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THE VIRGINIA TEACHER

December, 1927

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J. R. Geiger

POETRY IN THE GRADES
Virginia Buchanan

TEACHING THE APOSTROPHE
Bonnie Gilbert

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ASSURE you that I consider it a privilege and an honor to address you on this occasion. I particularly appreciate talking to such a large group of students about student government. And it has seemed to me that I can make no better use of the time set apart for my discussion than to present for your consideration what I regard as certain misconceptions of the honor system.

Among my many duties as a teacher of philosophy is the very delightful one of conducting each year a course in logic. On one occasion while conducting this course I assigned to groups of students the task of working out and bringing in illustrations of the dilemma as a form of argument, and the various ways of meeting this particular form of argument. The dilemma brought in by one of these groups was most interesting. It had to do with the honor system and was designed to show that this institution ought to be abolished. As I recall it, the argument went somewhat as follows:

If those who live under the honor system are possessed of a high sense of honor, the system is unnecessary and ought therefore to be abolished; and if those who live under this system do not possess a high sense of honor, it is impossible to maintain the system, and it ought therefore to be abolished. But those who live under the honor system either do or do not possess a high sense of honor. So that in either case this institution ought to be abolished, either because it is unnecessary or because it is impossible to maintain it.

All of which sounded very formidable, indeed. But the arguments advanced to meet this formidable dilemma were quite equal to the occasion. On the one hand, it was contended that the alternatives proposed by the dilemma are not mutually exclusive, inasmuch as a student body is, as a matter of fact, composed of both honorable and dishonorable types of students, and that if only the former are in the majority, the honor system can and ought to be maintained to the gradual elimination of those who are unfit to live under it. On the other hand, it was argued that the alternatives of honorable or dishonorable student bodies are not only not mutually exclusive, but that these alternatives are not exhaustive, inasmuch as there is a third possibility, namely, a student body composed of those who are neither entirely honorable nor dishonorable, but composed, rather, of those who are in process of becoming honorable or dishonorable, as the case may be; and that with reference to any actual student body, made up as it is of such immature and unformed persons, the function of the honor system is not only to regulate, by eliminating the unfit, but also and more especially to educate by helping to create an environment which is most favorable to the development of honorable traits and honorable behavior.

Now it occurred to me as I considered the pros and cons of this debate, that these two ingenuous methods of meeting what was no doubt a purely academic attack on the honor system are typical of two more or less distinct conceptions of the nature and function of this institution. One of these conceptions is that the honor system is primarily, if not exclusively, a form of student government; and the other is that, because no form of self-government can be permanently adequate unless it is educative as well as regulative in its effects, the honor system must aim at producing such effects in the characters of those who live under it.

An address delivered at the Convocation exercises, September 23, 1927, in Walter Reed Hall, State Teachers College, Harrisonburg.
if it is to regulate their conduct in a permanently effective manner. It is the former of these two conceptions, namely, the conception of the honor system as being essentially regulative rather than educative in its intent, that I regard as a misconception. And it is this misconception of the honor system that I wish you to consider first.

And let us begin by distinguishing between two meanings of the term "honor" as used in connection with the honor system, which have not always been carefully distinguished by those who have thought on this matter. In the first place, then, "honor" may be said to have an ethical connotation in that it refers to those standards of action which are considered by the members of any student community as being indispensable to the welfare, if not to very existence of that community. But the term may also be said to have a psychological connotation in that it refers to the traits in the characters of those who make up the student community which dispose them to conform to such standards of action as being matters of honor, and which we therefore think of as constituting their "sense of honor."

Now the standards of action regarded by any generation of students as being matters of honor may or may not be truly objective, that is, truly representative of their best interests; but in either case the sense of honor which many students bring with them to college will on the whole fall short of the requirements of the honor code under which they must live. The reasons for this are obvious. The student's sense of honor is not inherited; it is acquired. And it is acquired in some specific environment. It is, therefore, relative to that environment. But the environments in which students are reared and in which they acquire the sense of honor they bring with them to college are apt to differ from the college environment in one or the other, or in both of two respects. On the one hand the ideals of the former may be inferior to those of the latter. On the other hand the two sets of ideals may simply be different in that they have developed with reference to dissimilar situations and types of interest. And in any case, influences must be brought to bear on the immature student to improve, or if that be unnecessary, at least to modify and expand his "sense of honor" in appropriate directions.

Now it is my conviction that the honor system is, or at least should be, one of the educative influences thus brought to bear on the immature student. This is possibly not the traditional conception of the nature and function of this institution. The traditional conception would seem to be that the honor system is essentially a regulative instrument and, incidentally, a device for separating the sheep from the goats, or a sort of sieve for sifting out the good grain from the worthless chaff. The presupposition back of such a notion of the honor system is a static view of human nature, and more especially of those elements in human nature which constitute a "sense of honor." But for a college which pretends to be an educational institution to subscribe to a system of student control which itself makes no pretense to being educative in its effects, and for the college to deal with students as being immature or undeveloped with reference to knowledge and yet as being finished products with reference to morals, would seem to be, to say the least, a contradiction in terms.

And so I think we must conclude that the college is logically committed to the conception of the honor system as being essentially educative and not merely regulative (or shall we say eliminative?) in its intent and result. But what difference will this conception make in the administration of the honor system where it is consciously grasped and put into practice? In other words, how is the honor system to function as an institution whose aim it is to help create an environment which is favorable to the development of the sort of honor...
required of one who is to conform success-
fully to its code? Time will permit of only
two or three suggestions in this connection
as illustrations of the sort of measures
which may be employed to accomplish the
end I have described.

The first of those suggestions is that the
freshman's acknowledgment and acceptance
of the honor code can be made somewhat
less perfunctory and mechanical than is
usually the case. When a student matricu-
lates in a college where the honor system
is in operation, there is an implied agree-
ment on his part to uphold its standards.
But this technicality might well be supple-
mented by a solemn and impressive cere-
mony, conducted by student representatives,
on which occasion all new matriculates
would be initiated into the honor system,
as it were, taking upon themselves such
vows in such terms as would be appropriate
to the emotional and dramatic features of
the situation. The psychological effect of a
ceremony of this sort is obvious.

Another suggestion I have to make in
this connection is that the publicity given
by student officers and leaders to the stand-
ards embodied in the honor code can be
made something more than perfunctory ex-
planations and warnings. Too often such
publicity aims only at putting the new stu-
dent on notice, so to speak. The usual at-
titude seems to be something like this: Here
are the ideals of the college community; let
the new student take them or leave them,—
along with the consequences! A rather form-
al sense of justice (and should we not
add, something closely akin to smug self-
righteousness?) requires that the inevitable
delinquents, when once their violations of
the honor code prove them to have been
"devils from the beginning," shall not be
able to plead ignorance of the law. Hence
the necessity of some sort of information
concerning the honor system and its stand-
ards. But my contention is that this infor-
mation can and should be conveyed in such
a manner as to establish in the freshman's
mind associations and attitudes which will
make his acceptance of the honor code
something more than a meaningless techni-
cality. Constructive publicity, then, as a
substitute for perfunctory explanations and
warnings is another way in which the honor
system can be rendered truly educative in
its effects.

And there are various other methods
which might be employed with results
equally good, such as a more discriminating
and intelligent use of the "pledge"; and
such as the use of corrective and construc-
tive forms of punishment as opposed to
those forms which aim only at vindicating
and upholding the honor code and at ridding
the college of its undesirable elements. Our
time is passing, however, and I must hasten
on.

There is another prevalent misconception
of the honor system to which I wish to call
your attention. It has to do with what we
must regard as the very foundation of all
student government, namely, personal re-
sponsibility; and it usually manifests itself
in an unwillingness on the part of one stu-
dent to assume responsibility for detecting
and exposing the wrongdoing of another.
What shall we say of such an attitude?
Well, there are several things, it seems to
me, which should be said with reference to
it. For one thing we shall do well, I think,
to recognize how prevalent this attitude is.
We shall also do well to recognize the sin-
cerity of those who share it. Again we
might as well face the fact that this is the
point at which student government is most
apt to break down. And, finally, it is im-
portant for us to realize that many of those
who are opposed to the practice of inform-
ing on their fellows are able to give very
definite, and, as they see it, very convincing
reasons for the faith that is in them. After
a thorough investigation, extending over two
or more years, and conducted by means of
personal inquiry among many students, I
have come to the conclusion that those who
are opposed to this principle of reporting
the misconduct of others fall into a number of clearly marked off groups in accordance with the reasons they give for the position they take. I wish you to consider during the time which remains two or three of these reasons in order to determine, if possible, whether they have sufficient merit to justify the position taken with reference to it.

Some of these reasons are relatively superficial and need not, therefore, detain us. I refer to such contentions as that the principle of informing on others is unnecessary; or that it is extremely difficult and unpleasant; or that the punishment in which it results is too severe; or that the principle is inherently odious. An argument which is more serious and which merits more consideration is that the individual student is not responsible for exposing the misconduct of others because this duty has been delegated to a student council elected for this purpose and authorized, therefore, to act for the individual in this capacity. And in defense of this attitude, an appeal is usually made to the analogy which is said to exist between civil society and the college community. In civil society there are agencies whose sole duty it is to detect and expose wrongdoing. To be sure, the existence of such agencies does not absolve the individual from all moral nor indeed from all legal responsibility in this connection. That is to say, there are situations in which the individual citizen is neither morally nor legally free to refrain from reporting to the proper authorities the misconduct which comes under his observation. But on the whole, the welfare of society is best promoted where every citizen attends to his own business. To attend to one's own business, therefore, is under ordinary circumstances, an honorable trait so far as the citizen is concerned. Now the college community under the honor system is like civil society in a democratic state in that it sets up certain machinery through which it proposes to govern itself. It is unlike civil society, however, (and here the analogy between the two breaks down) in that the personnel of its governmental machinery are not primarily policemen or judges, but are, on the contrary, students, who in the nature of the case cannot be exclusively depended on to detect and expose wrongdoing. Theirs is the duty to investigate misconduct and to administer punishment in such cases as come under their personal observation, or such as are reported to them by others. For the most part the rank and file of the students themselves must be responsible for and take the initiative in holding to account those whose misconduct is dishonorable and thus strike at the foundations of college life.

The tradition that "to tell" is not an honorable thing to do has a more primitive basis, however, than this analogy between the college community and civil society. It reaches back into the earliest training of the individual as a member of the family and the elementary school. And, if I am not mistaken, it is this training which all of us get as members of the family and elementary school that accounts for the largest group of those students who are adverse to reporting the misconduct of others. And yet there is no analogy between these more elementary groups and the college community that justifies carrying over into the latter this tradition against concerning oneself with the wrongdoing of one's fellows. For, mind you, neither the family nor the elementary school pretends to be a self-governing body. On the contrary, authority is vested in parents and teachers, respectively. And on the whole parents and teachers find it easiest to administer their authority in an effective and equitable manner when there is a minimum of "spying" or "tattling." But in a college where student government prevails, students are in a large measure on their own responsibility and must, therefore, be prepared to take the initiative in upholding their honor code.

Let me hasten to remind you, however,
that under the honor system the student is not required to "spy" or to "tattle" or to be a "busybody." He is merely required to report such cases of misconduct as come under his own observation while engaged in his own affairs. And he is not at liberty to withhold information of such violations of honor for the reason that this information rightfully belongs to the student council to whom he as one who has elected to live under the honor system has delegated the task of upholding the honor code. The fact that the knowledge in question was not gained as a result of any effort on his part but on the contrary was stumbled on, so to speak, as one might pick up a purse lost by another, does not in any way affect his obligations in the matter. The knowledge is not his; it belongs to others. To keep it locked up in his own mind is no more defensible, morally, than it would be for one to pocket money he had found with no attempt to identify its rightful owner. And this is the reason that, under the honor system, to refrain from reporting violations of the honor code is itself regarded as a breach of honor.

There is one other objection to the principle of personal responsibility, as conceived under the honor system, to which I wish to call your attention. There are many students who feel that to report or to threaten to report the misconduct of another is, in effect, to employ a degree of force which is strangely out of place in a system of control based on honor. The criticism I heard expressed most frequently at the recent Congress of the National Student Federation was "too much system and too little honor." Back of this criticism seemed to be a feeling that it is inconsistent to regard the standards of action included in the honor system as standards of honor when the practice of the standards, so far from being left entirely to the voluntary disposition of students, is in reality guaranteed by coercive measures of the most compelling kind. Has this attitude, with the criticism it implies, any weight? And how is one who is concerned to uphold the reasonableness of the honor system to meet it?

Well, it is possible that those who feel so sure that honor and coercion cannot be combined in any sort of system have overlooked or misconceived the real nature of group self-control, of which the honor system in college communities is a special case. Self-control by groups manifests itself in two forms, namely, in morality and in law. By morality is meant the control of the members of a group from within through personal ideals; and by law is meant the control of such individuals from without by means of legislative enactments enforced by agencies competent to inflict appropriate penalties for violations. But these two forms of social control, although distinct in their mode of operation, are by no means mutually exclusive. For neither is possessed of a sphere of action peculiar to itself, in which it operates to the exclusion of the other. On the contrary, the spheres of action in which they respectively operate overlap, so that a standard of action may be both a matter of morality and a matter of law. For example, driving an automobile at a reasonable (or legal) rate of speed on public highways is for some a personal ideal (as well as a law) and operates, so far as they are concerned, as an inner control; for others, however, it is merely a law imposed from without and enforced by extraneous penalties.

Now, the honor system combines within itself the two forms of control to which I have referred as morality and law, and also exhibits the overlapping of their respective spheres to which reference has been made. In other words, the honor system is, in reality, a combination of coercion and honor. And the standards of action embodied in its code partake of the nature of both law and morality. For many students these standards are personal ideals which exercise an inner control. For such students the honor code is simply an announcement
to the world of the principles they mean to live by in the interest of certain values, felt to be fundamental in college life. And in living up to this announcement, no coercion or restraint of any sort may be experienced. There is a small minority of students in every college, however, for whom the honor code is to all intents and purposes a legal enactment. Its standards, so far as these students are concerned, are not personal ideals; and the observance of these standards is not at all a matter of morality. For such students, on the contrary, the control exercised by these standards is entirely external, and is enforced by the decrees of a council with penal powers. And yet, the existence of such an external and coercive form of control within a system which proposes to effect a control of conduct primarily from within through a sense of honor is, as we have seen, neither unusual nor unreasonable. In a group, made up of such a diversity of moral types as compose the personnel of a college community, only such a combination of law and morality, coercion and honor, will suffice.

It must be obvious, however, that this conception of a group, some of whose members are so moral as to require no control save through their own ideals and others of whom are so lacking in morality as to require control altogether from without, is an undue simplification of the state of affairs actually existing in a college group, or in any other community. In all groups, including the college, the dividing line between the "good" and "bad," or between the "honorable" and the "dishonorable" is fluctuating and indistinct. The great mass of individuals fall somewhere between these moral extremes, either because their ideals are not sufficiently inclusive to serve all the vital interests of the group, or because these ideals, however inclusive they may be, are not vigorous enough to function always without some support and reinforcement from without. And even the best of us, if we are but honest enough to admit it, have our unfinished areas, our weak moments, or both. It may be, therefore, that we all need from time to time to be reminded lest we forget, to be enlightened lest we become confused, and to be made sober and steady in the face of what might otherwise cause us to falter. And the existence of law and law-like coercions affects us in just these ways. Indeed, the law has been one of the great educators of the human race, one of the schools, if you please, in which mankind's morality has been nurtured. There is a sense, to be sure, in which law may be said to represent the institutionalizing of morality. But the law has more than repaid the debt it owes to the moral insight of the social genius in the nurture it has provided for the morality of the masses. And as an educative influence, it is as indispensable for the average individual of today as it was for the masses of individuals in primitive society.

The average college student, like any average individual, has his ideals and his convictions. But like any other average individual he is, with respect to goodness or character, an unfinished product. At college he associates himself with other immature persons. Together, he and they publish abroad the fact that they mean to live by certain principles. These principles constitute their code of honor. But immature and idealistic though they be, students realize that some of their number are without much appreciation of what they have agreed to regard as matters of honor, and that all of them appreciate some of these ideals but inadequately at best. They resolve, nevertheless, that these ideals shall be maintained, whatever penalties must be imposed to maintain them. Whereupon the honor code ceases to be a matter of morality alone and becomes, in essence, at least, a matter of law. But in the meantime no violence has been done to the spirit of morality. On the contrary, morality has, in reality, been supplemented and reinforced; supplemented for those who are more
or less lacking in the inner sanctions of conduct, and reinforced for those the inner sanctions of whose conduct may be in need of that stimulus, enlargement, and support which come only from a subjection to discipline which is self-imposed.

J. R. Geiger

TEACHING THE APOSTROPHE OF POSSESSION

Had anyone told me when I first began teaching that some day I would admit that any single matter of form in written composition was hard to teach, I know I should have been greatly humiliated; and had I been told that I would admit that the apostrophe of possession was more than stubborn about getting taught, I think I should have left the teaching ranks at once.

Yet here I am after a number of years of getting oriented in what “is English”; of reconciling minimum essentials; of conducting classes in sight-seeing trips through English and American literature; here I am, making an informal report on how I attempt to teach the apostrophe of possession! “Picking up pins” I should have perhaps termed such work back there a few years.

Had this particular bit of form—spelling, perhaps—not run such a high percentage of error in the numerous studies of recent years of pupil errors in written composition, I might never have known the mark was poorly taught. Then had it not shown up worst in a study of seven formal elements I made of my own teaching, I probably should not have given it any more thought.

But when this elusive will-o’-the-wisp made the worst showing in my own teaching, I analyzed the nature of the mistakes made in its use and discovered that my forty-six sophomores—tenth-grade high school—misused the apostrophe of possession in a series of dictation exercises in which it was one of the problems, according to the following distribution of types of errors.

- 57%, omitting the apostrophe
- 15%, placing the apostrophe after the s in singular nouns
- 12%, placing the apostrophe after the s in irregular plurals
- 8%, placing the apostrophe before the s in plural nouns
- 6%, placing the apostrophe before the s in singular nouns ending in s, as James
- 3%, unnecessary use of the apostrophe
- 2%, confusing the apostrophe with the comma

This bit of analysis caused me to plan a definite method of attack on the apostrophe of possession alone. Twice since, I have done this, each time refining my method; and not yet have I been able to take the improvement, as shown by a closing-up test, beyond a fifty percent improvement. However, I had evidence that attention had been permanently directed to the pestiferous mark. Each time that I have tried the experiment, I have had the individual cooperation of the pupils, who always seem to puzzle as much about the elusive nature of that apostrophe as I do about their slowness to capture it.

There are no less than ten different ways in which a pupil may go wrong in the use of that apostrophe of possession! I did not know it until I began to isolate its uses for the purposes of incorporating them in exercises for dictation. Briefly, these are:

1. Omission of the apostrophe;
2. Its unnecessary use;
3. Placing the apostrophe on top of the s;
4. Placing the apostrophe after the s when it should be before;
5. Before when it should be after;
6. In irregular plurals;
7. In nouns ending in s all the time, as Charles;
8. In joint ownership;
9. Confusing its with it’s;
10. In possessive modifiers of gerunds.

The plan for the experiment is quite simple. It consists of an initial test of forty-five sentences, arranged in cycles of nine; that is, each group of nine sentences occurs in the same order as does the first nine. This test so arranged is for diagnostic purposes, and for comparison with a similar one given at the close of the experiment.
The second part of the experiment consists of a series of dictation exercises, the number given depending upon the judgment of the teacher. So far, I keep around fifteen. These exercises, which should be made beforehand, are short and may be dictated, corrected by the class, and collected, during the first fifteen minutes of the class period. Each exercise is designed to cover each use of the apostrophe; in each exercise the order of the uses should appear at random. A sentence containing no need for the apostrophe of possession should be included in each exercise. The reason is, no doubt, obvious. This is a sample exercise:

Pupil's name ...................... Date ..............
1. He selected his books according to their illustrations.
2. It was not John; he would not rob birds' nests.
3. That boy's chief fault is his hasty tongue.
4. Browning called buttercups the little children's dower.
5. I saw by Charles's reading file that he was growing up.
6. They patronized the old bookstore instead of Payne and Lee's new one.
7. That bird is valued only for its tail feathers.
8. The culprit was further embarrassed by his mother's being there.
9. This is only a part of the story; it's told in full elsewhere.

The dictation will go more smoothly if the teacher has the paper ready to distribute. I find small sheets are easier to handle and to file. After the exercise is dictated, I dictate the correct positions for the apostrophe, having the pupils place a large ring around the word where they make an error; this makes counting up easier. Then the sum of the errors is placed in large numbers at the top center; this is for easy reference later. Pupils are always eager to "check up" their errors.

The third part of the experiment is the closing out, or casting up, or measuring the progress. After the exercises are dictated, which, at the rate of two or three a week, as I give them, brings one out somewhere in the fifth or sixth week, I distribute the exercises and have the pupils see that they are arranged in the order given—first, second, and so on. Then I show them how to plot their own charts on paper, which they rule free-hand right there, keeping the squares about one-half inch in size. The small squares of ordinary graph paper render such charts less effective. We use the x-axis for the exercises, represented by capital letters. The possible errors we show on the y-axis.

Pupils may see from these charts their progress, if any, and the rate of it. The charts, while showing the total number of errors made in each exercise, do not show what is perhaps a more important matter—the type of their particular weakness. This we find by going back over each exercise and tabulating each error according to some order which I have ready written on the blackboard. Each pupil is interested more and more as he sees his weaknesses showing up. Sometimes amusing things occur. One boy, a senior, with an I. Q. of 126 and considerable school success behind him, became quite argumentative and almost angry, when, on the first exercise, he missed every apostrophe. In a short time he "got straightened out," but he frankly admitted that he had never noticed irregular plurals before. Although he had had several whimsical essays published in the school
paper, he couldn't use the apostrophe of possession. Perhaps that is to say that that particular skill is of small consequence. But we are supposed to teach it. Of the one hundred and fifty-one high school pupils, sophomores, juniors, and seniors whom I have carried through a series of drill exercises of this kind, I have found only one who did not need it.

Where one wishes to show up the massed progress of the class as a whole, then before the two processes just described, a final test based on the cycle plan, like the initial test, should be given.

The whole experiment is interesting from start to finish. The only boresome part is making the exercises and tests: so many sentences. One thing is certain; any teacher who tries it once will try it again and again.

The same plan as described here may by slight changes be employed for teaching the run-on sentence, the comma fault, capital letters for sections of the country, for proper adjectives—any of those familiar obstructions in the path of the high school teacher of composition. Working them out as separate problems—briefly, perhaps, as there are so many—at least has the merit of coming nearer to the concrete; it brings tangible results.

BONNIE GILBERT

COMPOSING POETRY IN THE GRADES

FOR the past four years the teaching of real appreciation of poetry has been one of the great aims of our training school and, so far, has proved a successful objective. Most of this success is due to the efforts of Miss Mary E. Cornell, who first took such keen interest in this experiment in the beginning first grade that the other grades realized its importance and soon imitated her enthusiasm.

Beginning in the kindergarten and continuing all through the grades, a great number of appropriate and beautiful poems are read to and by the children. The kindergarten and first grade groups are led through their love for the Mother Goose rhymes and the Peter Patter rhymes to a keen appreciation of the poems of Rose Fyleman, Elizabeth Knoble, Christina Rossetti, Mary Mapes Dodge, Robert Louis Stevenson, and others. By the time the children reach the fourth and fifth grades they are enjoying the works of Whittier, Longfellow, Tennyson, and a score of others.

Through familiarity with their favorite poems, through group discussions, and through picture studies, the children are often inspired to create good verse themselves. Of course, in the primary grades, most of the original poems are made by the group—one child contributing a thought or line, another a rhyming word, and so on. In the third and fourth grades some of the children can write quite beautiful poems individually, provided the work is given encouragement and stimulation. The reader is referred to the article by Miss Mary E. Cornell, "Poetry in the First Grade," in The Virginia Teacher, April 1926.

The following are a few examples of the types of poems composed in the various grades in the training school:

ELFIN SWINGS

The fairies go a-swinging on the branches of the trees:
The wind blows softly, and makes a fairy breeze.
An action verse composed by a group in the 3-B Grade to the rhythm of London Bridge. Paraphrasing helps children gain confidence in writing verse.

The following verses are composed individually by children in the fourth grade. They were all stimulated by other poems, by pictures, by the season of the year, and by observation of the weather and sky.

**THE STARS**
Once two little stars came peeping,
Peeping through the sky.
Said one to the other,
"It's time we are dining,
So here is the pie."
Then they began to eat,
With the moon for a table.
Said one to the other,
"For putting the dishes away,
I don't believe we are able.
Composed by Janet Lee Miller, 4-B Grade

**WHO IS THE WIND?**
Who is the wind, I wonder.
He is always running around the house,
With a great, big blunder.
How does he move so fast, I wonder.
Sometimes he moves so fast,
It sounds like thunder.
Composed by Janet Lee Miller, 4-B Grade

**LITTLE SNOWFLAKES**
Little white snowflakes, so gentle and fair—
They have the winter's best of care.
They come dancing, dancing in a line,
Covering every tree, bush, and vine.
Composed by Delphine Keister, 4-B Grade

**THE SNOWFLAKES**
Oh! the snowflakes come falling, falling down,
They cover the bushes and trees and ground.
The pretty scene is like a fairyland,
With its dainty white trees on every hand.
But when the sun shines all the day,
At first it is golden, but soon melts away.
Composed by Helen Brill, 4-B Grade

**SPRING**
Everywhere that Spring stepped the grass grew green,
And the prettiest flowers came up that ever you've seen.
Tiny birds began to sing,
Animals ran to greet the Spring,
Said the pansy to the hyacinth, "Aren't you glad Spring is here?"
"Yes, I am," said the hyacinth. "She is such a dear."
Composed by Dorothy Lee Baugher, 4-A Grade
SUNSET

I wonder where the sun goes when it sets behind
the hill,
And everything is so silent, so quiet, and still,
Does it go to skyland through the long, long hall?
Or does it make a lamp for the fairies' ball?
If I could have a wish, I'd wish right away
That I could go with the sun just for a day.
Composed by Dorothy Lee Baugher,
4-A Grade

A BANQUET IN CAESAR'S HONOR

A Unit for Use in the Study of "Cæsar" in
the Second Year of High School

I. What the Children Did

A. They decided to give a banquet in
Roman style in honor of Cæsar's vic-
torious return from Gaul.
B. They had a meeting and chose the fol-
lowing characters:
1. Marcellus, the host.
2. Julius Cæsar, the guest of honor.
3. Claudioius, a friend and officers of
Cæsar.
4. Marcus Brutus, Cæsar's closest
friend.
5. Lucelius, a Senator friendly toward
Cæsar.
7. Cornelia, Calpurnia, Valeria, Portia,
Gracia, and Maria, wives of the men.
8. Roman citizens, foreign ambassa-
dors, prisoners, hostages, profession-
al entertainers, and slaves.
C. They decided that the conversation
should deal with current topics of the
period: Cæsar's triumph in Gaul, the
flight of Pompeius and the Senators, the
rising of the Plebes, the theater, Cicero,
the uprising in the East, the fashions.
1. Each student studied to perfect him-
self for the part he was to play.
2. He supplied the class with informa-
tion necessary for the success of the
play, but retained enough to make
his own part an individual contribu-
tion.

D. They selected committees to be in charge
of each aspect of the banquet.
1. The Costume Committee studied
Roman customs in dress and design-
ed the costumes.
a. They presented pictures to the
class showing Roman costumes
for each rank and position.
b. They helped each student make
a costume suitable for his part.
2. The Decoration Committee studied
interior decoration in Rome and ar-
ranged the gymnasium for the ban-
quet.
a. They arranged one long table and
couches on which the guests re-
clined.
b. They used "tapestry" of dyed
cheese-cloth as hangings and as
covers for the couches.
c. They gathered pictures, rugs,
skins, and statuary and made
armor of cardboard to lend at-
mosphere.
3. The Menu Committee was in charge
of the food and service.
a. They selected and prepared the
food.
b. They trained the serving men in
the proper forms.
c. They made "dinner gifts" for
each person.
d. They helped the Decoration Com-
mittee in choosing dishes, table
linen, and utensils.
4. The Entertainment Committee pre-
pared for the guests' amusement.
1. Gallic prisoners-of-war gave a
pantomime of the creation of the
world by their gods.
2. Professional entertainers gave an
acrobatic exhibition.
3. Eastern prisoners presented the
death of Hector in Grecian style.

II. What the Children Learned

A. They learned the social divisions of
Roman citizens and the distinctive dress
of each class.
1. The Consul wore a purple toga; the Senator, white with purple border; the warrior, scarlet; the citizen, white with scarlet border; the youth, plain white.

2. Roman women wore elaborately embroidered garments and many jewels.

3. The plebians wore tan or white togas, the tribunes alone having the right of a scarlet border.

4. The tunic was the indoor garment. It might be embroidered.

5. Slaves wore drab tunics and outer garments of skin. Favored slaves might be given more beautiful or more expensive costumes. Personal attendants and house slaves often wore rich and elaborate livery.

B. They learned about Roman social customs and manners.

1. Slaves met each guest at the portal, saw to his wants, and escorted him to his place at the table.

2. The host presented each guest with a dinner gift—a jewel, a curious chain, a bit of lace, a fan, a weapon.

3. Entertainers amused the guests between courses.

C. They learned about the men of Caesar’s time and the things they did.

1. Gneius Pompeius, supposedly Caesar’s friend, conspired with the Senate against him, but feared to remain at Rome when Caesar threatened to approach.

2. Marcus Brutus was an old friend of Caesar and one of the most intimate and beloved.

3. Marcus Antonius allied himself with Caesar solely for his own gain.

III. Skills and Abilities Selected for Emphasis

A. They learned to use books.

1. They learned to choose books and parts of books suited to their needs.

2. They learned to apply the information gained from books to situations about them.

3. a. They learned how to produce an effective background with few and simple materials.

   b. They learned the value of color and line in decoration.

B. They had practice in self-expression in the form of acting.

1. They transported themselves into another world, where they lived the lives of the men of that world.

2. They learned to portray the character of men about whom they had read and thought.

IV. Attitudes and Ideas Strengthened

A. The ability to work together.

1. Helping one another was essential to the success of their project.

2. Receiving suggestions from others and profiting by them enabled them to accomplish more in a set time.

B. The art of conducting oneself in a social group.

1. They gained social poise by associating with the group outside of classes.

2. They gained an appreciation of present social customs by comparing them with past customs.

V. BIBLIOGRAPHY


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*Starred references are particularly valuable.

MARGARET NEWSOME
THIRTY YEARS OF PROGRESS IN PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

The Annual Report of Dean James E. Russell, of Teachers College

At the close of thirty years of service to the cause of education, Dean Emeritus James E. Russell of Teachers College, Columbia University, in his last official report reviews the progress of professional education during that period. So important a document in the literature of this subject can hardly be abbreviated. Except for a few short opening paragraphs, therefore, it is reprinted in its entirety that readers may have full access to his penetrating observations.

The growth of professional schools is perhaps the most striking characteristic in recent university history. A comparison of the offering in professional education today with that of a generation ago shows that not only have professional schools increased in number, but their facilities have expanded beyond bounds conceived as possible by the most enthusiastic promoters of professional training in any earlier decade. In Columbia University, for example, within the period of active administrative service of its present President the three professional schools in existence when he took office have been entirely rebuilt and six new schools established, with teaching staff, equipment, and student body that stand comparison with the best in their respective fields. It is significant, too, that this expansion within the University system has not been at the expense of either collegiate or graduate instruction; Columbia College and the Schools of Political Science, Philosophy, and Pure Science are stronger and larger than they were when they provided whatever was given by way of fitting their students for the vocations now represented in the newer professional schools.

This development of professional education is the direct outcome, on the one hand, of increasing wealth—the ability to pay for expert service—and, on the other hand, of the increasing complexity of modern life and the inability of most people to cope with the forces that have been released through scientific discoveries. Our international relations and the rise of corporations and of great industrial establishments have affected our schools of law and business; discoveries of the causes of diseases and their preventive treatment are reflected in the curriculum of the medical school; the development of ore treatment to make low-grade ores profitably available has forced a new type of specialization in the school of mines; the invention of new machines for utilizing new discoveries gives new tasks in engineering; the designing and building of skyscrapers is a new problem in architecture; increasing competition in business, in journalism, in pharmacy, and in dentistry, as in every desirable vocation, bespeaks some means whereby those who are willing to fit themselves for superior service may get adequate training; the increase in printed matter in every field, the growth of specialization in every profession, and the general diffusion of knowledge among all classes of our population give an impetus to the training of librarians; and withal the pressure upon elementary and secondary teachers to supply these higher schools with better students and at the same time to satisfy patrons and taxpayers that they are getting their money’s worth in better character and better citizens, is the raison d’être of the school of education. These are merely examples of changes that have been forced upon our professional schools in recent years by conditions that have arisen in the outside world. The willingness of the public to absorb the graduates of professional schools and to pay them in proportion to their ability to render expert service is the correlative factor in the development of professional education. Neither force operating alone could account for the present situation in the American university.

But what is professional education? The answer is that professional education as con-
ceived today is not an initiation or introduction into some esoteric order. The professional worker claims no mystic gift or mysterious skill that sets him apart from his fellows. What he has can be acquired by anyone with the requisite intellectual ability who will follow the orderly progression prescribed for learners in his profession. All that the novice needs in his preparation is already in the possession of some master, or can be found in print. It is the business of the professional school to help him on the way that the masters have trod, to give him as much of the masters' knowledge as he can learn in the time at his disposal, to imbue him with their ideals, to put him in the way of acquiring their skill, and, if possible, to make him self-reliant in coping with new conditions and self-directive in the advancement of his profession. In other words, the professional school is a short cut to an objective taken under guides who know where they are going and how to avoid the pitfalls that beset the path of the lone traveller. The professional school, therefore, is at best only one means of providing what is needed by the professional worker. What he is and what he knows when he enters the professional school condition the training that the school can give, and what he is and what he does after he leaves the school determine his professional standing. Professional education does not begin with the professional school, nor does it end there. The professional school is merely a section of the route which the novice takes on the way to mastery in his profession.

The continuity of the educational process through lower schools, the college, the professional school, and on into practical life, is responsible for much of the confusion of mind regarding the materials and methods of instruction at the successive stages of advancement. It is conceded that a liberal education in the arts and sciences is an essential part of the equipment of every professional worker, but it is sometimes assumed that liberal education ends with secondary school or college. Another fallacious assumption is that professional education has no place in the college and ends with a degree from the professional school. The fact is that whatever a man learns tends either to liberalize or to degrade him, just as whatever he acquires through study and experience is an asset in his vocational capital. The difference that exists between liberal and professional education—and it is very real—is not primarily a matter of mental maturity or of grade of schooling or of subjects of instruction; it is primarily a matter of attitude of mind toward what is learned. In liberal education, the question is what will the subject do for the student; the question in professional education is what will the student do with the subject. In either case, something happens to the learner and he gets something that he can use, but very properly the emphasis is put on getting in the college, and on using in the professional school. In the college this emphasis begets an interest in a subject which finds its fruition in devotion to scholarship in the graduate schools. The same subject, taught in a professional school, has a different use; its purpose is not to round out the subject in scholarly fashion, but to be of service in professional practice. The problem of the professional curriculum, therefore, is to choose those subjects which have the most direct bearing on practice, and to select within each subject those materials which can be best presented within the time allotted.

Professional schools, as constituted today, are offshoots of the college. Any homogeneous group of students who desire to enter a vocation that promises reasonable security of tenure and satisfactory economic return can find somewhere a group of instructors to guide them and an institution to sponsor their school. Long before this stage is reached, however, the vocation has been drawing on lower school and college
for some of its equipment; the rest has been supplied by apprentice training under master workmen. Our oldest professional schools—theology, law, and medicine—grew up outside the college in response to public needs, but their students were nevertheless products of the college, from which was derived most of their intellectual sustenance. A survey of the vocations which college graduates enter nowadays will show that many occupations in public life, trade, and industry are in the position that law and medicine and the other professions were before the university set up its professional schools. From this vocational fringe surrounding the college and through the collegiate system of elective courses designed to meet individual needs, other professional schools will sometime come into being.

The American college, therefore, may be unintentionally but nevertheless actually is making a large contribution to professional education. College students with a professional bent may pick and choose for themselves not only the subjects which by an elective system may be directed to their future needs, but they may also offset the systematic presentation of any subject along scholarly lines by choosing to dwell upon those parts for which they see some practical use. This is merely another way of saying that professional education is a matter of learning as well as of teaching. The mental set of both teacher and student must be taken into account.

No subject in the curriculum of a professional school can be taught in its entirety; if, indeed, such a thing is possible anywhere. The accumulation of materials in every field of human interest is now so great that the teacher of any subject by an elective system may be directed to their future needs, but they may also offset the systematic presentation of any subject along scholarly lines by choosing to dwell upon those parts for which they see some practical use. This is merely another way of saying that professional education is a matter of learning as well as of teaching. The mental set of both teacher and student must be taken into account.

A new professional school, an offshoot of the college, naturally carries with it many academic traditions. These traditions crop up in admission requirements, methods of teaching, examinations, degrees, student government, and the like, sometimes to the advantage of the professional school but quite as likely to the detriment of professional education. The most serious transfer, however, is the carrying over of the academic teacher. A professional interest and complacent willingness to accept a new salaried position is not sufficient qualification for teaching in a professional school. The academically minded teacher revels in his subject; he classifies, systematizes, expands, and magnifies it; he has such im-
licit faith in its educational efficacy that he believes no education complete without it; scholarship is his ideal, and if he be a good teacher, his students are swept along by his enthusiasm. Such teachers are a blessing in an academic institution, but they make trouble in a professional school. Not that scholarship is not wanted in a professional school, but it is scholarship based on knowledge selected and evaluated in terms of professional needs. Even the professionally minded teacher carries over some of the tradition of his academic training. As he accumulates more and more information within his field, he is tempted to magnify the importance of what he knows; his pride in his acquisitions, especially if he engages in research, biases his judgment; the last new discovery looms large in his eyes—too large oftentimes for professional needs. Indeed, it is as possible to present a professional subject academically as to present an academic subject professionally. It is wholly a matter of emphasis in the selection and evaluation of materials of instruction.

One other fundamental problem presents itself in every professional school. It concerns the length of the curriculum. Here again academic tradition tends to prescribe certain intervals between degrees, but by and large the time spent in formal training for any profession is fixed by the economic return that may be expected from professional practice—not merely the return in dollars and cents, but also the return in human satisfactions. The school that prescribes too long a curriculum in comparison with other schools runs the risk of losing some of its best students and of keeping the plodders whose only hope of success in open competition is the advertising value of an exclusive degree. Legal enactments or the united judgment of prominent representatives of a profession expressed through national organizations may go far toward fixing the limits of professional training, but the prospect of increased compensation for more expert service is the only safe basis for raising standards in any professional school.

The problem of problems in a professional school is to find a way of giving to students, in the limited time at their disposal, that knowledge and skill which the faculty knows are needed for subsequent professional advancement. There is vastly more material available than can be utilized. To meet new conditions or to make use of new materials, there is need of readjustments which are not always easy to secure. The first step is to modify old courses, generally by the process of addition without subtraction. The next step is to introduce new courses. Either method results ultimately in extending the hours of prescribed duties beyond the ability of students to do honest work. A notable example of this tendency was seen in the medical schools a few years ago when upward of forty hours a week were prescribed for class work. The only sensible thing to do under such circumstances was to reduce the prescription or to extend the curriculum. The medical schools took both ways out. They cut to reasonable length the number of hours prescribed for class work and, being unable to extend the curriculum upward, they forced it downward into the college by requiring a particular combination of courses for admission. By virtue of the elective system, the college has come to the rescue of the schools of law, medicine, and engineering. Other pre-professional courses will be set up in the college whenever the other professional schools discover that they are loaded with more than the traffic can bear.

There comes a time, however, when further extension, either downward or upward, is impossible. When these limits are reached, our professional schools will have arrived at the most critical stage of their development. They cannot do as the college does—offer a choice of courses to suit individual preferences; there is but one choice
possible, and that is to choose to do what
the profession demands of its novices.

One hindrance to unbiased selection of
materials for instruction in a professional
school is a departmental organization of the
staff. Such an organization has the back-
ing of academic tradition and is fostered in
the professional school by pride of owner-
ship in a particular field. A sense of pro-
prietorship is the natural reaction to con-
sciousness of possession. The recognition
of peculiar responsibilities on the part of
some members of a staff is inevitable for
administrative purposes, if for no other rea-
son; the expenditure of funds, the equip-
ment of laboratories, and the management
of clinical and hospital services are ex-
amples of duties that must be assigned to
responsible persons. It does not follow,
however, that such an assignment of duties
confers the right to build up a department
of the academic type. A department tends
to magnify a subject and to expand a field
of knowledge, a process proper enough in
an academic faculty or in the research work
of a professional school, but wholly out of
place in the regular course of instruction
of professional novices. The chief danger
of over-developed departments in a pro-
fessional school is the reluctance of repre-
sentatives of special interests to subordinate
their proprietary claims to the welfare of
the student body. The tendency is to check
claim against claim as though a curriculum
were an aggregation of departmental units
rather than a consistent whole. When fac-
ulty politics enters, the contest degenerates
into a game of give and take between de-
partments in which pacifists suffer and pro-
gress is checked. Conservatism is the logical
result of self-satisfaction and the possession
of power.

Methods of teaching in a professional
school have undergone a marked change in
recent years. Blackstone's Commentaries
and systematic lectures on materia medica
were once staples of instruction in our elder
schools. Gradually this thrusting of funda-
mental principles into the foreground has
given way to the case system and bedside
practice. If the old method tended to hide
the trees in the woods, the new method tends
to let the separate trees blot out the woods
altogether. A rational theory would pre-
serve the integrity of both concrete and ab-
stract factors in teaching. A professional
school is expected to develop special knowl-
edge, attitudes, and skills in its students.
It must take into consideration both the
learner and the things to be learned. The
neglect of the learner's capacity to learn is
a cause of some troubles. The lower his de-
gree of intelligence the more stress upon
minute direction and specific tasks. The boy
apprenticed to a master workman must be
shown what to do and how to do it, and
kept in practice until right habits are formed.
But at the other extreme, a student of
high intelligence who is capable of making
his own design may with greater assured
be left to find his own way of execution.
The higher the degree of intelligence, the
less need of stressing elementary techniques
and the greater scope for self-reliance and
self-direction. No professional school can
escape the obligation of giving its students
the skills necessary to advancement to the
next step in their professional careers, but
it requires some acumen to determine how
much technical training is necessary at any
particular stage. Considering all that might
be taught, the limits of time forbid over-
indulgence in any phase of the curriculum.
Reduction in time devoted to technical train-
ing is correlated closely with increase in in-
tellectual ability. By the same token, the
relative emphasis upon concrete and abstract
knowledge is primarily a matter of intelli-
gence of the learner.

The mark of superior scholarship is the
ability to deal with abstract terms and fun-
damental principles. How to arrive at a
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a thing is good or bad by reference to uni-
versals, how to analyze a situation and pro-
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The mark of superior scholarship is the
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versals, how to analyze a situation and pro-
pose a plan for its modification, this is the
aim of good teaching in its higher reaches. The professional school that does not attain some success in bringing its students up to this standard is little better than a trade school. Students of superior intelligence can easily apprehend the fundamentals in any subject, and that without overmuch dependence upon their teachers; some succeed in spite of their teaching. But all students are not of that mental caliber; some need help while learning to stand alone. In general, it may be said that most of our students need help and a good deal of it. With most of them, generalization comes late and by dint of much effort. From the teacher's standpoint, the safest approach is by way of concrete instance. Neither philosophy nor religion comes by baptism. Talking about fundamentals, lecturing about general principles, by the teacher, is not the same as understanding by the student. What the learner gets from his instruction is the only criterion of worthwhile teaching. Methods vary with the subject, with the teacher, and with the student. The search for "method," some universal panacea for all pedagogical ills, may be relegated to the realm of quackery. What actually happens with the "case method," the "project method," and the "laboratory method," and similar devices in teaching, is that a way is found by which the learner gets a clear-cut impression of a concrete instance. If then the instance is typical of an important series of facts, the learner comprehends quickly the abstract concept under which all such particulars are subsumed. It is the logical way of learning through a psychological approach. The chief virtue in the process, however, lies not so much in the method of approach as in the selection of the case or the project or the concrete instance. It must be one that points directly at the generalization which is sought. The generalization once understood, the way is paved for its use in eliminating particulars which do not conform to the standard. The danger in the "case method" is that the fundamental principle may never be adequately comprehended; whereas the fault in the systematic approach is that concrete instances may be wanting in reality. The systematic method copiously illustrated by cases and the use of cases to arrive at fundamentals are but the two sides of the same shield. Again the emphasis falls on the choice of materials of instruction, a choice dictated by the needs of the practitioner rather than by way of developing a subject.

It has been said that a person who lacks a philosophy of life is like a mariner on the high seas without chart or compass. Certainly a professional worker without an understanding of the principles of his profession has no reliable guide to professional success. It is not enough that he should be trained to act under conditions which are familiar. Professional growth must somehow keep pace with professional progress. The highest ideal sets a standard of achievement which outruns immediate needs and to which the practitioner may aspire only after years of persistent striving. The professional school that upholds such an ideal and consistently directs its energies to this end will surely inspire some of its students to attain the heights of their profession. But not all students have the stuff in them that makes leaders. Not all mariners are given an opportunity to stand on the bridge or to use chart and compass. While it is well to keep one's eyes on the stars, it is the part of wisdom to watch the path. In every profession there are minor positions to be filled, subordinate posts in which reliable workers may give indispensable service, expert helpers on jobs requiring cooperative effort. A faculty that fails to take into account the range of professional service open to its graduates, or refuses to consider the personal qualifications of its students, is guilty of malpractice, however high its ideals may be. A little common sense mixed with ideals and standards and honors makes a good combination. The theorist in professional training needs the
balance that only actual experience in professional practice can supply.

The problem of securing capable teachers for a professional school deserves serious consideration. The desirable qualifications of an instructor are so numerous as to make him a paragon of human excellence—a gentleman, a scholar, a professional expert, a teacher and philosopher. The emoluments of a teacher's job rarely equal the pay of a third-rate practitioner. Faith in youth and love of teaching are the chief inducements to professorial positions. Part-time service by men in active practice can be defended if their activities are confined to what they can do best; but their best is seldom revealed in good teaching, and never in good management. A professional school controlled by a faculty whose interests are centered elsewhere is in reality an orphanage administered by benevolent sectarians. Our best professional schools have rid themselves of philanthropic volunteers, but they have not always succeeded in replacing them with capable teachers. The best results are obtained by giving to young graduates who have the right personality and exceptional ability an opportunity to advance in scholarship and to acquaint themselves with professional practice, either by supervised contacts with professional workers or by actual participation in professional service. Young men trained along these lines are then ready for training as teachers. Unfortunately, this phase of professional equipment is still in the apprentice stage. At best, the novice in teaching can hope for only occasional visits of his superior officers, and too often their criticisms are not constructive. He works behind closed doors; he lacks the stimulus to improvement that would come from active competition with his fellows in shop or in office or in the field. Experience may bring confidence, but it is quite as likely to breed bad habits. Indifference to his task, or dislike of it, ultimately quenches all desire to excel. Just how such a situation can be remedied it is difficult to see. No systematic plan of teacher-training is likely to meet the needs of all professional schools. Some instruction in the psychology of individual differences and the learning process might have general application, and by proper criticism bad classroom habits might be overcome; but the fundamental problem in teaching lies in the selection of materials of instruction and their presentation in such a way as to meet professional needs. Inasmuch as our schools have little in common by way of materials or professional needs, it would seem that each one must work out its own salvation. With ever-increasing supply of new knowledge in every field, with curricula crowded to the limit, with the public demand for new professional skills, it is apparent that the next step in advance in professional education must come through better equipped teachers.

The insistent appeal of society for increasingly expert service forces our professional schools to provide for specialization along many lines. In medicine the specialist has almost superseded the family doctor; in law no one aspires to fame in every department; in engineering there is sharp cleavage between service in the line and in the staff; in journalism the range is from business management to editorial writing; in teaching every leader is a specialist, because he stands alone. And, moreover, each specialty implies research and investigation. The search for information, the quest of discovery, not only is the means of defining the limits of a new field of knowledge, but it supplies a life-giving stream to the standard professional curriculum. Academic research may lead the investigator to take more interest in his subject than in his students, but professional research is so intimately tied up with practice that, like charity, it blesses both him who gives and him who takes. Obviously, a course for beginners is not designed to train specialists. Whatever provision is made must be postgraduate.

Specialization of professional service is
no new thing, but formal schooling for it is a recent introduction. In most fields the apprentice system still predominates; special knowledge and skills are picked up by working with a master. Co-operation with hospitals and the development of research in medical schools are beginning to offer a new route to medical specialists; journalism finds an opportunity in the difficulties encountered by reporters in getting the chance to qualify for special positions. Teachers College is an outstanding example of a professional school devoted exclusively to specialized training. The reason is that in our lower schools no systematic provision is made for supervised training of teachers after they leave the normal school, and little opportunity is given to qualify for higher positions. In some other professional fields practitioners can get what they want without leaving employment or the expenditure of funds. It follows, therefore, that graduate work in such professional schools will be delayed. The time is coming, however, with the advancement of research and highly developed techniques in practice, when the facilities of the professional school will outweigh the advantages offered by the master specialist.

Specialization presupposes some years of successful experience in professional practice—the kind of experience that reveals one’s powers and, justifies one’s ambition to press forward. It is not merely age, therefore, but primarily a view of life and an appreciation of professional responsibility that come with age, which differentiate the postgraduate student from the novice in training. The two kinds do not mix well. When both are found in the same institution, it is almost inevitable that the interests of one should be sacrificed to the advantage of the other. My prediction is that the Columbia schools of law, medicine, engineering, business, and journalism will eventually become postgraduate schools. The present curricula of these schools cannot be lengthened materially without cutting themselves off from the base of supplies, and it is idle to suppose that a genuine postgraduate school with its mature and self-selected students can be made a mere addendum to anything that now exists. Undergraduate professional schools may be maintained indefinitely, if room and equipment and financial support are assured, but no great university can fail to respond to the obligation of using its resources first of all for the education of those who are to become the leaders in the strategic positions of public life.

The fact that educational progress is conditioned by intellectual ability leads some critics to denounce the work of American schools and colleges. Comparison is made with schools abroad—particularly German schools under the old régime—greatly to the disadvantage of our own institutions. It is said that two years or more are lost somewhere between the primary school and the university, and withal the foundation for higher education is less securely laid. Be that as it may, the criticism would be much more worthwhile if its spokesmen knew more of their subject. The American professor who spends a year or two in a German university is greatly impressed with the freedom of teaching and the freedom of learning that prevail in those institutions; he sees students making their way with little help and attaining a conspicuous standing in scholarship, but he does not see what has gone before the university experience and he knows little of the forces that underlie the social system.

The German schools under the old régime—the old régime is the one always set up as an example to us—were state controlled and state administered. This direction, even if supported by municipalities, was according to state regulations; the curriculum was prescribed by state authority; they were inspected and examined by state officials. Their teachers were educated in state institutions, licensed by state examination, appointed by the state, paid by the state, and pensioned in old age by the state. Probably no nation has ever had so com-
petent a body of teachers as Prussia had in her secondary schools before the war. They were civil servants sworn to uphold the government, and right well did they do their duty. They knew exactly what to teach at every step, and their methods permitted of no excuses. Boys spent long hours in school, and every hour was an instruction period. The teacher's business was to teach—not to hear recitations; the boy's task was to learn what the teacher presented. There was no need of textbooks with explanations and illustrations and worked-out examples. In mathematics the textbook was a collection of problems; in history, a syllabus; in foreign languages, the literature itself. Home work was a review of what had been learned in class. The aim was to have the boy learn what his superiors decreed that he should know, and to acquire that knowledge with as few mistakes as possible. And that no outside distraction should interfere, the boy was the ward of the school from the time he left home until his return. Hence, parents had nothing to say about what was done in school; visitation was permitted only on exhibition days; admission to a public library was forbidden; extra-curricular activities were restricted, and even the publishing of a school paper was forbidden. Finally, the boy's education was topped off in the years spent in military training. Such, in brief, was the making of candidates for admission to the German university. Is it possible to conceive of an educational system better calculated to beget dependence upon authority? This system, state-wide in its application and comprehending the education of all boys to the age of nineteen or twenty years, made Germany the fighting machine of 1914.

But dependence upon authority is not synonymous with initiative, self-control, and self-reliance that make for leadership. And Germany did develop leaders of extraordinary capacity. How was it done? The answer is, it was done in the German universities and higher technical schools and by methods diametrically opposite to the methods of the lower schools. The German university required no attendance upon its classes; it kept no records and held no examinations in course; it paid no attention to the habits or conduct of its students except in emergency; a student might keep his name on the rolls for years and never meet an instructor. Meantime the prospective leader in public affairs was getting from his student societies a training in what constitutes a conventional gentleman, how to live his university life, how to meet his equals and address his superiors, how to deal with his enemies in the duel—a course of training as elaborate and exacting as German thoroughness could make it. From such experience one got self-control and Muth, a term, in this sense, translatable into English only by a slang phrase. Finally, a time came when the state examination had to be met—that gateway to every avenue of advance in public life and professional service, a hurdle set up by state authority and designed quite as much to bar the unfit as to select the best. For this test, the candidate had to fit himself with whatever aid he might get from any source. The university offered the means, but the student had little help in using them. The man who after years of academic idleness or dissipation could pull himself together and finally win his goal was a man of power. Initiative developed under the stress of necessity, and with self-direction came self-control and self-reliance. In this way Germany found her leaders. It was a ruthless system, but there was always an over-supply of raw material on which to draw. What to do with the failures was a problem that Germany never solved. Bismarck realized its significance when he said that Germany had most to fear from its educated proletariat.

Contrast this German mode of education with our own. Schools open to children of all classes, supported largely at local expense, directed by lay trustees, and con-
trolled by public opinion; teachers poorly trained and ill paid; textbooks like encyclopedias; libraries, movies, and the radio at everyone's disposal; games and sports a major interest. The only method of teaching that adults of this generation would recognize as typically American was the recitation, the repetition in class or on examination of materials assigned for home study, a method that encouraged guessing and made class work a contest of wits between teacher and pupil. But, whatever its faults, it did one thing well: it developed initiative in American youth—it made them bold and daring, willing to take chances, ready to try anything once. It fits a new country that has need of pioneers. It is a debatable question whether schooling determines a people's characteristics or is determined by them. It is clear, however, that our type of schooling has been characteristically American. Modification will come in time, but revolutionary change is inconceivable so long as our education is of the people, for the people, and by the people.

Leadership in the future will not come by chance. Scientific precision will replace guesswork. Exact knowledge must prevail in high places. Something may be done to improve scholarship in our secondary schools on the part of those who can use it, but the American secondary school has other duties beside the making of scholars. Granting the necessity of scholarship, the heaviest load must be carried by our colleges and university schools. They have no need to encourage initiative in thought or action in their students; young Americans exhibit independence enough when left to themselves. But what our students do need is to learn how to study, how to do straightforward, logical thinking, how to round out an intellectual task in scholarly fashion; in a word, they need discipline in learning. The only way to attain this result is by straightforward instruction under a master. Desultory teaching with the assignment of tasks to be done at home will not do it. Threats and browbeating will not do it. University teachers might well learn a lesson from business, where the responsible heads train their subordinates in all kindness, but tolerate no mistakes and permit no guesswork.

The oversight of students in the American university is fully justified, its practice of requiring class attendance, quizzes, and examinations, its emphasis upon personal contact between teacher and students—all these peculiarities of our higher education are fully justified, if good teaching holds the student to his job. No apology is necessary for our failure to use French or German methods in our higher schools, unless we are willing to adopt the European straight-jacket in our lower schools.

This sketch of the principles underlying professional education is a summary of the experience gained in thirty years of association with my colleagues in Columbia University. While no one school may have faced all the problems here presented, every question has been put to some school. A digest of the annual reports of the several Deans would read like a commentary on the subject. The reports of President Butler are most illuminating; his clear-cut exposition of the philosophic basis of all education has been a standing challenge to progressive endeavor in every department. The development of Teachers College has been a practical illustration of these principles. We have faced new conditions in public education—unparalleled growth in school attendance, extraordinary increase in school expenditures, new ideals, new curricula, and new methods of instruction—and have set ourselves the task of training leaders for this new service; we have gradually eliminated young students in favor of those who have had the best that the college and normal school can give preparatory to actual experience in teaching; in dealing with specialists we have abandoned all set curricula in the effort to meet the needs of each individual; we have avoided a departmental organization; and we have emphasized re-
search and investigation far beyond the usual practice in professional schools. What is known now in every field is so much in excess of a student's ability to acquire in the time at his disposal that our chief problem is to choose what is most useful. This challenge to the professional acumen of our staff is the legacy I leave to my successor and his colleagues in full confidence that they will carry on in the spirit that has characterized the work of the past thirty years.

STANDING COMMITTEES OF CITY BOARDS OF EDUCATION

The tendency among city boards of education is to reduce the number of standing committees or to abolish them. Of 41 boards of education in cities of 100,000 or more population reporting to the Bureau of Education in 1917 only 3 had no standing committees; of 55 boards of education in cities of this size reporting in 1927, 21 have no such committees. The average number of standing committees in each of the cities reporting in 1917 was 5.6 and the average number in the cities reporting in 1927 is 3.4.

Of 25 boards of education in cities of 100,000 or more population reporting both in 1917 and 1927, 11 have reduced the number of standing committees, and 9 have abolished them or else have constituted the board as a committee of the whole. Five have increased the number. The average number of standing committees in each of these 25 cities in 1917 was 6.4 and in 1927 the average number is 3.5.

Of 131 boards of education in cities from 30,000 to 100,000 population reporting in 1917, only 12 had no standing committees; of 140 boards of education in cities of this size reporting in 1927, 35 do not have such committees. The average number of standing committees in each city reporting in 1917 was 5.9, and in 1927 the average number is 4.2.

Of 56 boards of education in cities of 30,000 to 100,000 population reporting both in 1917 and 1927, 24 have reduced the number of standing committees, and 15 have abolished them or constituted the board as a committee of the whole. Seventeen of the 56 cities have increased the number of committees. The average number of standing committees in these 56 cities in 1917 was 6.2 and in 1927 the average number is 4.2.

In all, about 30 different kinds of committees are reported by both classes of cities. Besides the usual committees on finance, buildings and grounds, textbooks and supplies, and teachers, some boards of education have one or more of the following committees: Evening schools, courses of study, medical inspection, truancy, library, athletics, grievances, rules and regulations, manual training, executive, cafeteria, discipline, retirement, legislation, extra curricular activities, special education, auditing, Americanization, elementary schools, and high schools.

How many and what standing committees a board of education should have is a question that every board of education must decide for itself, but the tendency is to reduce the number of standing committees or even to abolish them. Authorities on school administration recommend that standing committees be abolished.

The following extracts from city school survey reports prepared within the past few years indicate the general attitude of authorities on city school administration in regard to standing committees:

"The practice of school boards to appoint standing subcommittees to whom various executive and technical functions may be delegated is now happily passing away throughout the country. There are various reasons for the disappearance of such subcommittees to school boards, but two of
them are so important that they must be mentioned here.

"First, many of the duties assigned to standing subcommittees are technical; as, for example, the duties of a committee on textbooks and supplies, or of a committee on school hygiene, or of a superintending committee, or of a committee on buildings and grounds. * * *

"Second, by assigning technical and executive functions to standing subcommittees, the board deprives itself of the leadership required in the discharge of those functions. * * *

"Incidentally, it should be noted that the abolition of standing subcommittees of the board causes a practical increase in the responsibilities of every member of the board. As a member of a subcommittee he usually feels chiefly responsible for the work of his subcommittee and only a limited responsibility for decisions relative to the work of other subcommittees."—Report on a Survey of Certain Aspects of the Lancaster, Pa., City School District, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, 1924-25. Paul H. Hanus, Director.

"Inevitably the tendency of permanent committees is to undertake regulation and to retain duties rather than to consider the broader questions of policy which need to be formulated definitely for the guidance of the board of education. When a board of education definitely adopts the policy of making a superintendent the executive head of the school system, including both the education and business system, and abandons the idea of permanent committees, securing through the superintendent the definite series of recommendations and reports for each board meeting, the actual work of the board is carried on, on a far higher plane."—Survey of the Peoria (Ill.) Public Schools, by Charles E. Chadsey, Director, 1924.

"Eliminate standing committees. A city looks to the board of nine members to manage its schools. With standing committees, the board breaks itself up into several smaller boards, loses some of that unity of understanding on the part of the whole body which is so essential, scatters its energies, and wastes its time."—Volume One, The Racine School Survey, Racine, Wis. A. S. Barr, Department of Education, University of Wisconsin, Director. 1926.

"There is always some question as to the respective functions of committees of boards of education. Some of the best authorities declare that the small board of education can function and meet its responsibilities much better without any standing committees. As the work which falls on the members of the standing committee can often be equally well done by other administrative methods we are inclined to the opinion that boards of education might better so organize their work as to delegate reasonable responsibility to their appointed executive officer. This should be done, of course, under proper restrictions. If so organized, the work of the board can often be done more efficiently and responsibility can be definitely fixed."—A Report of the Survey of the Lockport (N. Y.) School System, by the State Department of Education, 1924.

"It is important that the board of education consider the program and policies proposed by the superintendent of schools as a board and not in separate committees who report to the general body. There may be times when a special committee of the board of education will prove useful in reviewing carefully with the executive officer or his associates some problem requiring careful study from the layman's point of view. In such cases special committees should be appointed and their report should be considered along with the recommendation of the superintendent. The chairman of a standing committee quite commonly comes to believe that he has some peculiar fitness or ability in the field represented by his committee and frequently he will be inclined to assume the function of the executive."—
SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT ASSOCIATIONS ACTIVE IN FIVE STATES

For about a quarter of a century school improvement associations or leagues have been important agencies in the improvement of school and community conditions, especially in the South. Such organizations have aided in arousing popular interest in schools and in promoting school legislation, according to a study of State school improvement associations, by Edith A. Lathrop, published by the Interior Department, Bureau of Education, as Rural School Leaflet No. 42.

The associations maintain close relations with State departments of education, and in South Carolina the association works under the immediate direction of the department. The chief activity of the associations is in raising money for school improvement. Such local associations in 1925 raised and expended for this purpose $93,800 in South Carolina and $170,000 in Virginia. Local Virginia leagues expended in five years more than a million dollars for educational purposes. Membership in the associations, according to latest available records, was 15,000 in Arkansas, 22,000 in South Carolina, and 70,000 (including juniors) in Virginia. Maine reported 600 local leagues in 1921. The National Congress of Parents and Teachers is doing in many States work formerly carried on by school improvement associations.

The business of schools is through and by the use of a common service to get at the true spiritual nature of the ordinary things we have to deal with.

Sanderson of Oundle

REFUTES PROVERB ABOUT MINISTERS’ SONS

Ministers’ sons in Yale University rank highest in both class rating and mental ability, as shown by recent analysis of returns from a student personnel survey of occupations of parents, conducted in the spring of 1926. Sons of ministers made the average mark of 79.6; lawyers’ sons, 77.9; the combined professions of teaching and ministry, 77.8; medicine, 77.3; business, 76.1; engineering and science, 75.8; writing and artistic professions, 74.2; all others, 75.2. The mental test ratings were: Ministry, 63; writing and art, 62; law, 57; teaching, 55; combined professions, 55; medicine, 53; engineering and science, 50; all others, 51. In the number of hours devoted to study, it was found that lawyers’ sons put in the longest hours, and sons of writers the shortest.

An estimated saving of about $5,000 a year in the purchase of supplies for rural schools in San Luis Obispo County, Calif., was brought about by a co-operative arrangement under which bids are received and goods ordered by a county purchasing agent. Prices paid for supplies have been reduced more than half, and the time of teacher and school board is saved by eliminating the visits of sales agents.

Of the 35,043 students who were graduated in 1925-26 from 4-year and senior high schools of Pennsylvania, 38.5 per cent have entered higher institutions, 6.9 per cent are studying in commercial or nurse-training schools, 35.1 per cent are employed in business or industrial establishments, 3.7 per cent are farming, and 14.5 per cent are at home or unaccounted for.

Laughter is the birthright of every child. It should be cultivated in every home.

Outspoken sincerity we must have, for that is where the new education begins.
**EDUCATIONAL COMMENT**

**THE TRAINING OF VIRGINIA TEACHERS**

FROM the office of Dabney S. Lancaster, Secretary of the State Board of Education, comes the following summary to show in what state institutions Virginia's teachers are trained. Of course, many additional teachers come from Virginia's private colleges and from out-of-state institutions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Graduates</th>
<th>In Counties</th>
<th>In Cities</th>
<th>In State</th>
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<tr>
<td>University of Virginia:</td>
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<td>Graduates</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>45</td>
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<tr>
<td>Non-graduates</td>
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<td>131</td>
<td>777</td>
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<td>College of William and Mary:</td>
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<td>Graduates</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>285</td>
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<tr>
<td>Non-graduates</td>
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<td>59</td>
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<tr>
<td>Graduates four-year course</td>
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<td>43</td>
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<tr>
<td>Graduates two-year course</td>
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<td>481</td>
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<tr>
<td>Non-graduates</td>
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<td>59</td>
<td>891</td>
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<td>Fredericksburg State Teachers College:</td>
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<tr>
<td>Graduates four-year course</td>
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<tr>
<td>Graduates two-year course</td>
<td>356</td>
<td>129</td>
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<td>Graduates two-year course</td>
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<td>Graduates two-year course</td>
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<td>Non-graduates</td>
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**WHAT PRICE COLLEGE?**

JOHN D. ROCKEFELLER, JR., in a recent speech at Brown University, pointed out that the student pays only half of the actual cost to the college of his education and suggested increased tuition fees for the great majority of students, and scholarships, student aid, and loan funds for those who cannot pay more. Commenting on Mr. Rockefeller's suggestions, the New York World says:

"This is a revolutionary proposal. It is even more revolutionary if it is applied to state universities. They form no logical exception to his assertions; it must soon prove as difficult to wheedle legislators into giving greatly increased annual appropriations to state universities as it will be to provide a perpetual crop of wealthy and generous donors to private foundations. How shall they bridge the yawning chasm between income and outgo? Must they abandon their long-honored policy of providing free education and begin collecting tuition fees from their students?"

"The problem which Mr. Rockefeller has in mind is a real one; one which people in general have not yet faced; one which must be faced by every institution of the higher learning that aims to keep abreast of educational needs. With applicants for college education increasing four times as fast as endowments, even the unparalleled generosity of college founders and donors cannot begin to keep pace with the demand for those facilities which spell progress for the
nation as well as for the individuals affected. Neither by taxation nor by endowments is there any prospect that our colleges generally will be able to raise professors' salaries to a living level; and this must be done if the quality of teaching is not to deteriorate.

"In raising the question Mr. Rockefeller has rendered a service to American education."

EDUCATION TOO DIFFUSE

PROFESSOR GEORGE DANIEL OLDS, whose resignation as president of Amherst college became effective recently, speaking to members of the Amherst Alumni association of Boston, said that "modern education has failed to teach concentration. There has been too much diffuseness in education. I believe that the present tendency is toward individual teaching and toward requirement in certain subjects. Amherst is working toward required courses during the first two years of the college course, and freedom to choose subjects during the last two years. Amherst has always stood for training of mind and body and for something more than this, for the formation of character. Open-mindedness is the greatest single agency in character building."—Minneapolis School Bulletin.

ORIGIN OF THE CHRISTMAS CAROL

The mention of either St. Francis of Assisi, or of a carol, brings to mind a picture of Christmas. For of the many things St. Francis did, not the least was originating the Christmas carol during the Christmas of twelve hundred and twenty-three.

The word carol implies a dance, and all the old carols—and any genuine carol—is written in a dance rhythm. The pagans danced at their worship and the dance was permitted on certain occasions in the early church.

Thus came into being a custom which has resulted in a church service and the Christmas carol, both of lasting influence on the church and art. Why? Because any study of the early church, music, poetry and art is not complete without due consideration of St. Francis of Assisi.

* * * * * * *

The old carols were written in the old church modes, a matter too technical to deal with here, but to one who is familiar with this form and style, there is nothing that can supersede it for its individual beauty. The words, however, with few exceptions, are to even broad-minded people, immoral.

It is with all this in mind that many of our beautiful carols in modern tonalities have been written; and it is with all this in mind, too, that those interested in a finer art, are striving to set modern lyrics to the old modes, resulting in a modern Christmas carol, pure and beautiful.—Alice M. Beveridge, in the Progressive Teacher.

AND THIS IS THE TWENTIETH CENTURY!

WHAT may surely be considered extreme cases are cited by Thomas Minehan in a recent issue of the Nation. He writes:

"A school in Missouri wanted me to sign a resignation with a contract. The resignation was to be effective together with the forfeiture of all salary that might be due me if I should smoke a cigarette, pipe, or cigar at any time, in any place, during the period my contract was to run. I did not sign. A girl of my acquaintance went out to Montana a few years ago after signing a similar contract except that the prohibition was against dancing on school nights. After the first of the year there was no money in
the county treasury. She was paid in dribbles until the end of May. When she applied for the remainder of her wages, she was presented with evidence showing that she had been seen at a dance one night in March and consequently no further money was owed her.

"The end is not yet. A woman received a contract from a small village along the seacoast of North Carolina. It contained the usual stipulations in regard to certification, boarding at the dormitory, sacrificing pay while unable to work, and in addition the following clauses:

I promise to take a vital interest in all phases of Sunday school work, donating of my time, service, and money without stint for the uplift and benefit of the community.

I promise to abstain from all dancing, immodest dressing, and any other conduct unbecoming a teacher and a lady.

I promise not to go out with any young men except in so far as it may be necessary to stimulate Sunday school work.

I promise not to fall in love, to become engaged or secretly married.

I promise to remain in the dormitory or on the school grounds when not actively engaged in school or church work elsewhere.

I promise not to encourage or tolerate the least familiarity on the part of any of my boy pupils except in so far as it may be necessary to stimulate Sunday school work.

I promise to take a vital interest in all phases of Sunday school work, donating of my time, service, and money without stint for the uplift and benefit of the community.

I promise to sleep at least eight hours a night, to eat carefully, and to take every precaution to keep in the best of health and spirits in order that I may be better able to render efficient service to my pupils.

I promise to remember that I owe a duty to the townspeople who are paying me my wages, that I owe respect to the school board and the superintendent that hired me, and that I shall consider myself at all times the willing servant of the school board and the townspeople and that I shall co-operate with them to the limit of my ability in any movement aimed at the betterment of the town, the pupils, or the schools.

"This, remember, for a job paying eighty-five dollars a month for seven and a half months in a little town of three or four hundred persons, located in the mosquito and fever district of North Carolina, where half the inhabitants cannot read or write.

"This is the most restrictive contract I have ever seen, but anyone who is familiar with the conditions of restraint under which the average teacher works and with the attitude of the community toward the teacher cannot help admiring its frankness. There are hundreds of places where every provision mentioned in that contract is enforced. A teacher may not be required in writing to teach Sunday school, but the teacher who fails to do so will not be re-elected. A teacher may not have to promise not to fall in love but if she does she had better marry as soon as possible, for in nine cases out of ten she will find herself out of a job the next year. A teacher may not have to sign a pledge to sleep at least eight hours a night, but the teacher who wants his job will not keep a light going long after curfew."

EDUCATION OF NEGROES A RURAL PROBLEM

Of the 24,079 Negro schools in the 14 Southern States, during the school year 1925-26, 22,494 (93.4 per cent) were rural, and 1,585 (6.6 per cent) were urban schools, according to a study of Negro schools in the south by S. L. Smith, published in the Southern Workman. One-teacher schools, numbering 15,385, composed 63.8 per cent of the total number of Negro schools; 4,525 schools (18.8 per cent) were of the two-teacher type, 1,702 (7.1 per cent) three-teacher type, and 2,494 schools (10.3 per cent) employed four or more teachers. The average length of the school year in the 22,494 rural schools was about 6 months. The range was from 8.7 months in Maryland to 4.7 months in Alabama.

Of the 2,963,358 Negro children of school age living in the South, 68.9 per cent in rural sections and 75.6 per cent in cities were enrolled in school. Of the 801 Negro high schools in the 14 states, 209 are four-year accredited high schools. Total enrollment in the 801 high schools was 68,606, and the number of four-year graduates was 6,435.

Training that permeates the heart is the training that is going to stay.
BOOKS

PRACTICAL AND VALUABLE


This source book has been planned especially for teachers and women freshmen students in colleges, normal schools, and universities. It is up-to-date in the topics considered and emphasizes the importance of health, health examinations, nutrition, causes of malnutrition, social hygiene, mental hygiene and the college student, sunlight and health, as well as diseased conditions and physical defects.

The references given at the end of each outline are very complete. The questions listed are valuable for class discussions also.

In addition to the thirty-two outlines, the book lists health organizations and health periodicals that may help the teacher. This is a practical and valuable book and should be known by every teacher of hygiene.

Rachael F. Weems

A STIMULATING TRILOGY


In this enlarged edition of a very stimulating smaller treatise published in 1920 we have a companion volume to The Junior College, and The American Secondary School. In these three books the author offers a comprehensive and vital treatment of the whole field of secondary education.

Dr. Koos finds that the object and functions of the junior high school remain relatively unchanged, as they are based on adolescent psychology. This new edition, however, is replete with new data on the developments in the curriculum and methods of teaching, while chapters on the advisory system, social organization, and the classification of pupils, trace the more rapidly changing traits of this stage of school organization. The reader finds at once that much current reorganization is in name only and that it is retarding and not encouraging the true junior high school. The author's wide acquaintance with the subject and his masterful marshalling of facts make the book peculiarly helpful to those contemplating reorganization to include the junior high school.

The reviewer finds that The Junior High School is also characterized by clearness of statement, a wealth of illustrative material, and fine mechanical make-up. The teacher and student in the field will find the bibliographies and problems with each chapter excellent helps. Our school and private professional libraries should have this volume as well as its two companion volumes for their freshness of treatment, and their direct attack on current problems.

W. J. Gifford

A MODERN BOOK ON ARITHMETIC TEACHING


This book will be particularly helpful to teachers because, as its title indicates, its scope is limited. Attention is concentrated on the processes in arithmetic taught in the intermediate grades. The special difficulties of these grades, as revealed by a study of errors, are discussed and definite procedure is recommended for correcting these errors.

In a chapter on examinations the author states their abuses and legitimate uses and, illustrating with samples of the new-type classroom tests, makes sane and helpful suggestions for the use of these tests as teaching devices.

Throughout the book a modern viewpoint prevails in the emphasis on processes and problems that are worthwhile from the standpoint of life needs and reality. The results of scientific studies in the field of arithmetic are made available for teachers, and, with the principles of educational psychology, are translated into classroom procedure.

Emily Goodlett
A FIRST-YEAR COURSE IN LATIN


This book is based on the recommendations of the "Report of the Classical Investigation." The informative and stimulating introduction cannot fail to arouse the interest of the student as he begins his study of Latin. There are many excellent illustrations portraying Roman life. They are of such a nature as to make an instant appeal to every boy and girl. Roman life, manners, customs, and history are vividly glimpsed in these pages. The application of Latin to English in each lesson is admirably done so that a student thoroughly understands the many English words of Latin extraction. A book of this nature is indispensable to any one who professes to having an exact knowledge of the English language.

John A. Sawhill

WHEN ARE ACTIVITIES EXTRA?


Starting out with the thesis that knowledge and practice must go together if we are to develop good citizens, the author shows how many of the activities that have commonly been thought of as extracurricular should really be parts of the regular curriculum. And he seems to have proved his point in many instances.

The first chapter, on the underlying principles of extracurricular activities, is by far the best in the book. It summarizes the best thought on the subject. This is followed by a chapter on the psychology of the student. From the third chapter to the last, the book is filled with types of student activities not usually considered a part of the regular curriculum, and suggestions for carrying them on successfully.

The reader is impressed with the fact that most of these activities are such that they may include not just a few of the student body but almost the entire school.

A characteristic of the book is its concreteness, theory being subordinated to accounts of actual practice. Nor is the fact lost sight of that the wave of enthusiasm over such activities may lead to overemphasis, that "the side show may eat up the main tent."

C. P. Shorts

STRONG IN TEACHING OUTLINES


An attractive series of language texts for the grades arranged on the monthly plan. There is constant stimulation to do or say; usage is amply cared for; and silent reading is included among the skills developed.

The outline is rather unusually well developed, the paragraph topic being made the basis for original outlines. The single phase idea is fairly well done in the books themselves, and the supplementary treatment in the Teachers' Manuals is quite good.

The books are well made with clear type, and well arranged open pages.

Katherine M. Anthony

ABROAD WITH DR. WAYLAND


Many volumes have been named "notebooks," but this is the genuine article. These daily jottings were not set down with any thought of publication. They were almost wrested from the author's hand upon his return in September and printed before he had time to put in the verbs and take out the personality and other juicy bits that are sometimes called trivial. Not only will the book vividly recall to his own party their travels together through seven foreign countries, but anybody who feels an interest in Europe or in Dr. Wayland will here find both.

E. P. C.
OTHER BOOKS OF INTEREST TO TEACHERS


This attractive and readable little book is one of "The Community-Life History Series." It shows how world history came westward from Asia, first into Europe and then to North America. It sketches the background of American history and institutions down to about the end of the colonial period. It is intended for use as a textbook in the sixth grade, and should prepare the pupil to take up the more formal study of United States history with understanding and appreciation.


The more law, the less war, that is if intelligent citizens are taught the law and the reason thereof. The question is now pertinent, "How soon can we convert our war schools into law schools?" Law regulates business, it (supported by a few policemen and a benevolent majority) protects life and property, and it should soon maintain peace in the world in spite of the selfishness and cowardice of the United States in respect to the League of Nations and the World Court. Law is really not a dry subject, as some imagine; and this is not a dry book. On the contrary, it is readable, entertaining, and inspiring. The portraits and sketches of great law givers that abound in this book give it concreteness and vitality. It makes an excellent text for high school students and an instructive volume for the grown-up citizen.


Just now when the great Northwest, south of the Great Lakes, is setting the stage to celebrate the winning of an empire, and when the world at large is coming to a tardy recognition of what George Rogers Clark and a handful of other young Virginians did in 1778-1779, it is fitting that another book on these young heroes should appear, and that this particular one should be adapted to boys and girls in the schools. Lockridge's book will be read with interest and profit by young and old. It should be in every school library and no doubt will be used to supplement the textbook in United States history in many classes in the grades and high schools.


The aim of this book is to aid tuberculous patients, nurses, and doctors in learning where their personal responsibility begins and where it ends in regard to tuberculosis. It is written in layman's language and is for the use of tuberculous patients, their families and public nurses especially. The chapters on Suspecting Tuberculosis; The Diagnosis; Accepting the Diagnosis; The Sanatorium; Sanitation; Conflicts with Family and Friends; and Quackery are especially important. It is a book that should be in the hands of every tuberculous patient.

NEWS OF THE COLLEGE AND ITS ALUMNAE

The Athletic Association flourishes under the direction of Jane Nickell, returned student, who was elected to the position this fall. Much interest has been shown in hockey with competition between and within classes as an incentive for strenuous practice—which often brings the youthful maidens from their couches at the early hour of six in the morning.

The Varsity went to Westhampton November 4, and returned with a 1-0 victory. The home team defeated Fredericksburg on the local field, November 19, with a score standing 7-1 at the final whistle.

Swimming is as popular as ever. Several classes have been organized, caring for both the advanced and beginning students. Miss Virginia Rath, the new gymnasium teacher, is the instructor and Anne Proctor is the life-guard.

The new point system which the Athletic Association has instituted makes it possible for everyone to accomplish something in the way of physical activity, and those who work hard enough may win an athletic letter. The plan has been an incentive for many hikes which are regularly scheduled with leaders who check up on the time and miles covered. And the usual trip to Massanutten Peak has been made.

The early autumn days were just the time for camping trips, and several organizations have availed themselves of the opportunity. Rawley Springs is, as usual, the scene of roughing and fun.

The entertainment calendar began with the various churches giving parties or receptions for the students of their denominations. From then on, the social program
has been inviting. The new girls were entertained by the Y. W. C. A. and the Cotillion Club. An attractive Hallowe'en party was fostered by the Athletic Association. Various organizations are presenting benefit movies, which are on the whole very good.

"Benefit" brings to mind the exhibit featured in the library October 28 and 29, for the purpose of securing more books for the college. "A Tour of Europe" was represented by pictures and relics collected on the continent by different faculty members who have visited the old country. The collection was extensive and attractively arranged. Students in costume served as guides.

The Artist Series began with the concert in Walter Reed Hall, October 28, by Salzedo, world-famous harpist, and the Brahms' quartet composed of female voices. It was a program of rare beauty.

There have been several plays recently. The Stratford Dramatic Club is said to have presented the best play of its career. "Just Suppose," given in Walter Reed Hall, November 19, received complimentary criticisms from both faculty and students. Lorraine Gentis, Margaret Knott, Anne Bulloch, Phyllis Palmer, Ruth Dold, Virginia Field, Katherine Manor, and Anne Garrett composed the able cast.

Students went to see "A Mile a Minute" presented by the local Business and Professional Woman's Club and also "Spanish Moon" sponsored by the Kiwanians. Both plays were clever and featured local talent. The receipts, as usual, go for welfare work.

Book Week, November 13-19, was fittingly observed in assembly. Children of the training school under the direction of Miss Mamie Omohundro gave a very attractive program entitled "Children of Bookland."

Virginia Field has been elected president of the Lee Literary Society and Ida Pin-

The new Pages are Elizabeth Cockerill, Betty Bracey, and Margaret Birsch. Laniers: Mary Lou Venable, Lola C. Johnson, Anne Garrett, Tuck Taylor, Elizabeth Dixon, Helen Jones, Rose Lee Wynne, and Mary Margaret Nichols. Lees: Anne Proctor and Ethel Brown.

Mary McNeil, Katherine Manor, and Anne Garrett are new Stratfords.

The Glee Club has admitted to membership Mabel Stafford, Janet Houck, Mary Wray Kuykendall, Emily Wiley, Lillian Jackson, Harriet Pearson, and Sylvia Myers.

The new members of the Art Club are Dale Mannakee, Virginia Driscoll, Frances Freed, Katherine Harris, Cameron Phillips, and Katherine Thayer.

Skipping their way into the Cotillion Club were Anne Garrett, Kathryn Pace, Helen Jones, Mildred Brinkley, Sis Garrison, Mary Virginia Compher, Mary Fray, and Marjorie Scott.

November 11 found the college girls following their usual custom of taking part in the program arranged by the local chapter of the American Legion. Dressed in red, white, and blue, the students made a stunning section of the parade which forms a large part of the celebration.

A VISIT TO BOOKLAND

The English classes in the Junior High School developed during Book Week a delightful pageant which they presented at the New Virginia Theatre on Thursday, November 17. The pageant portrayed the favorite characters in literature for children of adolescent age.

The scene showed a girl about 12 years old asleep with a book in her lap and several books on a table near by. On the other side of the stage was a very large book standing on one end. From the pages of this book the characters stepped out. First came Tom Sawyer, then followed in rapid succession Rebecca of Sunnybrook
Farm, Robinson Crusoe, The Little Lame Prince, Dr. DoLittle, Uncle Remus, Robin Hood, King Arthur, Red Riding Hood, Ali Baba, Little Women, Cinderella and her fairy godmother, Miss Minerva and William Green Hill, Long John Silver, Don Quixote, and last but not least, Topsy.

The costuming was so effective that most of the characters were readily recognized even before the page announced them. This group also composed an original song for the opening and closing of the scene. Everyone who saw the pageant announced it a success and a pleasing feature with which to close Book Week.

ALUMNÆ NOTES

Marie Campbell is teaching at Fairfield, Rockbridge County. She has recently added some valuable books to the school equipment.

Frances Herrick writes from Norfolk. She says: "I'm teaching the fifth grade at my home, which is just a short distance from Norfolk. . . . I have to make lesson plans for all my work. Every day I thank Miss Anthony and Miss Ralston for their advice and help along this line."

Under recent date Florence Shelton sends interesting news from Maury High School, Norfolk, where she, Louise Elliott, Genevieve Warwick, and Anna Forsberg are teaching. They wish to be remembered to all their many friends at Harrisonburg.

Maude Moseley (Mrs. J. B. Cook) writes from LaCrosse, Va. She says, "I shall never forget the many delightful moments I spent in the classes at Blue-Stone Hill." She has a little boy who is about ready for kindergarten, and inasmuch as there is none near her she is planning to start one. This shows the Harrisonburg spirit.

Lucille Gilliam is teaching at Brodnax, Va. She finds a good use for national and state songs in her work.

Janet Bailey (Mrs. Fred Lee Troy) now lives at Blackwood. She is not teaching at present, but does a good deal of work in journalism on the side.

Hilda Benson (Mrs. B. H. Henshall) sends a good long message from her home in Washington City. Her address is 7227 Blair Road, Washington, D. C.

Pauline Callender is finding her student life in New York City a wonderful experience. Her address at a recent date was 1230 Amsterdam Avenue.

Mary Williams (Mrs. Frank A. Sours) remembers her student days here with pleasure as well as profit. Her address is 2906 Grayland Avenue, Richmond.

Mildred Kling is teaching 6th grade in one of the city schools of Roanoke. She has a sister in college this year.

Sarah Evans is leading soprano in the choir of Calvary Baptist Church, Roanoke City. Constance Board is also a singer in the same church. Between Sundays they teach.

At the recent meeting of District G of the Virginia Education Association at the college, a number of our girls who are teaching in Winchester and other places in the northern sections of the state took advantage of the chance to look the old school over. They looked good to us.

Era Showalter is teaching this year in Greensboro, N. C., Grace in Scranton, Pa.

On June 2, 1927, Katherine E. Estes married Mr. John H. Hoge at Blacksburg, Va. They are at home in Blacksburg.

MISS HEYL IN NEW YORK

In New York State Education for September, 1927, appears a photograph of Helen Hay Heyl and the following announcement regarding her appointment to the New York State Department of Education:

Miss Helen Hay Heyl has been appointed assistant in rural education. Miss Heyl has taught in a girls' academy and in rural schools and has been principal of a rural junior high school. She entered the field
of supervision in 1921 as District Supervisor of rural schools in Albemarle county, Virginia, and became head supervisor in 1925. She is a graduate of Harrisonburg State Teachers College, did undergraduate work at the University of Virginia and received the B. S. degree in Education and the M.A. from Teachers College, Columbia University, with special diploma in supervision. While at Teachers College she was assistant editor of the *Journal of Rural Education* and later held the Dean's appointment as assistant in rural school experimentation. Before accepting the position in New York, Miss Heyl was active in the Virginia State Teachers' Association, was president of the Virginia Supervisors Club, a member of the Virginia State Committee on Character Education, chairman of the Virginia Committee on Professional Ethics, and chairman of the Membership Committee of the Virginia Council of Administrative and Executive Women in Education.

I do the very best I know how; the very best I can; and I mean to keep doing so until the end. If the end brings me out all right, what is said against me won't amount to anything. If the end brings me out wrong, ten angels swearing I was right would make no difference.—Abraham Lincoln.

OUR CONTRIBUTORS

J. R. GEIGER is professor of philosophy in the College of William and Mary. He has impressed various student groups with his reasoned discussion of the honor system.

BONNIE GILBERT is a teacher of English in the Chattanooga High School in Tennessee, and has contributed to numerous educational journals.

VIRGINIA BUCHANAN is kindergarten supervisor in the Keister School, the college training school.

MARGARET NEWSOME is a senior in the State Teachers College at Harrisonburg, and a graduate of the Hampton High School.
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