Inductance.

(1) They learn the principle of induced currents.
(2) They learn the use and construction of transformers, variometers, and variable coupling coils.

2. They gain additional information
about electricity and magnetism through related problems set up by the teacher.

a. Electricity and magnetism.
   (1) They learn through experiments the process of electroplating.
   (2) They learn the underlying principle of the electric bell.
   (3) They learn the structure and use of the fuse.
   (4) They learn to read the electric meter.

b. Motor and dynamo.
   (1) They learn the construction and operation of an electric motor and dynamo.

c. Telephone, telegraph, and wireless.
   (1) They become familiar with the operation of a simple telephone and telegraph system, and the principles underlying these.
   (2) They learn the construction and operation of a radio receiving set.

B. Skills and habits strengthened.
1. They improve their ability to use books by:
   a. Collecting books and magazines dealing with the subject.
   b. Organizing the material in an accessible way.
   c. Doing extensive reading from these books.

2. They improve their ability to report intelligently on articles read by:
   a. Organizing the material in such a way as to get the idea over to the class through the report.

3. They gain skill in manipulation of apparatus by:
   a. Making some parts of the radio set.
   b. Assembling the radio.

4. They increase their ability to provide themselves with apparatus not found in the laboratory by:
   a. Making apparatus with as little expense as possible.
   b. Providing means for buying the necessary apparatus which they cannot make.

5. They develop the habit of intelligent observation by:
   a. Visiting radio dealers and examining commercial sets.
   b. Judging the work on their own set.

6. They develop the habit of independent effort by:
   a. Initiating and carrying out investigations connected with radio and related problems.

7. They improve their ability to work out a big problem by:
   a. Organizing and planning the work.
   b. Completing the job within a definite time.

C. Ideals, attitudes, and interests strengthened.
(For each habit or skill consciously developed, there is an accompanying deal.)
1. They develop group responsibility through committees which are responsible for interviewing radio dealers, examining completed sets, and reporting to the class.

2. They emphasize ideals of procedure in seeking truth; they learn through experiments that they must investigate and prove their statements rather than jump at conclusions.

3. They acquire a scientific inquisitiveness by learning through building the radio that there is a scientific cause for every effect produced by each part of the radio, and they are encouraged to ask “why” and “how,” and thus to develop independence of thought and the habit of verifying conclusions.
4. They may develop a desire for continued study in the field of science. If even one child, through the medium of radio, becomes so interested in scientific studies that he decides to make it his life work or pursue it as an avocation, the course has been worth while.

III. BIBLIOGRAPHY

A. For the Children:

B. For the Teacher:

C. Magazines:

P. Popular Science Monthly.

Sadie Williams
Isabel Sparrow

THE AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION IN ACTION

MEETING in its fiftieth anniversary conference October 4 to 9 at Atlantic City and at Philadelphia, the American Library Association provided an extensive program of lectures, addresses, and round-table discussions. The A. L. A. is ambitious to extend library service to the fifty million American citizens still without it.

Newbery Award to a Virginian

The John Newbery Medal for the most distinguished children’s book of the past year was awarded to Arthur Bowie Chrisman for his book of Chinese fairy and folk tales, Shen of the Sea. The presentation was made by Miss Nina C. Brotherton, of the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh, chairman of the Children’s Librarians Section of the American Library Association at the Fiftieth Anniversary Conference of the Association, at Atlantic City.

John Newbery was an eighteenth century publisher and bookseller, one of the first publishers to devote attention to children’s books. The Medal, named in his honor, is the gift of Frederic G. Melcher, of New York City, and only citizens or residents of the United States are eligible to receive it.

Hendrik VanLoon’s Story of Mankind received the first award of the Newbery Medal in 1922. Other books which have been honored are Hugh Lofting’s The Voyages of Dr. Dolittle, Charles Boardman Hawes’ The Dark Frigate, and Charles J. Finger’s Tales from Silver Lands.

Arthur Bowie Chrisman, who received
the medal at Atlantic City, is a young Virginian who has tried his hand at moving picture acting in Hollywood, and is now farming in the Blue Ridge. While living in a boarding house in Chinatown he became fast friends with a Chinese who told him many of the legends and stories contained in the volume, Shen of the Sea.

Because of their general interest for teachers, abstracts are here presented of a few of the addresses:

The School Library Looking Forward

The free public library movement is today where the movement for universal elementary schooling was in 1876 when the American Library Association was founded. In 1876 the elementary schools enrolled but eight out of thirteen million children then of school age, leaving hundreds of thousands each year to swell the ghastly army of illiterates. The library today provides local service for only fifty-five per cent of the total population and for only seventeen per cent of the rural population. A nation which has struggled a century for mass schooling and universal literacy will spend a second century in the struggle for mass culture and universal education. We shall see the American free library during the years ahead as much a part of every community as the public school is today.

The school library must be developed as an aid to learning and a training agency for public library use. It will require forty thousand trained school librarians to give this service for the schools of the United States, providing one librarian for every twenty teachers.

Among the problems facing the school library is the wide circulation of obscene and trashy literature among children of school age. The newsstands of many cities literally reek with magazines and books that thrive on the morbidity of youth. Periodicals which would be excluded from the mails are sent by express and reach huge circulation. The distribution of such material should be prohibited by city, state, and national law. The suppression of this printed filth has no connection with freedom of the press. The librarian should always stand for freedom of the press, but he shares with parent and teacher the obligation to protect youth from commercialized exploitation.—Joy Elmer Morgan, editor of the Journal of the National Education Association.

The Library and the Child

Children are looked upon generally in two ways—simply as adults of a smaller size or as an entirely different order of being. In other words, we understand children very indifferently. The library of today is only in name the library of yesterday. It would in some ways be better if the modern library had a different name which would prevent people from clinging to the old idea of a mausoleum of books rather than active, live organisms. What children learn from libraries is learned because they are interested.

Interest is a prime factor in all education, a fact often overlooked by leaders in formal education. The voluntary character of the library is to be cherished by librarians. It is the library's chief point of vantage in dealing with children. There is a tendency today among some librarians to over-emphasize formal academic methods in applying them to the library.

The criticisms of children's work in libraries today revolves itself principally around two points—namely that the library can not reach all the children and might better devote itself to adults and that the treatment of children by libraries is largely hysterical and not based on sound pedagogical principles. The weakness of these criticisms is easily refuted, but cannot be stated in this brief abstract, for in the main we are on the right track in our system of children's work in libraries:

"It is only by regarding humanity as a whole, as a phenomenon of flux and change, and by looking at the child in particular as a changing group that mirrors in little the greater tidal surge of the race—that we can
obtain a foothold from which to treat adequately this problem of the child and his education. The library has stretched out its hand and caught a twig. Thus steadied, its view, in one or two respects, is saner, as we librarians love to think, than that of any other institution that deals with this problem of problems."—Arthur E. Bostwick, librarian of the St. Louis Public Library.

The Effect of the Dalton Plan

The effect of the Dalton Plan on the organization of our school library was immediate and compelling. The first day that freedom to move was given to our pupils, the library was filled to overflowing. It was imperatively necessary at once, to add another librarian to the force. Today, the whole time of two librarians and of a clerk is necessary in order to give required library service to a pupil enrollment that formerly was cared for in a leisurely way by one librarian.

Out of the needs of the pupils, thrown into high relief by the Dalton Plan, was evolved a much more efficient scheme for training them in the use of library facilities than that previously in use. Each subject teacher nowadays definitely helps her pupils, if they need it, not only in how to use the table of contents, the index, and how to take notes, but often brings her class to the library, there to learn how to use the card catalogue and the Reader's Guide in her subject. In addition, the librarians prepare assignments and give instruction in classification, use of the card catalogue reference books, Reader's Guide, in the time allotted to English, to Social Science, and to Clerical Practice. Each pupil is assigned a problem requiring her to locate books on the shelves as well as to find magazine articles on definite topics. Credit is given and graphs are not signed in these subjects unless the library technique is satisfactory.

In spite of the fact that many teachers insist upon segregating much-used reference books into their class rooms, the number of library readers increases by leaps and bounds. An enrollment of 2,000, before we were daltonized, spelled 37,485 library readers per year. The first year afterwards the number of readers increased to 104,510, and the next to 114,018. The increase in actual readers is even greater than the figures indicate, for, after the school was daltonized, we found it necessary to keep out of the library mere study hall overflow and those who wished to use the room to read ordinary textbooks.—Mrs. Lucy L. W. Wilson, principal of the South Philadelphia High School.

The Place of Library Work With Children in the Training Class Curriculum

The value of any unit of instruction, and the amount of time to be devoted to it, are determined by the function of that unit and the need for it in the local library. In a general training course, there is no time for specialization along any particular line. No one unit should be superior or more important than another, but all should be correlated, so that the result may be a well balanced whole. The basis of selection must rest upon local use and need.

Of the one hundred hours recommended for book evaluation, including children's books, on the curriculum suggested by the Board of Education for Librarianship, this paper makes a plea for thirty hours of this time to be devoted to children's books and reading, and problems concerned with library work with children. The purpose of the course in library work with children is to acquaint the students with the aids and principles which underlie the selection of children's books in a public library; to give an introduction to children's literature; and to present information which will give the student an intelligent comprehension of the scope and the operation of different phases of work with children in the local library. As outlined, in a thirty-hour course, six lectures are to be devoted to administration and extension, of which work with schools is a component part, eighteen lectures to children's literature, and six to story-telling.
All these lectures are to be supplemented by problems and projects.
In the short course on Administration of children's work, only important phases can be included, such as the general scope of the work, within and without the walls; cooperation with civic agencies, work with schools, and problems of discipline and policy.

The course in literature should be presented not from the standpoint of purchase or acquisition, but from the standpoint of recommendation to the juvenile patrons of the library and to persons interested in bringing children into contact with good books and reading.

The main purpose of the course in storytelling is to discover talent, and there should be enough work to make this discovery sure.

To sum up, we should make this unit of instruction, that is, work with children, strong enough in our training class curriculum to train students for active elementary service in children's work.—Carrie E. Scott, of the Indianapolis Public Library.

THE LEE HIGHWAY

Our school is situated on the Lee Highway so that the children are interested in the steady stream of foreign cars past our door. On learning that our highway is one of the Main Streets of the Nation, we decided to study it.

I. What the Children Did
A. They made a chart showing car license plates seen on the highway.
B. They made an observation of the highway to learn:
   1. How the highway is drained.
   2. How it is kept free from mud.
C. They set up the following problems:
   1. Why it is called the Lee Highway.
   2. Why so many tourists choose this road as a pleasure trail.
   3. What is carried to us and from us over the highway.
   4. Why it is located where it is:
      (a) Why it follows the old buffalo trails.
      (b) Why it avoids sharp curves.
D. They used outline maps to show the location of the highway by:
   1. Coloring the states crossed by the highway.
   2. Marking in the highway from Washington, D. C., to San Francisco, Cal., and indicating important cities located on it.
E. They kept a record of their study in a book for which they:
   1. Wrote to cities along the highway for views and reading matter.
   2. Collected local pictures.
   3. Wrote descriptive paragraphs explaining the local views.

II. Information Gained
A. Geography and History of the Highway:
   1. The Lee Highway is named in honor of Robert E. Lee. This is most appropriate since it passes through Lexington, Va., where he worked and where he is buried.
   2. Abraham Lincoln's father used this route when he migrated to Kentucky.
   3. The section of the highway from New Market to Staunton, Va., was formerly a part of the old Valley Turnpike. During the Civil War General Jackson marched his soldiers over this pike.
   4. The highway extends from Washington, D. C., to San Francisco, Cal., and crosses the following states: Virginia, Tennessee, Alabama, Mississippi, Arkansas, Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, California.
   5. It passes near a great many places of interest to tourists. Among these are: Caverns of the Shenandoah Valley, Natural Bridge in Virginia, Hermitage in Tennessee,
Muscle Shoals in Alabama, De Sota's Mound at Memphis, Tenn., and the Grand Canyons of Colorado.

B. About Roadmaking:
1. The first highways were laid out along the line where traveling was easiest, and so far as possible, they are still built that way.
2. The south slope of a mountain being clear of snow longest, this should be chosen for a road whenever possible.
3. The road in front of our school is a rock surfaced, or macadamized road. Brick, asphalt, concrete, and stone are important materials used in road-making.
4. The states help in building roads by issuing bonds, or by taxation. Virginia raises a great part of her money for road-making by a gasoline tax and is opposed to bond issues for such purposes.

III. Abilities Selected for Emphasis

A. In the Use of Books:
1. To read maps, diagrams, and charts in the geography text
2. To use reference books in selecting suitable material for reports and discussions

B. In Writing and Speaking:
1. To write descriptive paragraphs.
2. To write business letters to the Chambers of Commerce of different cities to secure pictures.
3. To give oral reports in clear cut sentences.

IV. Habits and Attitudes Fostered

A. Habits of attention were fostered by:
1. Observing the tourists' license plates.
2. Observing the products hauled by the trucks.
3. Watching magazines for pictures for their books.

B. Habits of self-reliance were taught by:
1. Having the pupils write their own letters to the various Chambers of Commerce.
2. Having each arrange his or her own book.

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KATIE LEE ROLSTON

NATURE STUDY IN THE PRIMARY GRADES

NATURE-STUDY is practically a new subject which has been added to our school curriculum. It is not merely a study of nature, as the term seems to imply. Nor is it a study of the facts of science. Its object is to give the child a sympathetic attitude toward the out-of-doors for the purpose of increasing in him the joy of living, which might enable him to live a more worth-while life.

In the schools today we are attempting to instill in him these principles. Nature-study receives almost the same amount of emphasis as do the other subjects of the curriculum. It is so correlated with the other subject matter that the plan of all the work is based on the child's environment. Lessons in reading, spelling, and arithmetic may be suggested by some phase of nature; songs and stories may be taught; bases for drawing and painting may be illustrated.

When the children are in the school room
busy with their books, Nature outside is doing a wonderful work. Under the children’s eyes changes are taking place, and naturally their interests are outside with Nature. With this interest thus directed toward Nature it is now the teacher’s opportunity to so relate the schoolroom activity with Nature that the children will be interested. By introducing Nature-study into the daily program of the schoolroom as a necessary subject and not as an extra subject added to an already over-crowded curriculum, it will be a help to the teacher in her work in her school room. For instance, during the morning period spring flowers may be introduced in the form of informal conversation and discussion. During the day it may be used as a basis for reading, for language work, and as a subject for study during the art period. The work of the school is enriched when Nature-study can be substituted for textbooks.

Many say that in real Nature-study the project method has always been used. It is true that the subject matter has been taken from the child’s interests, and in so far as these interests were true to the child’s nature the activities of Nature-study were motivated from within the child. But in the project method, which we are beginning to use at present, there is a change from the old method. In the past the emphasis was placed on the observation of the material or of the representatives of the materials. In the present project method the emphasis is on the activity instead. The child studies the material through the actual handling and work with it.

In many places Nature-study is not a part of the curriculum, yet in other places it has greatly succeeded in doing beneficial work. The climate of California has been a help in the work done in Nature-study. The interest has steadily grown. Much actual work is done by California school children. Gardens are planted, excursions are taken, and the children thus have first-hand knowledge.

St. Louis is also succeeding in its work. William T. Harris was the first to start Nature-study in primary education in that vicinity; the interest has been continued largely through the work of J. A. Drushel, head of the biological department of Harris Teachers College. In St. Louis the museum has been a useful feature in the system. Materials are borrowed which might be of use to the children in illustration of their work in Nature-study.

One other distinctive feature of the work done in St. Louis is the limitation put on the number of topics studied in each grade. One or two main topics are chosen, then they are studied in detail. For instance, in one grade mammals might be studied for the first half-year. Here ten animals are selected from the zoo and studied. In the second half of the year there may be a study of birds. Birds of the city are selected and studied. Then in other grades certain subjects are chosen and studied in the same manner. In the first six grades the work is planned “to acquaint the child with the more common forms of life about him, birds, mammals, plants, and insects.” The teacher guides the child’s observation and study of the specimen and discusses with him what he has learned.

In other places notable work has also been done, especially in the Francis W. Parker School in Chicago (the elementary school of the University of Chicago), and in the rural schools of New York State. In all these places emphasis is put on the actual handling of the material, thereby enabling the children to acquire first-hand knowledge.

Projects in Nature-study planned with

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4 Public School Messenger of St. Louis (Jan., 1920), p. 4.
special reference to the appropriate seasons of the year and to the needs and conditions of the grades of the schools have been worked out by experienced persons. These plans are published by various states, the Bureau of Education, and many schools which aim to help the teachers of the grades, in their teaching of Nature-study, to get the very best results from the pupils.

Before Nature-study was realized to be so important a subject for study, President Eliot of Harvard, in 1907, said, "To my thinking, the real reason for the unsatisfactory condition of Nature-study in American schools in general is that it is practically impossible in many places to find teachers who are competent to direct the study in an intelligent manner." At about this time many normal schools introduced into their curricula courses in Nature-study. But this subject was an elective and only in a few schools did it rank with the other courses offered. Of the teachers who taught Nature-study in the public schools one out of every fifty had had training. In California, Missouri, and New York the best results in Nature-study were obtained. After an investigation was made it was found that the majority of the normal schools and colleges of these states required Nature-study, especially of the elementary teachers.

The most helpful factor in awakening the United States to its present interest in Nature-study was the establishment of the Nature-Study Review. This magazine was started in 1905 by Maurice A. Biglow, Professor of Biology, Teachers College, Columbia University. The editorial committee was composed of many distinguished educators from well known colleges, and men who had had experience in Nature-study work. The magazine was devoted primarily to scientific studies of nature in elementary schools. This magazine helped the Nature-study movement move forward. Investigations were made and articles were published which gave the public a clearer idea of the subject.

Through investigations made by the Nature-Study Review there was found to be a great need for a course of study in Nature-study for the different grades. The work of one grade often overlapped that of another. Courses of study were soon introduced in the various states. When compared they were found to be very similar. Their primary aim was to create in the child an interest in nature and sympathy for objects of nature. The second aim was to teach the child how to investigate and work out problems so that in later life he might continue to do so. The subject matter was adapted to the interests and abilities of the children of the different grades. The studies were so arranged that the children might study the objects of their immediate surroundings.

A source of much work in the development of Nature-study is Cornell University. During the year 1891-93 there was a period of agricultural depression in New York State. Various charity organizations of New York City were called on to help the people of the rural districts. After a study of the situation it was found that the people were not interested in farming in such a way that they might make a success.

A plan was adopted by which the school children might be taught interesting phases of life on the farm. As all children love flowers, they began with a study of flowers. Soon the children began to discover that the common plants of the garden had life histories also. By teaching Nature-study as a preliminary for agriculture, the proper attitude for agriculture was established. An intelligent interest of the whole environment was awakened. The boys and girls in school studied all members of nature life, birds, trees, soils, and weather.

In 1894 an appropriation of $8,000 was

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secured for the Cornell College of Agriculture to carry on this work. Leaflets were issued containing articles which might help the teacher in her work with the children. The work of Cornell University has gone on each year. Besides the work done at the University, the Nature-study idea has extended through teachers’ institutes, state summer schools, through publications, and correspondence courses.

It was about the beginning of the last quarter of the past century when our present Nature-study was first seriously introduced into our primary schools. At first this movement was not received with much enthusiasm. The average person did not aim to promote the child’s individual development and to aid him to acquire knowledge necessary for everyday life. His aim was to teach the child the fundamentals of reading, writing, and arithmetic along with some training in morals, religion, and behavior. People believed that by acquiring these fundamentals one was able to lead a most profitable life.

Perhaps in America the one who has done more than anyone in the development of Nature-study in the primary grades is Wilbur S. Jackman. He attempted to adapt Nature-study to child-nature. He believed that the child wanted not to examine one object at a specific time, but to examine everything around him all the time. For example, in the autumn the preparation of animal and plant life for the coming cold weather was the center of attention. There might be studied the causes of the migration of birds, the thickening of fur on fur-bearing animals, and the withdrawal of the fishes and tadpoles to crevices in the bottom of rivers and ponds. These subjects would be of most interest to children, and, while they were learning these, other subjects might be brought in. Furthermore, it seemed natural for the child to study individuals rather than types.

The advanced scientist classified everything. But to the child it mattered not whether his work was classified or not. He studied the individual, and the relations of that individual to the environment.

Mr. Jackman believed that observation should play a large part in the study of Nature, but not that alone. Through observation along with the direct contact with Nature the child learns to reason. There comes to him independence of thought, self-reliance, and general strength of character. Through actual contact with Nature keen desire for self-expression arises. According to Mr. Jackman, the main object in Nature-study is to give the child an understanding of his environment—an understanding of the life of which he forms a part.

Although Nature-study is a recent movement in the United States, we may go back many centuries to find the beginning of this movement in the form of object teaching. As early as 1592 we find Comenius teaching his pupils about their environment. He believed that education in Nature-study should begin during infancy, the child, during his first six years, acquainting himself with the objects of Nature about him, such as animals, stones, and plants. He should begin with his immediate surroundings, then branch out to other environments.

Rousseau’s ideas were similar to those of Comenius. He said the child should study always the thing itself, except when it was impossible to secure the actual thing. The sign might take away the attention of the child, and make him forget the thing it represented.

It was perhaps Pestalozzi, the founder of our modern elementary school, who did more than anyone else to put object teaching on a scientific basis. Even so early a thinker as he realized that man is merely a product of Nature and that his whole life is

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based on his natural environment. He believed that the whole aim of primary education is to fix the child’s attention, to sharpen and exercise his judgment, and to lift his ideas to higher ones. By beginning with Nature-study he thought these ideals might be accomplished.

Mary Elizabeth Johnson

**IS YOUR SON OR DAUGHTER GOING TO COLLEGE?**

All young America is headed for college! Rich or poor, fit or unfit, from the cities and the farms, all the youth of the country is marching along the road that leads to the university. By public highways and private byways, they are pressing on, their eyes on the light of learning ahead. Each one, his eager parents urging him forward, sees in this higher education the sure symbol of success and happiness.

If only it were as easy as that! If only one might arrive at the land of heart’s desire by following so plain a path!

But life is not like that. However much we may prate of all men being born equal, we know that it is not true nor will it be so long as each of us is the sum total of the dominant traits of each of a varied stream of ancestors stretching in ever-increasing number back to infinity. Until God or science, or God directing science, or whatever we choose to believe, has devised means by which we may all start life with an equal natural equipment, human beings cannot all attain the heights by the same route. To some it is given to work out their life’s happiness with their brains, to others with their brawn; to some to reach the goal through the things of the mind, to others through their hands or human contacts. To some, college will be the biggest factor in their success; to others it will be no less than a real tragedy.

The colleges have much to give. There is also much that they cannot give. To simplify the discussion of what the colleges have, and have not, to offer the student, it is necessary to divide them into two general classes, those which specialize in preparing students for their life work, and those which place the emphasis on the cultural side, giving a foundation and a background rather than a definite training for life. This leaves out of the picture, for the moment, the large number of colleges which are doing both things.

The strictly vocational colleges can take boys and girls who know what profession they want to follow and train them for that profession. They can prepare a man to be a farmer or an engineer, or a girl to be a librarian or a secretary or a dietician.

The great advantage that a vocational college has over the strictly cultural college is that its students come to it with a definite objective. If a normally intelligent boy wants to become an engineer and goes to a good engineering college, he will leave it an engineer; if he wishes to become a pharmacist, he can go to a college which will make him one. Whether he be a good or a bad or an indifferent engineer or pharmacist depends entirely on himself.

The chief thing that the cultural college can give is not an end but a means to an end; it does not turn out a finished product, but a product capable of finishing itself. It can lay the foundation, and give the tools with which to build the structure of life upon it. It should give him a new appreciation of beauty and of the intellectual and spiritual side of life, the things that we commonly call "culture." But there is much that the college cannot accomplish.

It can give a student facts, but they are useless unless at the same time he has learned to go to the sources and to seek out his own facts; it can give him a good foundation of general knowledge, but this is useless unless she has learned at the same time not to accept knowledge unquestioningly, unless he has learned to do his own thinking, unless he has learned a sense of value.
Those who are going to college should be sure that they are properly equipped for it physically, emotionally, and mentally. If a student has not the physical stamina or the emotional stability to stand up under the strain of the life and work of a college, he should find some other place or occupation within his limitations. Or if he has not the type of mentality that will enable him to keep up with the work without constant struggle and misery, he should not go. Four years of going to lectures that go in one ear and out the other because there is nothing to stop them, contributes nothing to a person's happiness or equipment. No matter how much one may want to go to college because of the social life or the athletics or other similar secondary reasons, he must remember that a certain amount of academic work is necessary. If he does not intend, in the words of many students, "to let his academic work interfere with his college course," he had better stay at home.

The records of the secondary schools, the opinion of teachers, mental tests, all help to indicate those who should not go to college, even if they or their families lack the wisdom to see it. The problem is less to ascertain who they are than to educate their parents and their own ambition not to force them into a life for which they are unsuited, because of some fetish that a college degree is necessary to success, the lack of it a social stigma.

While there are not, nor can be any hard and fast rules about the age at which a student should enter college, he is likely to get more out of it if he is not too young. It is so easy, and so advantageous physically and mentally, to put in an extra year in travel or outdoor life or even in the business world, that it is better for the young student to do so, if the economic factor does not press him on. Physical and spiritual and social maturity are just as important for complete oneness with the group as intellectual maturity, and that sense of unity, as well as the sense of values that increases with years, are essential to a full appreciation of the opportunities of college.

A prominent alumnus of one of our finest colleges says that he has obtained his education since he left college; that he did not realize until his senior year that he had taken all the wrong courses, had not known what he wanted to get out of college or what there was to get; that when he left he had just reached the mental state where he should have been when he entered.

The colleges realize this situation and many of them are doing much to better it. Some of them now have freshmen courses which train the student in thinking and adjust him to the serious purposes of the university as distinguished from those of the high school; they give him a bird's-eye view over all the fields of learning; they give him glimpses of branches of knowledge that he might otherwise never know existed until too late to take advantage of them. Thus he has a general familiarity with them whether he pursue them further or not.

The difficulty is that most students lacking this help, and many of them even with it, do not know what they want to do. Many of them have not made a choice even when they leave college. Several years ago the Harvard Crimson carried an editorial which said:

"Barring those who have post-graduate plans for the Law, Engineering, or Medical Schools, it is astonishing how few members of 1921 know what they are going to do. Many intend to drift through the summer months, perhaps in travel abroad, guided by the hope that 'something will turn up.' Others have vague ideas about starting 'on the street' usually for lack of a better notion as to what they are qualified to undertake. Still more expect to ask the 'old man' for a job in his office until they can decide what their life-work shall be. But the man who has a definite thought as to his future occupation is hard to find."

It is a splendid thing for a student if he be one of the rare ones who knows early in
his college courses what he means to do when he gets out so that he can plan his course accordingly. If he changes his mind, he will at least have learned his unfitness for, or his lack of interest in the thing before it is too late; if his interest continue, he will have the advantage of having directed his education toward the right goal.

Many colleges make contacts with the incoming students through faculty advisers. The most successful advisers are those found in a few colleges who are there only for that purpose and who are chosen for their fitness for that job alone. They mean much to groping, ambitious youth.

One of the first things that many students have to consider in making a choice of college is the expense. But let it be said here and now that, unless he has some one dependent on him, no American boy or girl need give up the idea of college because of poverty. Nor is his choice very limited because of that, except for consideration of distance.

The majority of colleges make provision for needy students to earn part of their board and tuition during the term; most of them have scholarships available for exceptional students who need them; many of them have loan funds which can be paid back after graduation; and our summer camps and hotels are full of students earning, not only their board and keep for the vacation, but a substantial sum toward the winter’s expense as well, as councillors, waiters, clerks, telephone operators, etc.

The American Association of University Women has compiled a set of statistics of the expenses at eighty-five colleges for women, including some of the coeducational institutions. They show that the catalogue expense, that is, the cost of board, tuition, and fees, varies from $257 to $1,270; the extra-catalogue expenses, which include books and supplies, dues, and contributions, vary from $5.00 to $270; recreation varies from nothing at all to $243.

The highest catalogue expenses are at the large eastern private colleges, Bryn Mawr, Wells, Columbia, Wellesley, Vassar, Smith, Radcliffe, and Mt. Holyoke; the lowest are from the University of Nevada, the University of Kentucky, Miami University, Central Wesleyan, Millsaps College, and James-town College, all small institutions.

The extra-catalogue expenses are particularly high at the co-educational colleges, Stanford University leading, followed by the University of Kansas, Baylor University, Columbia and Washington University. These expenses are lowest at the small religious colleges such as Agnes Scott College and Penn College.

In none of the figures given has allowance been made for their reduction by scholarships and students’ work. Not only is there ample provision in this democracy for the poor but ambitious youth to get all the education he wants, but in no institution of learning is “working one’s way” an academic handicap or a social stigma.

A recent report of an organization for helping students to help themselves, in a large eastern college for women, mentions with pride that, among the sixty-eight girls to whom loans and gifts were made during the year, there were five members of the Phi Beta Kappa Society, whose key is the badge of the highest scholarship, and twenty-five other honor students; the majority of the rest had high scholarship records. Ten of them held important executive offices such as class or organization president, and others were leaders in all sorts of activities, social, athletic, and intellectual.

Moreover, strange as it may seem, and hard on the private schools as it may be, college records show unmistakably that the average record of students who come from the public schools is higher than that of the pupils who come from the private schools.

Another false idea on which people base a choice is one formed largely by recent fiction. It is that large colleges, or colleges located in large cities are conducive to depravity and vice among the students. This
is no truer of large places than of any other places where youth gathers. Most young people are innately good, and more of them at that age are cherishing secret good thoughts and high ambitions than low thoughts and desires. If a parent has brought his child up to think and to do right and to have the will power to do it against odds, he need not worry about him anywhere. If he has not so trained him, then his chances of keeping straight, of having the good brought out in him instead of the bad, are as good in a large place as in a small one.

There are other reasons on which a choice of a college is made, which should not enter into the question unless other things are equal. Boys and girls choose their Alma Mater because father or mother or some other relative went there. But the child may be totally unlike the parent, or the college may have changed since the parent’s day, or, what is worse, stood still. Or young people choose an institution because their friends go there, which, in some cases, is the best of reasons for not going. There is nothing so narrowing as to have always the same viewpoint, to see always the same people.

No man is educated who knows but one side of a question. Education means well rounded development, a broad vision. Moreover, a student is much more likely to get into the general life of the college if he does not enter it with a ready made circle of friends.

Often a boy chooses a college because it has a famous football team.

The choice of a college must be made on things larger, more important, more related to a boy or girl’s life than these.

If a youth has spent his whole life in a small community it is well for him to spend his student years in or near a large city where he will have such cultural advantages as access to music and art and outside lectures.

One of the most important questions from the point of view of the happiness of the individual is his fitness for the large or the small college. For the student whose outlook has been the narrow one of a small community, but who has sufficient self-confidence to take his place in a larger circle, the large group is advisable. It makes him see himself in relation to many people.

The student of a retiring, studious nature is better off in a small college. He has better opportunities there for the companionship with the faculty which a boy or girl of that type craves, and which means much to his intellectual development.

American youth realizes its strength, its responsibilities, its opportunities. Despite all the talk about flapperism and demoralization among the young people, never before have such large numbers of them taken themselves and life so seriously; never before have so many of them sought all the education that they could get, for that purpose.—Rita S. Halle, in McCall’s Magazine.

**DISCIPLINE**

*Characterized*

**D**iscipline is the automatic inhibition of unsocial stimuli habituated by intelligent choosing. It is inseparably interwoven and knit into virile teaching, undergirded by personal charm, most conspicuous by its absence, most present where least thought of, most effective where child and teacher are of one mind and of one purpose.

**Interest**

Disorder varies inversely with interest. Attention, effort, and industry are its antidotes. A fascinating problem is the panacea for the ills of a schoolroom. When questions, answers, and comments fly like popping corn, disorder dares not intrude. An intolerance of slipshod efforts, a passion
for work that will lead children to undertake a hard task with a willing smile and cheerful confidence, teaching that cuts to the heart of the truth, sans verbalism, sans formalism, sans all pretence, a knowledge of the fact in the lesson and the law in the mind, these form the only basis for pupil control. We conjure too much with words and think too little of ideas. Children are quick to recognize halting, uncertain efforts, and the lost confidence creates social dynamite.

**Work**

The idler becomes a menace because he cannot or will not do his work. Misbehavior is misdirected energy. The cure is utilization, not repression; prevention, not palliation; teaching, not scolding. Make assignments attractive and concrete. Assure comprehension. Here the virtue lies. The good child is frequently too stupid to be bad, and the bad child too intelligent to be duped. Both require differential but valid tasks, meaningful and significant.

**Test**

A real test of discipline is the conduct of the room when outside restraint is removed and self-control depends wholly upon the sanction of the group. When the chair at the desk is empty, will the blinds be adjusted, pencils sharpened, work collected, books distributed, and lessons prepared with perfect accord? Will the spirit of the teacher carry on in her absence? Is the class actuated by resolute endeavor to attain? Is it coercion or choice?

**Introspection**

The control of this seething welter of fidgeting, willful, restless life must not be taken lightly. Complete mastery at times seems impossible. One who is introspective, who analyzes her own acts and the conduct of the children to see casual relations, will dominate the most difficult situation. Some may be born to rule—but all can acquire the art. By taking thought we can add cubits to our height. Lack of tact, unprepossessing appearance, an irritating voice, offensive mannerisms, nervousness, are fatal to school management. Forethought is the remedy. A battle well planned is half won. Make a good start, and consistent conduct will carry on.

**The Still Small Voice**

Constant fault-finding produces calloused feelings. See all things, but fuss over few. The habit of living on the ragged edge of exhaustion through being wrought up over trifles leaves no reserve force to cope with overwhelming difficulties in a crisis. Half measures are tragic and intermittent exploitations are suicidal, but on occasions splintered lighting will clear the atmosphere, then repair the breach by effective teaching. Constant nagging titillates the wound. Solace lies in forgetting unhappiness. Satisfy the longing that throbs in every soul for adroit suasion. A quiet, personal interview will secure a sympathetic response and get the estranged pupil back into good fellowship, while public denunciation chances heroic resistance.

**Comradeship**

Sympathetic humor that exposes the ridiculous in an incongruous situation will turn the tide and array the class with the teacher. Radiant good cheer is winsome, is infectious; there is a tonic and inspiration in a smile. The hate that ridicule breeds prohibits that trenchant weapon, and if used in case of emergency, a balm must be found for the hurt. A hearty good laugh will dissipate the distemper and restore the unity. Group disapproval works with a vengeance. Not the martinet, not the taskmaster, but the comrade is the province of the teacher.

**Appearance**

At its worst, personality may be an object lesson of spineless inanity, at its best a dynamic power that will quicken every latent possibility to action. Not by frowning, not by scolding, not by severity, can gov-
ering control be wrought. Strength lies neither in height nor in heft. The crook of the arm, the plant of the feet, the challenge in the voice, the glint of the eye, electrify with attention. Here is stock in trade.

Position
Animation is the secret of art. Enthusiasm covers a multitude of sins. Statuesque posture, erect and alert, the artist's "arrested motion," gives the force of a pile-driver to whatever position the teacher assumes. Sit or stand. Whichever radiates the most vigor and zeal and animation—that do.

Assurance
The things we fear come to pass. The teacher who is afraid of discipline faces disaster. It is a bugaboo to frighten the weak. Think obedience, expect it, command it, look the part, play up to it. Irradiate the authority with which you speak. The loud voice, the nervous manner, the snapping of fingers, the rapping on the desk, the tapping of a bell, the clapping of hands, are the concomitants of weakness and fear. They advertise the fact, they create more confusion than they quell.

Serenity
A display of temper, a parade of injured personality, lowers the teacher to the plane of the pupil and opens the way to contemptuous familiarity. Children are hero-worshipers, but woe to a shattered idol. There is no teacher but feels keenly at times the insufferable stupidity of children, their incomprehensible blindness to their own welfare, and she is cut to the quick by their indifference to her efforts, but an unruffled serenity, unshaken faith in childhood must be maintained. Discipline that does violence to kindly feeling or that leaves the pupil in an insolent state of mind does more damage than good.

Perspicuity
A discernment that grasps the intricacies of a problem as it is presented and intu-
individual's good against his best has validity. School work can be made attractive. Why not put it on its own merits?

Rational Behavior

When the gravity of thought life centers on remote benefit, when a pupil senses that school rule is neither the whim, nor caprice of the teacher, but a provision for his future well being, that the school is an integral part of this world of law and order, then rational behavior is assured. When rules and commands have their impact upon the inner consciousness, when individual preferences are subordinated to general welfare, when the appeal of the evanescent present gives way to the dream of ultimate good—then is banished from the schoolroom forever this hoary Nemesis of the fearful and inefficient.—Will D. Anderson, in The Chicago Schools Journal.

EYESIGHT CONSERVATION

To stimulate interest in the conservation of vision, now recognized as of paramount importance, the Eye Sight Conservation Council of America, Times Building, New York City, has issued a publication containing a wealth of material for lectures.

The publication, styled “Bulletin 5,” is addressed chiefly to those who have the opportunity to spread the gospel of eye care. “Lantern Slides and Lecture Material on Eyesight Conservation” is the title which describes the content.

The need for conservation of vision is asserted in a carefully introduction which outlines a serious existing situation, its causes, and the necessity for organized action. Facts are presented to show that the eyesight of the American people is a source of moral and physical weakness. Modern life is pictured as imposing new burdens upon the eyes, yet unable to meet these exacting demands. While the discouraging factors are frankly pointed out, the point of view of the publication is conservative, and even optimistic.

“It need not be concluded that our eyes are getting alarmingly worse—they probably always have been—but we must learn how to use them and not misuse and abuse them,” it is declared.

It is a fact, according to this publication, that a large proportion of the human race have defective vision, most of which is remedial. A lack of knowledge of the prevalence of this condition and lack of proper eye care are, it is stated, in a large measure responsible for much suffering and inefficiency.

How to carry the message of eye care through protection, correction, and proper lighting to the masses is a problem which the Eye Sight Conservation Council of America through “Bulletin 5” has greatly simplified for teachers, health workers, and members of other professions who by vocation or training are in a position to render a helpful service to society by delivering lectures before groups or pupils, teachers and parents, before civic clubs, and kindred organizations.

After showing that millions of school children are at a disadvantage because of poor eyesight and that sight is an important factor in accident prevention, the publication stresses the value of good illumination, and groups other facts as persuasive arguments for eyesight conservation.

The physiology of the eye is treated so clearly that the lecturer will have no difficulty in conveying the fundamentals to an audience. Optics are taken up at considerable length. The publication is profusely illustrated throughout. There are illustrations of 145 lantern slides, each accompanied by descriptive text and data. Defective vision of school children, defective vision in industry, vision test laws for school children, eye protection, the use of goggles, glare, accidents from improper lighting, and school, home, and factory lighting are dealt with in
a rich background of facts for teachers and lecturers.

"Eye Sight Stories" for children are charmingly written examples of how the young can be taught to realize the worth of sound vision. Anecdotes of great men impart a touch of romance to the stories, one of which brings out that Roosevelt's first gun helped him to discover his defective eyesight and thus aided him in building up the vitality of mind and body which became a by-word and an inspiration to the American people.

Eye Sight Conservation Bulletin No. 5 will be sent to any interested person for 40 cents, which is merely to cover printing cost and mailing. The lantern slides may be rented or purchased of the Council at a nominal rate.

The appendix contains material for speakers in general, and emphasizes such themes as errors of refraction, development of the eye, reading in bed, eye strain and eye fatigue, effect of motion pictures on the eyes, eyesight and production, sight and safety, eye strain and output, eyesight of garment workers, tests for efficient lighting and paper glare and book type. Authorities in this and also countries are united in support of the general thesis of the publication that eyesight conservation is a national problem which can no longer be safely ignored.

"Saving eyesight can be made intensely absorbing to any audience if the proper material is presented in the right way," it is declared.

The speaker should not try to be so instructive that he fails to be interesting, cautions this publication, by the use of which it is possible to be both.

MOTHER'S BOY

"If mother has carried him about and wheeled him about long after he could walk, if she has kept him from going up and downstairs early for fear he would fall, if she has always pulled him off ladders and warned him not to do this and that for fear he will be hurt, if she has kept him from having scooters, or roller skates, or velocipedes, because they are dangerous, then he will not have a good chance of helping to direct playground activities and become a leader. At play, as in the schoolroom, quickness of foot, hand, eye, and tongue, counts immeasurably. A child's future ability to play his part effectively in his social group will be in part determined by his success on his first playground."—Dr. Helen T. Woolley.

DO GOOD SCHOOLS PAY?

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EDUCATIONAL COMMENT

COLLEGE INTEREST PROVES MEASURE OF RED CROSS ACCOMPLISHMENT

The vitality of almost any program may be measured by the degree with which it is received by the active minds to be found in the colleges and universities of the country. Significance attaches therefore to the growing recognition among these institutions of the intensely practical activities of the American Red Cross, a recognition attested by the fact that these Red Cross activities form the principal link of that organization with the great college bodies of the United States.

The outstanding leadership of the American Red Cross in developing water-rescue, swimming, and first aid, the first two of which are closely akin to athletic accomplishments, has made such instruction generally received in higher educational institutions.

Yale, for instance, is among the pioneers in this field, and every year sends out from 100 to 150 trained men in this work. Dartmouth is closely following Yale in this respect, while at the Naval and Military academies, Annapolis and West Point respectively, such instruction is invaluable. At West Point the Red Cross Life Saving test has been made the basis for the so-called "A" test in swimming, which every senior is required to pass before graduation. Swimming proficiency is of course prerequisite at Annapolis.

In institutions where such instruction is not so essential, swimming is frequently elected as their winter sport by many of the students, and consequently Red Cross instruction finds a welcome place. This interest among the majority of the better known colleges and universities is carried from class rooms into summer activities by means of the Red Cross Life Saving Institutes held annually, the bulk of which attendance comes from such educational bodies. Through attendance at these camps of instruction, a two-fold purpose is accomplished; the graduates are enabled to serve with material benefit to themselves, as counsellors at water-front camps; and by their ability to diffuse their own expert knowledge, other hundreds and thousands are taught to swim and to save life.

Among girls' colleges this Red Cross activity is especially popular, Smith, Wheaton, Bryn Mawr, and Western College for women, being the leaders in interest, though interest is widespread.

In technical colleges of both men and women, other Red Cross instruction courses are offered and have proved valuable.

Such interest among all these institutions emphasizes of course the purely practical side of Red Cross service, and is natural since the bulk of this service is of the most practical, designed to meet the everyday requirements of America.

The less material side of this work, however, is offered through simple membership in Red Cross ranks, and has its reward in early familiarity with the precepts of human service which every man and woman who becomes a leader is called on to exercise.
The Tenth Annual Membership Roll Call of the American Red Cross will be held this year from November 11 to 25, and is an invitation to become identified through membership with all its does. President W. H. P. Faunce, of Brown University, has accepted the Honorary Chairmanship of the College Roll Call for the Eastern Section of the United States this year.

"WHEN THE TEXTBOOK ENDS"

With the opening of this school year a new magazine has appeared, Current Literature, a weekly, four pages in looseleaf form. Boldly facing the fact that the market is glutted with periodicals, it dares to take its place among them, and chooses for its own particular patron, the high school student.

Modern education demands a knowledge of the world around us. Modern methods of the teaching of English urge that students be made acquainted with what contemporary writers are doing. The purpose and aim of Current Literature is, therefore, to point the way—to indicate each week some of the outstanding features in the periodicals of the month, The Forum, The Bookman, The Atlantic, Harper, Scribner, Century, The American, The New Republic, and the rest. It will print, each week, one short story with a sketch of the author's life. It will indicate, with brief comment, the articles which will attract students of high school age—travel, explorations, informal essay or debate, with suggestions for study. In addition it will tell, now and again, spicy or amusing bits of gossip about authors and their books.

From time to time eminent people of the field of literature, Carl Van Doren, Christopher Morley, William Lyon Phelps, Dorothy Canfield, will write a direct message to the high school student, and again, the high school student will be given opportunity to show his skill in short story, essay, or poem.

Current Literature hopes to begin where the textbook ends and to make pleasantly accessible for the students of today the best of the literature of their own time.

Mabel A. Bessey, of the Bay Ridge High School, New York City, is the editor of this new paper. The publishers are Looseleaf Education Inc., 1123 Broadway, New York City.

MEASURING THE SPEED OF LIGHT

On his return from a summer spent on Mount Wilson, California, in measuring the speed of light, Professor A. A. Michelson, former head of the Department of Physics at the University of Chicago, announced that the famous Michelson-Morley experiment of 1883, upon the negative results of which Einstein based his celebrated theory of relativity, would be repeated on Mount Wilson next December.

Professor Michelson said, also, that he had obtained very satisfactory results this summer, measuring the velocity of light as it traveled, reflected back and forth by means of a set of mirrors, from Mount Wilson to Mount San Antonio, twenty-two miles away. As a result of the experiment, it is expected that a much higher precision in the measurement of the light's velocity will be attained than has ever before been recorded.

Experts are now at work in Pasadena to perfect the interferometer, Professor Michelson's own invention, which he will use when he conducts once more the world-famous experiment which "involves the problem of measuring the speed of the earth and with it the whole solar system through space."

The interferometer devised by Professor Michelson was used by him in several important earlier investigations, notably, the establishment of the meter in terms of light waves, undertaken by Dr. Michelson in France at the request of the International Bureau of Weights and Measures; his measurement of the diameter of the red star, Betelgeuse; and the ether drift experi-
ment of 1924-25 which studied the effect of the rotation of the earth on the velocity of light, confirming on completion certain parts of the Einstein theory.

IS BROWNING THIRD?

In his department, "As I Like It," in the September issue of Scribner's Magazine, William Lyon Phelps raises the question of the relative standing of the poets in English literature. He writes:

Who is the third poet in English literature? Shakespeare is first, Milton is second, but who is third? Shakespeare is first because he defeated every other poet in every other poet's specialty; Milton is second because of his supreme musicianship, but the moment one names a candidate for third place there is sharp and wide dissent. As President of the Faerie Queene Club, I suppose I ought to support Edmund Spenser, who at one time was generally accorded the position; but both Chaucer and Browning have passed him. Landor said that Shakespeare, Chaucer, and Browning were the three outstanding English poets in their knowledge and interpretation of human nature. When Landor made this statement his inclusion of Browning was regarded as a mere complimentary vote, not to be taken seriously; today we know that Landor was right.

SCIENCE MAGAZINES FOR SCHOOLS

The Science News-Letter, science magazine suitable for classroom use, is now being issued weekly by Science Service, the institution for the popularization of science established under the auspices of the National Academy of Sciences, the National Research Council, and the American Association for the Advancement of Science at Washington, D. C. With its first printed issue of October 2, it appears in novel form in that each article is automatically indexed and since articles are printed on only one side of the paper, each item can be easily clipped out for filing or posted on the bulletin board. The latest information of authentic scientific developments is put in compact and comprehensible form. Technical topics are treated in non-technical terms. Besides giving a survey of contemporary achievements, the News-Letter brings to light interesting incidents from scientific history and biography of all ages. New books and important articles in periodicals are reviewed. The men and women who are making modern science will be presented in portraits and personal sketches.

SELECTED BOOK-FILMS

Photoplay and book relationship has again been receiving the attention of the National Board of Review of Motion Pictures, in the preparation of its annual Selected Book-Films list. This list is issued each year in connection with the observance of Motion Picture Book Week, which this season comes upon the dates of November 7-13. The 1926 list is more complete than any of its predecessors, for it contains not only the selected pictures adapted from published sources for the current year through September, but also all book-films still available for circulation which have been reviewed within the past four or five years.

Many good films have been produced which should not be limited to simply ephemeral presentation, and especially is this true of book-films. The books from which they have been adapted remain in use—why not the films also—this was the thought in the mind of the Better Films National Council of the National Board of Review when it issued an accumulative list for 1926 Motion Picture Book Week. This week coincides with the dates of Book Week, sponsored by the National Association of Book Publishers, and American Education Week, approved by the National Education Association, so that it is a time when community groups will be alert for good pictures and good books.
Here is brought together for the convenience of exhibitors, better films committees, libraries, schools, and bookstores a compilation of over four hundred book-films, giving title, book source and author, featured players, reels and distributor. Although compiled for use during Motion Picture Book Week, the list will be valuable for year-around book-film orders. It is available at ten cents from the National Board of Review of Motion Pictures, 70 Fifth Avenue, New York City.

ONE THOUSAND DOLLARS

A unique and worthy method of using a golden anniversary gift has been introduced by Professor Julius and Rosa Sachs. The sum of $20,000 presented to Professor and Mrs. Sachs, on the occasion of their golden wedding, has been established as an Endowment Fund at Teachers College, Columbia University. The Fund is to be used for the purpose of promoting, by a series of prizes, the progress of secondary education in the United States.

For the year 1926-1927 the Sachs Endowment Fund offers a prize of one thousand dollars for the best essay or treatise on "The Aims and Methods of Science Teaching in the Successive Stages of a Secondary School, and the Intellectual Equipment of the Teacher That Will Enable Him to Put These Aims Into Practice." All manuscripts must be in the hands of the Dean of Teachers College, Columbia University, on or before December 1, 1926. The rules governing the competition for the Science prize may be secured from the Secretary of Teachers College, 525 West 120th Street, New York City.

SLOW STARS!

In 1901, when helium was being first observed in the light of stars, it appeared to Director Edwin B. Frost, of the Yerkes Observatory of the University of Chicago, to be important that the speed of these stars should be measured, and the task was begun. Its completion is marked with the publication of the results compiled by Director Frost, Storrs B. Barrett, and Otto Struve, in the latest issue of the Astrophysical Journal. "This research has brought out the interesting fact," Professor Frost states, "that almost every other one of these stars has a close companion—not a planet, but a companion star, sometimes only slightly fainter than the star we see."

The helium stars, of which almost four hundred have been studied, have been found to move at a rate of four miles a second in many cases, which is only a third of the average speed of the yellow stars. The helium stars, aside from being youthful and slow, are among the hottest of the stellar family and are giants in size.

This twenty-five years' study of helium stars at the Yerkes Observatory is to be followed with the results of an investigation of the speed of about five hundred white stars, which has occupied a period of more than twenty years.

BOOKS

REALLY FOR TEACHERS


This new psychology lives up to its title. Emphasis is placed on those phases of psychology that explain the learning process. The attempt is made, and it comes as near being successful as in any book examined in some time, to give to the teacher and the prospective teacher what she needs to develop the knowledge, skill, and character of her pupils.

Some of the chapters that stand out are Chapters XV, Attitudes and Learning; XVIII, Expression and Learning; XX, Individual Differences; XXIII, Mental Efficiency, and XXIV, Mental Hygiene.

Suggestive exercises, subject for discussion and term papers, and a list of psy-
chological and educational terms which the student should know, comprise a valuable appendix.

C. P. Shorts

ENTERTAINMENT FOR THE COMPOSITION TEACHER


Eight of its fifteen chapters offer a masterly analysis of the art of description, including abundant exercises and numerous illustrative examples both from the novices and the masters. The five chapters following deal with the short story, centering, of course, about narration, which without description is but "a colorless recital of events." Then—least satisfactory portion of the book—follow two chapters on the familiar and the formal essay.

Probably the book will best serve its purpose in the second year of college after the purely utilitarian types of writing have been studied. Its section on description sends the student to such masters as Dickens and Eliot and Hardy, and among more nearly contemporary authors—to Galsworthy and Conrad, Bennett and Wells, Willa Cather and Ellen Glasgow, Stevenson and W. H. Hudson, Howells and Henry James. Thus, in a comprehensive way, it is possible to relate the student's writing to his reading; the attempt at creative writing is made "in an atmosphere of literary achievement."

Of course teachers of composition have generally done this sort of thing, but the contents of few volumes offer a body of material so intelligently organized to stimulate. The teacher who uses this textbook will often be inveigled into attempting the assignments himself, certainly a much-to-be-desired habit of mind for the composition teacher.

C. T. Logan

MANUSCRIPT WRITING AGAIN

The present interest in manuscript writing not only for adults but as a first mode of expression for the young child make the publication of a complete set of materials very timely. Here is brief comment on just such a set:


A set of seven cards containing the essential forms for manuscript writing. They include basic letter forms, also alphabets made with different kinds of pens, and with crayon. Such a set of models is almost indispensable for beginners.


Carefully graded lessons in manuscript writing for the very littlest ones. The Teacher's Guide gives definite directions for carrying on the work.


The first book of each pair contains models and also ruled spaces for practice; the second book contains ruled spaces only. These books are adapted to adults beginning manuscript writing as well as to children.

K. M. A.

THE JUNIOR COLLEGE


The Junior College is proving itself such a usable factor in the newer developments of education that all over the country it is being accepted as permanent. The fact that the
number of Junior Colleges in the United States, in the past twenty years, has increased from ten or twelve to two hundred or more goes to show that this institution is filling a long and much realized need.

To those who wish in as short time as possible to gain concise and accurate information concerning the movement, this book, in which Mr. Koos presents the findings of an extended investigation of the movement carried on under subvention from the Commonwealth Fund of New York City and from the University of Minnesota, presents excellent opportunity. Its arrangement is such that one can easily discover those points in which he is most interested without perusing the entire text. In a most enlightening manner Mr. Koos has outlined a survey of the movement from its beginning down to the present. He has obtained the findings for his thesis largely through the observation and questionnaire methods, thus making the entire work teem with life.

After presenting the scope and variety of the movement and discussing at length the current conceptions of the special purposes of the Junior College as ascertained by questionnaire, Mr. Koos presents the three-fold function of the organization: (1) Isthmian, (2) Democratizing, (3) Conserving and Socializing. He further justifies its existence by showing the immediate relationship between the last two years of secondary work and the first two years of college work, and by pointing out how, with this organization, overlapping in subjects can be avoided to a great extent.

The various diagrams and graphs which have been worked out by the author add much to the attractiveness of the book. The appendix contains a lengthy bibliography bearing directly on the junior college problems.

Pauline Callender

THE END OF THE RAINBOW

LEARNING HOW TO STUDY AND WORK EFFECTIVELY.

However much or little the typical freshman may appreciate the fact, it would appear that no body of material of like value for him has been assembled as in Book's Learning How to Study and Work Effectively.

Hitherto books on study, beginning with the pioneer work of Dr. Frank McMurry, have been written in terms of teaching younger children or have been bare outlines of general principles and handy manuals. Dr. Book has taken up straightforwardly and scientifically, with a wealth of supporting concrete data, the college student's problems: conservation and direction of his energies, prevention of fatigue, making effective schedules, development of right attitudes and effective interests. In addition, the application of these principles is made to topical study, memorizing, and problem solving.

Dr. Book has prepared in Learning How to Study and Work Effectively a systematic text for careful study in freshman courses. The fundamentals of elementary psychology are not prerequisite, but would be practically learned thereby.

Graphs, tables, experiments, exercises, and references abound throughout the book. Another large group of people will no doubt also be served, including advanced students, teachers in the field, and workers in business and industry who feel the need of improving their work habits.

In conclusion the reviewer wishes to make a plea that, in the field of education, publishers and authors alike follow the precedent set here of putting on the market books which take full advantage of the painstaking researches in the field.

W. J. Gifford
OTHER BOOKS OF INTEREST TO TEACHERS


Because "discussions are constantly arising about the morals and manners of the 'younger generation,' the conflicts (which are cultural as well as commercial) among the geographical sections of our country, about the present seat of our national culture or the probability of our having any," the editors have felt it desirable to assemble here a collection of essays notable for variety of style and diversity of subject-matter. Their selection proves their claim that a writer need not be dull in order to be profound, nor need he dwell in an ivory tower to avoid the contamination of plebeian opinions. This volume is not just one more essay collection, but a really distinguished group of contemporary essays.


An inexpensive edition containing seven stories: A Christmas Carol, The Cricket on the Hearth, Rip Van Winkle, The Great Stone Face, The Lady or the Tiger?, The Perfect Tribute, and The Man Without a Country. At the end of each story are notes and questions, but the questions are cast in a new form—here are completion tests, multiple response tests, projects, and thought questions.


Extensive illustrations including not only a dozen of the well-known Thompson prints, but a number of "stills" from the Douglas Fairbanks film, "Robin Hood." Sixty-odd pages of notes on Scott's life, the characters and background, test questions, a series of vocabulary tests, etc. An excellent school edition of this classic.


A school edition with a special introduction by the author in which he tells who the characters were in real life.


This volume, from the pen of one of our leading American educators and one of our most facile American educational authors, is of the same high standard as others in the Riverside Textbook Series. The author has attempted a preliminary job analysis dividing the main body of the work into the big problems of the organization of the school, the administration of the school, and the supervision of instruction. Every problem of consequence that is likely to confront a school principal is treated concretely with abundant illustration and with such charts, graphs, forms, and outlines as will enable the reader to tackle his job with real assurance. It is not surprising that principals have found it one of the most essential books in their professional libraries.


Vocabulary, with suggestive hints; ample introduction; discriminating notes; abundant exercises.


A supplementary reader for the young child built around a series of cut paper pictures which the child makes into a book. Some other direction exercises different from the usual work of this type are included.


This Manual is a complete revision of the 1915 edition, but it still advocates having children learn to write by imitating composition "models." For those who prefer formal training in language it is comprehensive and sound.
NEWS OF THE COLLEGE
AND ITS ALUMNÆ

CAMPUS NEWS

The first few weeks of the college year finds attention directed to the freshmen, and so it has been this quarter. Freshman training started off with learning songs, laws, and traditions in mass meetings. Old girl advisers met group divisions and helped the newcomer learn the ways of the land. A week of concentration and the freshmen had taken the examination and signed the pledge of Student Government.

But upper classmen must have their fun. Accordingly, Stunt Night took place Monday, October 4, with Marion Kelly officiating. Fun and sport there were aplenty with the initiation extending over two days. The game ended Wednesday, October 6, when the new girls were formally taken into the student body by the wedding of the new class with the upper classes. Elizabeth Ellmore, president of Student Government, performed the marriage ceremony of Parepa Smith, freshman, and Wilmot Doan, old girl. Every detail of the occasion was carried out.

The Y. W. C. A. has made the new girls feel at home by dormitory parties and the climax-party held in the gym Friday night, October 1. Little and big sisters are becoming fast friends. The churches are showing courtesies to the college girls in the form of hearty welcomes and get-together socials.

All the classes are showing active interest in athletics. W. Doan and Martha Cockrill have returned to support the Purple and Gold. Between fifty and sixty new girls have turned out to practice basketball.

The new gym is completed, being occupied for the first time Friday, October 8. The completed east end of Sheldon Hall is pleasing its occupants as "the best dormitory on the campus."

The upper classes have organized. The seniors have for officers Ruth Nickell, president; Claire Lay, vice-president; Sherwood Jones, secretary; Ruth Sullenberger, treasurer; Edwena Lambert, business manager; and Emma Pettit, sergeant-at-arms.

Virginia Turpin again leads the class which is now the junior. Martha Derrick is vice-president; Helen Goodson, secretary; Wilmot Doan, business manager; Bernice Wilkins, treasurer; and Sally Kent, sergeant-at-arms.

The sophomores chose Marion Lee as president; Martha Hubbard, vice-president; Dorothy Gibson, secretary; Charlotte De Hart, business manager; Elizabeth Mason, treasurer; and Julia Reynolds, sergeant-at-arms.

Doris Kelly, elected last spring as president of the Athletic Association, did not return. Hortense Herring, who finished a two-year course here in 1925 and taught last year, has been chosen to take her place.

The Glee Club has organized with Sara Belle Shirkey, president; Bernice Wilkins, vice-president; Ruth Berry, secretary; Ruth Carey, business manager and treasurer; and Lucille McGlaughlin, librarian.

The literary societies have begun their youthful endeavors. The Lees have taken in new members: Catherine Moseley, Margaret Chandler, Charlotte Turner, Hortense Herring, and Dorothy Gibson.

The work of Mrs. Diggs and her assistants in the supply room has been lightened somewhat by the establishment of a sub-station post-office across from the campus. Mail is still delivered at the school. Insured packages and registered letters have to be called for at the new office.

Dr. Huffman has moved in his new home on Grattan street. Mr. and Mrs. Varner are remodeling a home just south of the college on the Valley Pike.

ALUMNÆ NOTES

Helen Yates, who is teaching at Ebony, in Brunswick County, is very much in love with her work.

Myrtle Haden has made an enviable record in the schools of Gretna, Pittsylvania County, during the past seven years.
The Allen girls, Anna and Florence, are spending a few weeks in New York City and at the Sesquicentennial at Philadelphia.

The address of Sadie Williams at Clarendon, Va., where she is teaching in the Washington-Lee High School, is 106 N. Maple Street.

Mrs. Elsie Judy is making a fine record as a teacher at Stanley, Page County.

Dollie Minix is teaching at Gladys, in Campbell County. She sends an interesting report of her work.

Elizabeth Mitchell recently stopped for a short visit at the college, enroute to Winchester and other points in the lower Shenandoah Valley.

Carrie Malone (Mrs. Chas. Carter) is teaching in Petersburg. She sent her sister to Blue-Stone Hill in September.

Ethel Jones writes from Wise, Va., where she is much interested in her teaching work in the high school.

Goldie King is teaching at Naruna, Campbell County. She is giving a good account of herself in the Harrisonburg way—in deeds rather than in words.

Sue Ayres recently sent us a good message from Petersburg. Her address is 301 N. 3d Street, Hopewell, Va.

Josephine McCaleb is teaching in the Green River High School, Wyoming. She sends very interesting photographs of the school building and surrounding country.

Lila Gray is teaching at Soapstone, Nelson County, Va. She is finding her work and the history of the surrounding communities very interesting.

Mary Elizabeth Nichols (Mrs. Shirley Hope) paid us a flying visit the day college opened (September 20). She was with an auto party of friends, who had not expected to include Harrisonburg in their itinerary, but she said that she simply couldn’t pass within twenty-five miles without stopping. Her address is 632 Riverview Avenue, Portsmouth.

Cecile Chapman was also here at the time of opening the present session. She is always interested in sending new students this way, and may return some time for more work in college. Her address is U. S. V. Hospital No. 98, Castle Point, N. Y. She holds a good position there as dietitian.

Lucy Reynolds wrote us under date of September 29 from Naruna, Campbell County, Va., where she is doing good work as a teacher.

Frances Clark is principal of the graded school at Forestville, Shenandoah County. She paid us a visit recently at Blue-Stone Hill.

Pearl Haldeman (Mrs. Stickley) and Emily (Mrs. Chas. Beck) were recent visitors at the College. Their stay was all too brief.

Not long ago Mary Stephens (Mrs. Blackwell) and Louise Greenawalt paid us a short call on their way to Mary’s home in Richmond. But Mary says, “Come to see me soon, for you know Methodist preachers and their families may have other addresses after Conference.”

Sallie Cooper, who taught last year at Goshen, Rockbridge County, goes back to her home school at Critz this year, in the land of the Lucky Stones.

OUR CONTRIBUTORS

B. FRANCES SELLERS is a B. S. graduate of the State Teachers College at Harrisonburg, now entered on her first year of teaching.

SADIE WILLIAMS also received her degree at the June, 1926, commencement. She is now teaching science in the Washington-Lee High School in Arlington County.

ISABEL SPARROW, a two-year graduate of Harrisonburg, returned last session to continue work looking to her degree. She is this year a student at the University of Virginia.

KATIE LEE ROLSTON is one of the fifth grade supervisors in the Harrisonburg Training School. Her unit on the Lee Highway was worked out in this grade.

MARY ELIZABETH JOHNSON is this fall beginning her teaching career as a member of the high school faculty in the Handley Schools of Winchester. Miss Johnson received the bachelor’s degree at Harrisonburg last June.
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