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

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CONTENTS

The Demands of the Times on Education..............William H. Kilpatrick 167
Why Be a Purist?..........................................Carrie Belle Park 173
The Oxford English Dictionary.........................W. A. Craigie 176
Making a Book for Nature Study......................Evangeline Joseph 179
A Lesson on the Constitution.........................Reported by John W. Wayland 181
Some Facts Regarding Habit Formation...............Mary Louise Seeger 183
Schoolroom Humor........................................ 188
Educational Comment..................................... 189
The Reading Table........................................ 192
News of the College and Its Alumnæ................... 197
The Virginia Teacher

Volume IX
June, 1928
Number 6

The Demands of the Time on Education

It is with very great pleasure that I am here in this institution. For many years, I have had most agreeable contacts with members of the staff, and I have known of the good work that you are doing. Being myself a Southerner, it is a pleasure to know of this good work, as representing the new and vigorous attitude of a newer South.

The subject that I am going to discuss with you this evening is: "The Demands of the Times on Education." Part of what I shall say is to me familiar ground, as it has already appeared in a little book of mine. A part of what I shall say is new ground.

First, I propose to discuss how our times are essentially different from any other times in the history of the world and what makes this difference; next, two very important respects in which the present is different; and last, certain problems—a goodly number of them—that confront life in the present and immediate future and consequently problems that confront education. I shall not try to answer the problems, but raise them so that together we may think about them. When I think of the most of this audience as being students, I go back to my own experience as acting head of an institution of somewhat similar grade where we had visitors from a distance from time to time to talk to the students. I found out then that those visitors who talked down to the students and tried to present simplified ideas failed to satisfy, and those who talked straight out, talked things that interested them, and talked them because they were things that needed to be considered, interested the students. Because I remember this, I am going to talk straight out to you. Most of you are younger than I am. In this you have an advantage. You are facing the future with a longer chance to work it out. For myself, I try to face the future as truly and as fairly as I can, and I am going to ask you with me to face the future a little more truly and fairly than some of you perhaps have faced it heretofore. In this I am speaking to you, not down to you.

The first question is: What is changing the world? If we go to ancient times, or if we go to the middle ages, we find they did just as good thinking as the people now. It is probable that the schoolmen of the middle ages were able to carry on an acuteness of thought possibly superior to that of the corresponding thinkers of our time. But there is something different in the thinking now from the thinking in both of these earlier periods. Galileo we may pick out as one of the greatest, if not the greatest single man, to bring to the world's consciousness this newer way of thinking. And the new thing is: The simple practice of testing thought before accepting it, testing it by its more tangible results. Tested thought and the application of this to the affairs of men! This is the factor, as I see it, that makes the modern world different. Aristotle was the greatest master of the classical period, and also the greatest acknowledged master of the medieval period. For two thousand years, no man in the history of the world, accepted as mere man, had more influence or even an influence equal to Aristotle. Now, Aristotle taught that if you take two balls, one five times as heavy as the other, and drop them from an equal height, the ball that is five times as heavy will fall five times

A stenographic report of an address made April 24, 1928, at the State Teachers College, Harrisonburg, Virginia.
as fast. For two thousand years everybody accepted his statement, nobody tried it. Do you begin to see the difference between that period and this period? Let anybody in this age worth talking about say that a certain thing is true, and somebody will check up on it, unless the most certain evidence is given as to his own testing.

Galileo convinced himself by trial that the balls do not fall equally fast, and in the University of Pisa, where he was a lecturer, taught accordingly that Aristotle was wrong. The men of the University said to Galileo, “You are wrong.” “Together, let us go out to the leaning tower,” he said. “Let us try the experiment. Some one will drop the balls from the top. Some one will stay at the bottom to see how they fall.” The University assembled at the leaning tower. The balls were weighed and dropped. Those at the bottom watched and reported that the two balls struck the ground at the same time. Galileo was right; Aristotle was wrong. A new principle in physics! But more than that—a new principle in philosophy! “Try it and see.” Galileo had said: “I do not wish you to take my word for it. Try it.” This, then, was the idea introduced about this period, Galileo being one of the foremost to get men to use this as a principle. Now when trial is made of anything, nature will under the same conditions repeat itself in the same way. Identical conditions, identical results, so far as we have been able to find out. Once a thought has been tested with a certain degree of accuracy, it will accordingly remain true with that same degree of accuracy. For instance, those balls did not fall at exactly the same time. We now know there is a slight difference, due to the interference of the atmosphere, a difference however too slight for them to notice. Once tested, the principle always remains reliable to within that same degree of accuracy. This means, then, that mankind can and does accumulate reliable thought, so that science, natural science, in which realm we can test most accurately, does accumulate reliable thought, and it stays reliable to within the same degree of accuracy. Out of accumulating reliable thought, more discoveries can be made. Out of these come our inventions. And these inventions change the way in which people do things, and that changes the world of affairs. There are here two aspects, testing thought and applying the results. The ancient Greeks despised application. Modern man not only thinks, but applies the thinking to practical affairs, and it is both the testing of thought with the accumulation of reliable thought, and the application of this to inventions, that change the world. It is easy to see that as reliable thought accumulates there are more and more inventions. The last fifty years has shown many times as many inventions as the preceding fifty years.

Thus the world is changing. With it go two characteristic aspects in which the world changes. First, man has changed his attitude toward himself and toward the world. Formerly, man distrusted his ability to cope with the world. He feared disease. Now, man knows that he has conquered many of the worst diseases. He believes that by proper effort he can practically conquer, at any rate lessen the danger from, any disease that he will study. The ancient Greeks were quite skeptical, saying that man could be deceived through his senses. And this is true. Any legerdemain can deceive most of us. I saw a Hindu juggler do things right before my eyes that I know he didn't do. For one thing, he took a pack of ordinary cards, and as he passed them around the cards grew smaller,—grew smaller right before our eyes until they disappeared. Now, I know that didn't happen, but I “saw” it happen. Now, the Greeks knew such things and were skeptical of man's reliability. The medieval people went further. They said: “Man's mind and heart are totally depraved. He cannot think anything right.” But modern man knows that he has thought many reliable things. He
can dig a tunnel through a mountain, from the two sides at the same time, and the tunnel will meet in the middle to the fraction of an inch. People, as a whole, have accepted the fact that natural science, working in its proper domain, is reliable, can tell what it is going to do, and then can do it. And so man feels a new confidence. And, right or wrong, he has banished from the world those evil spirits that mankind used to fear. We do not any longer believe in witches. We look out on the world differently. Man has a confidence in himself that aforetime was not true. And in this nothing is exempt from man's criticism. Moreover, he is willing to follow the results of his criticism by changing things. In olden times, people said, "You must not change." But more and more they are willing to hear things criticized and willing to change. Many among us regret this. Many among us say: "These things you must not criticize," but the number who thus protest grow fewer. And a larger and larger number say: "Nothing is exempt, man must examine and criticize everything." Man thus has a new confidence in himself and a willingness to criticize. He is willing to submit everything to the test. The temper of the world is different.

Another respect in which the world is different—already suggested—is in the inventions which have changed our ways of living. I am not very old, but I have myself seen introduced into common use electric lights, electric railways, the phonograph, the telephone, the flying machine, the automobile, radio. I have seen the germ theory of disease get its acceptance in this country,—all of these changes I have myself seen.

Think what a different world it is because of the automobile. Think how different our homes are now from the homes of the people who first came to this Valley. Think how differently the men and women live. The application of inventions is changing the world in many, many ways. Almost everything is different. And it makes a different world. One of the greatest differences is the great increase in wealth. Taking this country as a whole, there has been in the last ten years the most marvelous increase in wealth the world has ever seen. A hundred years ago, people would have said, "It is impossible. You needn't talk about it."

Now, the world and the way the world does things have changed in almost every respect,—plows and the way plows are made; homes and the way homes are made; kitchen utensils and the way they are made; clothes and the way they are made. You have to hunt a long time to find anything made in the same way it was made a century ago.

Now because this is true, we behave differently. When the people first came into this Valley, the children in the home each had his own different part to play, and practically everything in the life of the people came from the home, or from the vicinity itself, probably as much as ninety-five per cent of them. Today we can just about turn it around the other way. Ninety-five per cent of the things that enter into life at this time have come from the outside. In the olden times the parents and children were brought close together. Now, in the well-to-do home, the children have very little to do in comparison with the children of long ago. And increasingly so in the city. There, in the well-to-do home, economically, children are a nuisance. However charming the children may be, economically, they are in the well-to-do home superfluous. But a century ago, it was not so. A fourteen-year-old girl was very useful then. Again, girls now look forward even in high school to some financially remunerative occupation for at least a while. The girl seventy-five years ago who expected to have money come to her from anything she was doing was the rare exception. This fact makes a different home. Good or bad, we must face it.

Do things change evenly? Does civiliza-
tion go forward evenly, or does it run ahead in some respects and lag behind in other respects? Clearly, it lags behind in some respects. For instance, in New York state, we are using the same administration of justice that was devised when New York was almost purely agricultural. Such a scheme doesn't fit the present state of affairs. Our whole legal system is in many respects from fifty to one hundred years behind the present stage of civilization. Consider the automobile, how it has changed our ways of thinking, behaving, and so on. Our moral outlook and behavior in regard to the automobile has not caught up with the demand. People do not behave as well with respect to the automobile as twenty-five years ago they did behave with respect to the buggy. That is, the morals that went along with the horse and buggy were closer up to the demand of the horse and buggy situation than are the morals that go along with the automobile abreast of the present demands. Civilization in its material aspect has rushed along. But our ways of thinking and behaving, the right or wrong with reference to things, have not kept pace.

In Tokio, Japan, are wide streets and many automobiles, but according to the old law streets were for pedestrians. And now some older pedestrians simply walk down the middle of the street just as they used to do, the chauffeur blowing the horn all the time to make people get out of the way so that he won't run over them. One part of the civilization has outrun the other. We have many other analogous instances. Suppose the lag becomes too great, then civilization is in danger.

Let us take another instance. The Roman Empire and the Chinese Empire co-existed for practically a thousand years, and neither one, practically speaking, had ever heard of the other. Certainly they had few contacts. How is it now? No nation can live to itself. We have international relationships so many, so numerous, that what happens in one country affects and troubles every other. But we have no social machinery adequate for taking care of this fact. The machinery for taking care of international contacts lags far behind the demand. One of the most interesting things in regard to any moral lag behind the demands of the times is that you will find some of the best people holding back and increasing the lag. They are not willing to change in the moral realm even to the extent of bringing morals abreast of the demand made upon them. This international lag is an instance.

Is the rate of change going to increase or decrease? Apparently the rate will increase. Changes come out of inventions. Inventions come out of science. We have more people working out discoveries than ever before. In all probability, there will be more inventions in the next twenty-five years than ever before. In all probability, instead of the solutions catching up with the problems, the problems will further outrun the solutions. There is then no hope that if we let things alone they will get better. If we let things alone, they will get worse. We have got to do something positive.

How many people recognize the fact that we cannot now tell young people: “You must do this thing because I tell you to”? A generation ago that worked. We asked our parents why we must do this, and they said, “Because this is right.” And if we asked: “Why must we not do this?” sometimes they said, “Because the Bible says not to,” and sometimes they said, “Because ladies don't do those things.”

Walking along the street in New York, I heard one girl say to another, “Well, I am going. If my brother can go to those places, I can go, and I am going.” And she isn't the only girl that says such things.

I was talking to a young girl one day and she said: “Why shouldn't I let a boy kiss me good-bye if he wants to?” Well, I began to say why I thought she shouldn't. She said: “If I don't, I won't be popular with
the boys." Then I didn't have anything else to say. That left me helpless and hopeless. I didn't know how to take hold. I think she was wrong, but she didn't think so.

I talked with a young mother. She had a little girl three or four or five years old. And I said to the young mother: "When she is about grown, she is going to ask you some very embarrassing questions as to why she shouldn't do thus and so." And the mother said: "Yes, and I don't want her to be curious. I want her to do what the other girls are doing." I thought that was another strange point of view.

In olden times, morals were transmitted from generation to generation by the parents simply telling the children what was right—not that the parents always did what was right themselves—but if they did what was wrong, they admitted it was wrong. Too many young people now won't admit a thing is wrong. We have got to think through this thing of what is right and what is wrong. If we cannot say why a thing is wrong, then things are going to change. This is a new situation in the world. Since the time of the Greeks it has not happened, at any rate, in the degree to which it is happening now. And we face the problem.

Another problem that faces us is religion. We have two groups. One group is disposed to minimize the old creeds, is not nearly so much concerned about the kind of creeds. I remember when I was a boy people talked a great deal about baptism and predestination. They have other things they are interested in now. The modernists are revising the old creeds. We have another group of people that call themselves fundamentalists; they have gone backward in insisting upon the old creeds. They insist more than did the people of a generation ago. This is a problem we have got to face. And unless the people who believe in religion are able to solve this problem, then true religion is going to suffer. We cannot let it stay as it is. It has got to be faced. There are many people who say, "We have got to teach religion in the public schools," and when you try to find out what they mean, you find they mean very different things by 'religion in the public schools.' Because people don't agree, it is an extraordinarily difficult problem to find out what should be taught in the Sabbath schools. We have got to study it, and somehow we have got to meet it.

I spoke a moment ago of the international situation. Nationalism and internationalism offer a problem that has got to be faced. If we go on as we now are, the world will commit suicide in great wars. The people of this country do not know how to think, how to come to an agreement on this problem. If we could get it to a clear issue—we have rather avoided the issue—we would find it comes to something like this: Is the individual nation an absolute sovereign, or is it not? That is one way of stating it. Is the individual nation subject to the moral law? If the individual nation is subject to the moral law, it is not an absolute sovereign any more than the individual person is an absolute sovereign. Most people will say that the nation is subject to the moral law, but will act differently. We have got to face that, or a very great calamity will befall the world. Do you know that the civilization of Europe came near to going to pieces in the last war? It trembled in the balance. If another great war should come, more deadly, more hateful—and science has made greater strides—civilization will come nearer to falling. Do you see why I say we must face our problems? I am saying that there is a problem here that has got to be faced, and we are guilty of intellectual and moral cowardice in letting things just drift along.

Our people, led by Thomas Jefferson, wrote into the Constitution that there should be freedom of the press, freedom of speech, freedom of assemblage. And they meant it. But we have in our midst large groups of people—the Ku Klux Klan, the American Legion, the Daughters of the Revolution,
and many other people—who are setting themselves against freedom of discussion. This is a serious matter, and most people are not willing to come out and demand that we face the issue.

Do you see that we are looking at problems that confront education? We have got to run our schools on one foundation. We have got to train up a generation that can face controversial issues. As a matter of fact, we now have all over this country people who insist that our histories must teach just one side of some questions—and that a side that is not upheld by the best historians of the country.

I have spoken of how inventions are changing the world. One of the ways in which machinery is changing the world is not so happy. If you go back a hundred years, practically every person in this country except Negro slaves either worked for himself as a farmer, owning his own land, or at least looked forward to the time when he could work for himself, either as a farmer or a shopkeeper, or in some other line of work. How many people in this country now are on pay-rolls and not working for themselves or planning to work for themselves? The chain store is extending itself by leaps and bounds. Increasingly, the Five and Ten Cent Stores, the Atlantic and Pacific Stores, and many others are spreading themselves over the country. Each person who works in such a store is told exactly what to do and how to do it. It is all thought out in a central office. Those that work in these stores need not think independently. It makes a very great difference in the lives of people, and it makes a difference to a country, when a large proportion of people have no chance to think for themselves on such an important matter as their daily business.

The South is introducing more and more cotton mills. A few years ago, in a neighboring state, I went to a small city perhaps about the size of this. I was interested in meeting a certain family. I found they were all working in the cotton mill, and one of them was a young girl just barely old enough. That girl’s ancestors had represented the most independent, intellectual leadership in that state a hundred years ago. What had happened? That girl’s family was living in a community where the cotton mill owners did practically all of the thinking for the cotton mill town, and these people were living in quiet contentment, having everything done for them.

In a neighboring town quite like it, I was told that out of five thousand people living in mill villages three children had gone to high school the year before, which means that from ten to fifty times as many people were going to high school from country communities as were going from these cotton mill towns. A peasant stock is being formed right before our eyes out of as good stock as we have in America. If you look, you will find a peasant stock being made. Their only thought is to get old enough to go into the mill. They live apart, to themselves. They demand churches for themselves. They are making of themselves a peasant people. Is America going to stand for that? This is a problem that faces us.

And now, I have come to a matter that is perhaps a little too far-reaching, a little too deep-reaching at the first reading. I want to read to you what A. N. Whitehead says:

“The progress of science has now reached a turning point. The stable foundations of physics have broken up; also for the first time physiology is asserting itself as an effective body of knowledge, as distinct from a scrap-heap. The old foundations of scientific thought are becoming unintelligible. Time, space, matter, material, ether, electricity, mechanism, organism, configuration, structure, pattern, function, all require re-interpretation.”—Do you know that the best thinkers do not admit that space and time are separate things?—“What is the sense of talking about a mechanical explanation when you do not know what you mean by mechanics?”

We have got to have people able and ready to think things out. Now then, what are the demands on education generally? These are specific problems we have got to
meet. We have got to have an education that will make people willing and able to think fairly and honestly. We have got to have a school system that brings up a generation better able to think without prejudice, better able to think more broadly. We who have to do with education have got to make a school system that will do that.

Life is being stifled. We have got to take care of richness of life in a way that we haven't done hitherto. We have got to have a new and more satisfactory way of seeing life as a whole, the wholesomeness of it, the soundness of it. We have got to have a new vision.

I repeat: We are living at a time different from any time in the world's history and we face, therefore, an unknown future; we have a number of very specific problems not yet solved; and we have got to be honest with ourselves, recognize the task, go to work at it more seriously. Otherwise, the results may not be good.

William H. Kilpatrick

WHY BE A PURIST?

NOTE: When this paper was first presented to a normal-school faculty, the school newspaper misprinted the title "Why be a Puritan?" Take your choice. The thought is largely influenced by Mr. Sterling Leonard. See his "Old Purist Junk" in the English Journal (7:295).

ENGLISH teachers and critics are usually divided into two camps, purists and others. I started in one and landed in the other, so I've seen the warfare from both sides. As my father was well-grounded in Goold-Brown's grammar and was an excellent old-time grammarian, I belonged by training to the strait-laced purists. I can remember at the age of twelve a difference of opinion with a tomboy playmate who said to me in scorn at my prissy pronunciation of a word, "Aw—who wants to talk like the dictionary? I'd rather talk like other people." I remember being scandalized in my senior year at college by Professor Krapp's liberal text, "Modern English"; I remember also my instructor's amusement at my vehement insistence on fixed rules and his remark, "All right; you go down to Connecticut and make those people stand 'round!" Whether it was Connecticut or Columbia that cured me, I have forsaken the camp of the purists for that of sensible liberals, and I'm mighty thankful for the ability to change my mind.

A purist, according to Mr. Webster, is one over solicitous about purity or nicety, especially in language. Purists are usually pedantic, and the dictionary says a pedant is one "with booklearning or the like who lacks ability or judgment to make proper use of his knowledge, or shows that he overrates mere knowledge; one who emphasizes trivial details of learning." George Meredith says, "A pedant thoughtfully regards a small verbal infelicity and pecks at it like a domestic fowl." The purists often remind one of the solemn medieval deliberations over the question of how many angels could stand on the point of a needle.

In the field of English language the purist makes himself felt in matters of spelling, pronunciation, grammar, usage, word choice, and style. Most rhetorics, composition texts, and handbooks of usage are fortified strongholds of purists—fortified, that is, against the moving pageant of everyday progress in language.

The fundamental fallacy of the purists is their attitude towards language as a fixed and static abstraction bounded by logical rules and governed by theory. This is to deny the daily evidence of our senses and experience. He who is not conscious of constant change and fluidity in our language is like one impervious to changes of fashions in dress. We no longer drink out of our saucers nor pronounce tea like tay; yet both these customs were in good repute in earlier days. The purist is often conscious of changes but deplores them, wishing to dam the refreshing tributaries of popular speech and trying to make the stream of living language into a stagnant pond.

But, you ask, are there to be no limits
at all, no standards of excellence? Who is to decide what is the best usage? The best usage, it is commonly agreed, is the usage of the best educated speakers and writers. The purists agree to this, but instead of constant research to find out changing usage, they merely copy old rule books and early rhetorics; they insist on thinking of language theoretically as they wish it to be instead of as it is. As some one has said, “They insist on the mannerisms of a bygone age, hold up Addison to the twentieth century as a model, and try to develop a Johnsonese style,” The present day dictionary makers are the surest recorders of usage (the new Winston dictionary says “actual living use”), and our literary magazines, best newspapers, and educated speakers are the surest authorities as to the best usage in the making.

Murray’s Oxford English Dictionary, accepted by scholars as sound authority based on thorough research, has in the preface a division of the levels of language into two great classes, literary and colloquial, with common or everyday speech between the two. This authority says, “A great body of words whose Anglicity is unquestioned is divided with equal honors between literary and colloquial, with more or less disputed purlieus about each.” Webster says, “There are several styles of speech, any one of which may properly be adopted, according to circumstances. Actors, clergymen, orators, in an effort to impart great clearness and carrying power to their words, cultivate a style of enunciation that would be considered artificial, pedantic, or affected if used in ordinary conversation.” Even Doctor Johnson said, “Of English as of all living tongues there is a double pronunciation, one cursory and colloquial, the other regular and solemn.”

It is hard to resist a certain enjoyment when the purist falls from grace. A pernickety English teacher who was always careful to say “I think not” instead of “I don’t think,” who was occasionally “ill” but never “sick,” habitually said “in back of”—an utter outlaw from the purist camp. Have you ever known anyone like this?—

A teacher in High of our town
Bent her brow in a Scholarly frown
And observed with a sigh,
“Between you and I,
How these children misuse the pronoun!”

The purist assumption that formal literary language is the only correct kind is entirely unwarranted. A teacher told me she had said to her normal-school class, “How can you, if you expect to be teachers, misuse your own language so dreadfully? I heard one of you say she had lots of work to do. Find out what the word lots means and use it correctly.”—Now the example in Webster of this informal use of lots is taken from Henry James: “Lots of my mother’s people have been in the navy.” Furthermore, this teacher more than once used lots colloquially in conversation when off duty.

Speech is a medium of communication, a revelation of personality. Formality in speech and manner is a matter of the temperament of the speaker, the purpose of the speech, and the occasion for the speech. The formality and precision urged by the purists is often an affectation if adopted by young people today. Professor Krapp says, “The worst possible speaking voice is that of one who tells you with every word he utters that he has a well-trained voice.” Mr. H. G. Wells describes one of his characters as having “a kind of ignoble and premeditated refinement in her speech and manner.”

The purists shrink from seeing life as it is; they try like the Victorians to ignore what they disapprove. One of them writes, “Unfortunately we have with us a large class of persons who speak without thinking how our words are spelled and who therefore squeeze all the juice out of speech by re-

1Mary Meade Jones in The English Journal (Vol. 12, page 97).
fusing to utter all the niceties of sound that the word contains.” Professor Krapp retorts, “But who does talk this way? Is the juice of the language in spelling?” and he adds, “Speech that is too good for human nature’s daily food is too good to be true.”

I paraphrase from the preface of Webster’s New International Dictionary, the unabridged edition: Italian a, as the a sound in the word father, occurs most often before r. Webster adds that it is also used by some American and many English speakers in such words as ask, path, bath, calf, half, etc. Most Americans, however, employ in these words either a transition sound or the a in am. The transition sound (often called short Italian) is useful as being a compromise between the Italian a which by many is considered affected in this class of words and the a as in am.—This is a very different matter from insisting that the extreme ah sound in half and aunt is the only correct pronunciation.

An adoption of the extreme ah sound or the yew sound of u is usually an insincerity unless it is the result of early training. A personal preference is, of course, legitimate and is a matter for individual decision. The harm comes when that preference is imposed on other people. A teacher may say to a class, “I like this sound better,” “I prefer this form to that”—but she has no right to lay down as law any unsupported preference.

There are two very real dangers in teaching purism to young people. First, there is the probability of losing the confidence of students. When they find they have been taught the untruth that automobile is the only correct pronunciation or that judgment is the only correct spelling, they begin to doubt the teacher. They doubt further when they find the teacher advocating a usage contrary to the custom of well-educated people, such as the use of the word barn to mean a storehouse for grain, never a place where horses are kept, or the dictum of a journalism teacher (quoted to me by a student): “You mustn’t say a man is quite ill until he is dead.” Their confidence in the teacher’s worldly knowledge disappears when they are taught usage contrary to real-life experience as in the case of the purist doctrine that one must speak always with formality and preciseness if one is to speak correctly, and that one must never indulge in colloquialisms.

Shall we then ignore the question of divided authorities? By no means. When usage is divided, tell the students that one form is conservative and the other “may make them uncomfortable among conservative people,” in the words of Mr. Leonard. Tell them one form is better than the other, not that one form is right and the other wrong. Tell them the truth! The second menace is a disordered perspective concerning language. The attention is focused on minute distinctions which may or may not be authoritative, until there is no time left for the most flagrant errors and the vital task of breaking up years of really incorrect English habits. In the usual teaching experience there are so many serious errors that there is little time for finical and minute stylistic details. The teacher may herself prefer the long sound of u in the word duke, but shall she drill the students in saying dyewk when they persist in saying Febyewary? These two constructions were found on the same paper: “I would of went” and “I want to try and do.”—Which should the teacher have corrected?

This brings me to the final count against the purists: their serious errors in usage and doctrine.

Research shows that try and was used by Milton, Dr. Johnson, and others; it is cited by the Oxford dictionary in the phrase try and do. Got, meaning to be in possession of, is given by Webster and is not new, for
the example, "Thou hast got the face of a
man" is from Herbert.

None are is sanctioned by Webster as follows: "As subject none with the plural verb is the commoner construction." Note Webster's use of the comparative commoner instead of more common. Quick and slow are given in dictionaries as adverbs.

We may well clear away the debris of illiteracy, but the fresh tributaries of changing usage should be encouraged to flow freely into the sparkling water of our progressing language.

Why be an obstructionist?

CARRY BELL PARKS

THE OXFORD ENGLISH DICTIONARY*

In the spring of 1884, while I was still a first-year student at the University of St. Andrews, my old schoolmaster, George Clark, showed me the first part of a "New English Dictionary on Historical Principles," which had just been published. It interested me, for even then I had begun the study of the older periods of English, but I little dreamed that the new Dictionary was in later years to play so important a part in my own life. My first direct contact with the preparation of the Dictionary came in 1892, when the Provost of Oriel took me one day to see Dr. Murray at work in his Scriptorium. A visit to this is an experience which is remembered with interest by many a scholar from various countries. One of these has left on record that when he was about to visit England for the first time he was told that there were two things he must see,—the British Museum and the Scriptorium. He saw both, but the modest dimensions of the latter came with rather a shock to him, after the stately spaciousness of the Museum.

When, in 1897, as much by accident as anything else, I became directly associated with the work of the Dictionary, it had already been nearly forty years on the way, for it was towards the end of 1857 that the Philological Society conceived the idea of undertaking such a work. The story of how the idea was developed by successive editors until it became possible to issue the first section in February, 1884, has been told more than once, and need not be repeated here. Forty-five years of continuous labour, at first with one, and finally with four editors, have been required to bring the work to completion, from the date at which the preparation of printer's copy began in real earnest.

The reason why so much time has been required to reach the goal lies in the plan of the work. Ordinary dictionaries of any language, which confine themselves to matters of pronunciation and definition, are usually based on preceding works of the same character, and require more or less time to produce according to the amount of revision they receive and the additions made to the vocabulary. For a dictionary on historical principles much preparation is required before the actual work can be begun. In the present instance, fully twenty years were spent in the mere collecting of materials from English literature and records of all periods, and even this had to be very largely supplemented during the later progress of the work.

The method of collecting this material was in the main as follows. The person who undertook to read a book for the Dictionary sat down provided with a large number of clean slips of paper, usually of uniform size. To save time in writing, the date, the author, and the title were frequently printed on these slips beforehand, so that only the page or reference had to be added. Thus, supposing that the work to be read was Spenser's Faerie Queen, the reader would copy out five or six times over on separate
 slips of paper the first two lines of the poem:—

“Lo! I the man whose Muse whilom did mask,
As Time her taught, in lowly shepherd's weeds.”

He would assign each of these slips to a separate word, by writing it on the upper left-hand corner, e. g. MUSE on one, WHILOM on another, MASK on a third, and so on down to WEEDS. It is obvious from this, that in order to do a book thoroughly for the dictionary, it would be necessary to write out the whole of it many times over.

Few books, however, would be worth doing in this exhaustive fashion, and readers as a rule did their duty pretty effectively by taking out at the most two or three thousand quotations from a single work. Must material was also collected by the cutting up of printed books and newspapers. Even books of the 16th and 17th centuries were cut up in this manner. As the separate quotations sent in by the hundreds of readers gradually increased to thousands, to tens and hundreds of thousands, and in the end to millions, they were steadily sorted into alphabetical order by volunteer or paid labour. When the various slips for one word had been thus brought together, valuable aid was given by volunteer sub-editors, who arranged them according to the different senses of the word, and drafted provisional definitions of these senses. In many cases this outside work was done with remarkable thoroughness and efficiency, and did much to further the progress made by the regular staffs. The result was, that as each word came in its turn to be dealt with, the whole of the material collected for it was there, and more or less in good order. The assistant who proceeded to put it into final shape, had to consider the division into senses and the definition of these, making such improvement as his own knowledge and experience might suggest. He had to think whether from obvious and readily accessible sources he could add anything of importance to the material already before him. He studied the quotations, and selected those which best illustrated the various senses of the word, and, in fact, did all he could to put the whole article into a fit state for the printer's hands. When the editor had given the article a final revision, it went to the printer on the original slips sent in by the readers; to copy these would not only have been a waste of time, but would have greatly increased the chance of errors.

This work, it must be understood, was carried on simultaneously by the various staffs, working at different letters of the alphabet, and the members of each staff worked seven and a half hours a day for about eleven months in the year.

Compiled in this way, and based on such a wealth of material, it is no wonder that the Dictionary is a real store-house of the English tongue. It contains a record of the language from the eighth century to the present day, omitting only those early words which did not survive the eleventh century, and a certain portion of the modern vocabulary which for various reasons could not readily be included. It thus contains words that have long since gone out of use, and many that are creations of yesterday. In this way it answers the needs of inquirers of every kind,—of the scholar who wishes to study some Chaucerian word or phrase, and of the man in the street who wishes to know the origin of current terms. The Dictionary has not attempted to create a standard of English by excluding the colloquial and slang element, but has recorded this with great fulness whenever the words had either a history or a currency which justified their insertion. Any one who cares to turn up a score of such words in the Dictionary will be surprised to find how many of them—whether British or American currency—have a longer history than he ever dreamed of.
Looked at from one point of view, the Dictionary exhibits the English language in a constant state of change and progress; from another, it clearly exhibits the stability of some of its main elements. Behind all the changes lies a large body of simple fundamental words with which no English speaker or writer has ever been able to dispense, which are as necessary to us today as they were to Caedmon or King Alfred. It is these simple words that have taken up so much of the time required to make the Dictionary. It is no great task for the skilled worker to deal with such words as century or language or nation. Such words may be prepared for the printer in a few hours, but the preparation of the commonest nouns, adjectives, and verbs is a matter of days and even weeks. This will readily be understood from a few figures relating to such words. The verb Get occupies 22 columns of the Dictionary and is divided into 73 senses, many of which have numerous subdivisions. The verb Give covers 25 columns, and Go fills 35, but even these are completely dwarfed by the verb Set, which extends to 55 columns with 154 numbered and much-subdivided sections. And these numerous columns of close print represent twice as much material which had to be worked through before the articles could be prepared. Figures like these make it clear that the Dictionary is not to be judged merely by the number of words it contains, although even in that respect it stands preeminent. Making allowances for entries of obsolete and variant forms, it actually includes, and in most cases exhibits the life-history of something like 350,000 words (simple or compound) which at one time or other have played their part in the English language. To deal adequately with these words has not been an easy task even within the large limits of 15,000 pages closely printed in triple columns.

The Dictionary has not only recorded the English language with greater fulness than was ever before attempted, it has also served to light up many points in the history of English literature and to make clear the meaning of many obscure passages in the older writers. Frequently, too, passages which seemed too obvious to require explanation have proved to bear an unexpected meaning. Readers and commentators of Shakespeare, for example, must have thought that they understood the expression “to relish a love-song like a robin red-breast,” but the significance of the phrase appears only when it is proved that a “relish” was a grace or embellishment in music, and that to “relish” meant to sing or warble in some special manner.

By the help of the Dictionary the sources of an author’s vocabulary can frequently be detected with certainty. The translation of Rabelais by Sir Thomas Urquhart has often been admired for its racy language, catching the real spirit of the original. But the main basis of Urquhart’s success was Cotgrave’s French dictionary, which the worthy knight must have used with almost incredible diligence.

Conveying of matter by one author from another is also frequently revealed by the Dictionary material. When Dean Swift in the second voyage of Gulliver presented his readers with a paragraph full of nautical terms he did not take the trouble to learn something about seamanship before he wrote it. He merely turned up Sturmy’s Mariner’s Magazine in 1669, and copied out a series of phrases from two pages of that work. When Sir Walter Scott wanted to place some calculations of clock-making in the mouth of David Ramsay in the Fortunes of Nigel, he found them ready made in the Encyclopaedia Britannica of 1797, and either he misread, or the printer misprinted them.

These are but slight hints of what the Dictionary has been able to reveal through the mass of material at the disposal of its editors. While the task of arranging this material, of adding to it, and selecting from it, has been immense, it ought always to be
remembered that the original collecting of it was a magnificent achievement in which hundreds of unselfish men and women took part. Without their labours it would have been impossible, on practical grounds, to base the Dictionary on a sufficient mass of material to make it that treasure-house of English which it has now become.

W. A. Craigie

MAKING A BOOK FOR NATURE STUDY

THE children in the fifth grade are studying leaves. They have decided to make a collection of leaves. They want to make a book suitable for mounting leaves.

I. What the children will do

A. They will make a book
   1. They will study how
      a. a book is made
      b. a title page is made
   2. They will make the cover by
      a. folding a piece of cardboard and craft paper
      b. pasting down the edges
      c. punching three holes near the left edge
   3. They will make the pages by
      a. measuring and folding the paper to the desired size
      b. punching three holes near the edge of the paper
   4. They will put the book together by
      a. arranging pages in desired order
      b. lacing tape through the holes

B. They will mount autumn leaves
   1. They will prepare the leaves for mounting by
      a. pressing
      b. shellacking
   2. They will study effective placing of the leaves
   3. They will mount the leaves by pasting or gluing

C. They will make a title page
   1. They will learn to print the letters of the alphabet
   2. They will choose and arrange the words after studying other title pages

D. They will design the cover
   1. They will collect and study suitable designs for book covers
   2. They will discuss the best colors for book cover
   3. They will discuss colors which harmonize, and which emphasize or destroy one another
   4. They will make original designs
   5. They will select the best and most appropriate of their designs to be put on their book
   6. They will put the design on the cover by tracing from their own pattern
   7. They will use water colors in painting the design

II. What the children will learn

A. They will learn the following principles
   1. In design
      a. Balance is obtained by the orderly arrangement of masses of dark and light
      b. Rhythm is harmonious repetition
      c. Harmony is obtained by adapting the design to the purpose of the book.
Unity is obtained by assembling the parts into a beautiful ensemble or whole.

2. In color
   a. Contrasting colors have a tendency to enrich or emphasize each other
   b. Brilliant colors are used in small quantities

3. In lettering
   a. Letters and words should appear the same distance apart
   b. Letters and words may be made to fit within a given space

Letters must be appropriate to the design and purpose of the book.

Leaves LEAVES

B. They will learn how
1. to make a book
2. to take care of collections
3. to mount leaves
4. to print neatly
5. to space letters and words correctly
6. to combine colors to get good color combination
7. to make secondary colors
8. to arrange masses of dark and light to obtain balance
9. to make suitable designs and choose colors
10. to obtain unity (By assembling parts into an orderly whole)
11. to follow directions

III. Skills and abilities selected for emphasis
A. They will develop the following skills:
   1. recognizing contrasting colors, and knowing when to use them
   2. selecting the correct amount of brilliant color
   3. handling cardboard and paper
   4. measuring and cutting accurately
   5. handling collections
   6. pasting smoothly

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Evangeline Joseph
A LESSON ON THE CONSTITUTION

NOT long ago one of the graduates of Harrisonburg State Teachers College was asked to teach a model history lesson in the sixth grade, following a procedure that is typically deductive or inductive.

She chose for her topic the origin and nature of the Federal Constitution, using Our Republic, the regular text in Virginia graded public schools, as a basis for the study, assigning in advance pages 211-214 and pages 522-528 of the text for special study in preparation. Pages 522-528 contain the text of the Constitution itself; pages 211-214 give an account of the making of the Constitution and an outline of its contents.

The procedure was mainly inductive. A number of questions were asked about certain particulars, and then conclusions drawn from these particulars were established at various stages.

Introductory Statement

This will be an inductive lesson on the nature and origin of the Constitution of the United States. Particulars facts will be brought out by means of definite questions; then more or less general conclusions will be drawn from the facts as ascertained.

This lesson is also a review in the early political documents of our country, and should recall the background or foundations of our political history. The main textbook used is Our Republic, by Riley, Chandler, and Hamilton.

Development

Not all of the questions and answers are reproduced in this report, but the main questions are given and the answers that were finally accepted.

Question 1. The first ten amendments to the Federal Constitution do what?
   Answer. They guarantee certain rights. They are often called a bill of rights.

   Question 2. Article I, the first part of the body of the Constitution, deals with what?
   Answer. With Congress, the law-making body of the United States.

   Question 3. Article II deals with what?
   Answer. With the qualifications and powers of the President.

   Question 4. Article III deals with what?
   Answer. With the Federal Courts—the courts of the United States Government.

   Question 5. Article IV deals with what?
   Answer. Article IV defines certain powers and privileges of the states.

   Statement by the teacher: We see that the Constitution was built on an interesting plan. The Bill of Rights relates to citizens in general; Article I relates to Congress; Article II to the President; Article III to the Federal Courts; and Article IV to the states.

   The Bill of Rights was not an original part of the Constitution, but it was added very soon, and it was probably taken for granted all the time.

   Question 6. What does the Constitution do with reference to all these mentioned—citizens, Congress, the President, Federal Courts, and the states?
   Answer. It confers powers and limits powers.

   Question 7. A law that confers powers and at the same time limits powers might be called what?
   Answer. A supreme law; a fundamental law.

   Question 8. Can we make a definition? What is the Constitution of the United States?
   Answer. It is the fundamental law of the United States.

   Question 9. Is this the only fundamental law you can think of?
   Answer. Virginia has a constitution—a fundamental law. Every one of our 48 states has a fundamental law. The Confederate States had a fundamental law. The Articles of Confederation were a fundamental law for Continental Congress and
for the states during the Revolution. The Northwest Ordinance was a fundamental law for the Northwest Territory.

Question 10. Can you name any constitution that is not a fundamental law?
Answer. No. Every constitution is a fundamental law.

Question 11. Let us make some more definitions. Robert, what is the constitution of Virginia?
Answer. It is the fundamental law of Virginia.

Question 12. What was the Confederate Constitution?
Answer. It was the fundamental law of the Confederate States of America.

Question 13. What were the Articles of Confederation?
Answer. They were the fundamental law of the United States up to 1789.

Statement by the teacher: So much for the nature of the Constitution—the Federal Constitution and other constitutions.

Let us now inquire briefly into its origin.

Question 14. When was the Federal Constitution made?
Answer. 1787.

Question 15. Where was it made?
Answer. At Philadelphia.

Question 16. What was the body that made it called?
Answer. The Constitutional Convention.

Question 17. Was it the regular law-making body of the country?
Answer. It was not. It was a special body.

Question 18. What was the regular law-making body called?
Answer. Continental Congress.

Question 19. Did Continental Congress ever make any fundamental laws?
Answer. Yes, at least two.

Question 20. What two? Name them.
Answer. The Articles of Confederation, in 1777; and the Northwest Ordinance, in 1787.

Question 21. Does Congress now make fundamental laws—constitutions?
Answer. No. It can only propose amendments. Congress is subject to the Constitution.

Question 22. What is Congress?
Answer. It is the regular law-making body of the United States.

Question 23. What is a constitutional convention?
Answer. It is a special representative body, chosen to make a fundamental law.

Question 24. Where do you suppose the Constitutional Convention of 1787 got its ideas?
Answer. Some, no doubt, from the old Constitution—the Articles of Confederation.

Question 25. How many years of experience had they had with the old Constitution?
Answer. Ten.

Question 26. Had the old Constitution worked well?
Answer. No, but it had been worth much for experience.

Question 27. Can you think of any other sources of the Federal Constitution?
Answer. Franklin’s plan of union of 1754.

Answer. The New England Confederation of 1643.

Answer. The Fundamental Orders of Connecticut of 1639.

Question 28. Do you recall others? Probably there were others.
Answer. The Mayflower Compact of 1620.

Answer. The colonial charters.

Question 29. Was there anything of special interest in Virginia?
Answer. The Virginia charter of 1618. This led to the House of Burgesses in 1619. This was really the beginning of representative government in America.

Statement by the teacher: I think you are right. All these documents you have mentioned doubtless contributed something to the great constitution of 1787-1789.

And probably Magna Carta in England,
and the Bill of Rights of 1689 were also important sources. It is possible that the Charter of Liberties granted by King Henry I in 1100 was also thought of. James Madison and other members of the convention of 1787 were careful students of history. We might almost say that the study of history made the Constitution of 1787. It was not a miracle, or a mere happy thought of the moment. It had centuries of experience behind it.

I am pretty certain that the Virginia Bill of Rights, drawn up by George Mason in 1776, and the Declaration of Independence, written by Thomas Jefferson the same year, were also familiar to the makers of the Constitution.

Do not overlook the fact that all great constitutions, fundamental laws, have not been the creation of a moment or even of a year, but have been the work of many years. They are the products of experience, sometimes of bitter failure. The failure of the old Constitution (the Articles of Confederation) had a great deal to do with the success of the new one.

Question 30. Do you know of anything that is going on now which shows that a constitution is a growth, a product of years?

Answer. Yes. In Virginia now the General Assembly, the Governor, and the people of Virginia are trying to improve the constitution of the state, the fundamental law of Virginia.

Reported by John W. Wayland

SOME FACTS REGARDING HABIT FORMATION

SEVERAL weeks ago a little woman from Czecho-Slovakia spoke at the college; by way of introduction she said that Americans always began their talks with a joke or two. Being a good American, I want to tell you of the kindergartner who one day was waiting in the station for a train and saw a mother with a little child about two years old. The mother was feeding a banana to the child. The Kindergartner kept quiet as long as she could and then said to the mother, "You oughtn't to feed that child banana; it isn't good for him." Whereupon the mother answered, "You can't tell me anything about raising children. Ain't I buried six?"

It is not my purpose, then, to tell you how to raise your children, but merely to bring to your attention one of the most important factors of right living; namely, habit formation. No doubt some of the habits your children have formed have caused you no little concern. When I was a teacher of young children the formation of right habits was always uppermost in my mind; one of the first things a teacher of little children says about a child is that he has good habits or bad habits, as the case may be.

What I have to say classifies itself into three parts,

First, a definition and classification of habits

Second, rules or helps for making and breaking habits

Third, practical application or importance of habits

Habits are acquired or learned ways of behaving and, whether we will it or no, the child is going to form habits. He comes into this world a helpless little being with some ready-to-wear acts; he can cry, kick, coo, eat; he can withdraw his foot or hand if it touches something uncomfortable; he also has a nervous system in rather poor working order but sensitive, open to all suggestions which may come to it. This nervous system craves activity, and is therefore affected by everything that happens to it. Something is happening every minute.

Nature is a wise mother and nurse. She is a good psychologist, too. She sees to it that her children are made ready for the community in which each has to live. The fish has a very limited world; all it has to know is how to get out of the way of danger, how to get something to eat, so its
nervous system is very simple—just a back
bone and not very much of that. The bird,
the dog, the horse, and so on up or down
the scale are all equipped with nervous
systems which will help them adapt them-
seves to the world in which they must live.
Now the world in which the child finds him-
self is a pretty complex place, so nature has
given him this complex, poor-working—but
open-to-suggestion nervous system; in ad-
dition nature provides a longer period of
infancy or helplessness in which to make
the adjustments that are necessary. It is
this period of infancy which interests us,
for during it the child is “trying on” the
world, is learning and building habits.
The first six years of the child are by
far the most important. One psychologist
says you can break or make a child the first
four years of its life. This is the time not
only when character traits are formed, but
also when undesirable traits can be modi-
fied by treatment because of the plastic state
of the mind. The child touches this thing,
explains that, experiments with this, and
questions that; he is no respecter of per-
sons or things. The cut glass vase and the
tin pan are one and the same to him. It
is a hard time for the parent and teacher,
but my sympathy is with the child; all the
time he is doing these things he is learning,
he is building habits.
Habits may be classified as useful, use-
less, or harmful; useful when the ways of
behaving serve some worthwhile purpose
(thus, habits of reading, writing, arithmetic
may be termed useful); useless when the
habit serves no purpose (many of our ex-
pressions like “Now really,” “Don’t you
know,” “Understand,” are in this class and
have no real value); harmful when the way
of acting works real harm to the individual,
such as taking drugs, or working too hard
without enough recreation, or building up a
critical attitude toward others.
Habits may also be classified in another
way:
First, Motor, or movement, habits
Second, Intellectual habits
Third, Feeling, or emotional, habits

Child specialists have found that habits
relating to muscular skill and development
are best formed during the first nine years
of the child’s life; therefore those physical
habits pertaining to eating, sleeping at regu-
lar periods, walking, talking, cleanliness,
dressing, etc. should be formed early. One
value of the kindergarten is that it co-
operates with the home in building up these
habits so that the child will have a good
background of automatic behavior and be
free to build new ways of behaving when
the situations present themselves.
The intellectual processes are governed
by habit. Paying attention is a habit, which
should be begun early in the child’s life.
It is true he cannot pay attention to one
thing for a very long period of time, and the
thing to which he is giving his attention
must be linked up with his interests. In the
home you build up this habit when you
have the child listen to Mother Goose
rhymes; you link it with motor habits when
you have him put on his rubbers or lace his
shoes. In the school we try to build up
habits of attention through story telling,
through oral composition, etc.

I want to say in passing: Don’t be sur-
prised and think your habit training is
worthless, if, when the child is telling of
some interesting event, he uses poor Eng-
lish. He is learning, he is building up
habits, and hasn’t had enough experience to
use correct speech and tell it correctly at
the same time. No wonder the child has
so much difficulty in forming right habits of
speech; there are so many ways of saying
the same thing. I am reminded of the little
boy who came in after a walk and said
“Miss Seeger, Minnie pinched me.” I turned
to Minnie and said, “Minnie, did you
pinch Thomas?” Minnie was deaf, blind,
and speechless; so I turned to Thomas and
tactlessly said, “Thomas, where did Minnie
pinch you?” to which he replied, “’Bout
from here ’way down to the next corner.”
Thinking is a habit, again determined by the amount of training given to it. The younger the child, the less thinking takes place, perhaps because so much time is taken up with getting control of his body, and other motor habits. Nevertheless, problems do arise in the child's mind, and he should be given practice in solving them. When the child loses or breaks his toy, allow him to help solve the problem; he helped make it. The best type of mother or teacher is not the one who shields and protects her child until all his initiative is spent, but the one who allows him to tug and pull over something which concerns him. Toys consisting of boards, nails, hammer, shovels, pails, etc., offer so many more opportunities for practice in thinking than do ready-made mechanical things.

Respecting the rights of others, knowing how to play and work with others, is a problem which confronts teachers of children. The little child is naturally an egoist, he is self-centered; but since he must live in a world with others, since his welfare is determined by his relation to others, it is necessary that he early learn to give and take. Again, the real value of the nursery school and kindergarten is that they give children opportunities for building up social habits. The fact that 25 or 30 children of the same age are congregated together means social training. It is important, therefore, that the child of five years and older should have contacts with other children outside the home.

In addition to the motor and intellectual habits, the child also learns how to behave emotionally. The importance of the development of right emotional habits is perhaps less understood and less considered by mother and teacher. We have been so interested in giving him knowledge that we fail to take into account his feeling about the thing. Many a person's life has been warped because "way back yonder" in childhood he has built up an emotional habit around something and has never been able to get away from it. Fear of the dark is an example. Many cases of hysteria in adulthood may be traced back to the time when the person's curiosity was not satisfied satisfactorily and she got the habit of behaving wrongly.

It grieves me to see the little child too much under the care of the ignorant nurse girl, for we can't tell until too late just what kind of emotional habits she has helped to build up in the child. Is she telling him that the policeman or the dark will get him, and therefore building up a fear that will persist through life? Is she teasing him and thereby throwing him into a rage which may take years and years of training in later life to overcome?

What kind of emotional habits is the child building up around going to bed in the dark? Has he learned to offer excuses for this thing and that when bed-time comes? Has he learned to make the meal-time the time for showing off and refusing to eat his food because he knows you will make a fuss over him and coax him? Is he becoming quick-tempered, moody, sunny, cheerful? Whichever it is, the habit is being set during the period of childhood.

"The child has joys, hopes, ambitions, fears, sorrows, which are as real to him as ours are to us." They are aroused in much the same way and need the same careful consideration and development.

The moral and religious development is pretty much a matter of habit. The child comes into this world neither trailing clouds of glory nor possessed of forty devils. Whether or not he develops into a good, wholesome personality depends on the kind of habits he has formed. Truthfulness, obedience, etc., can be built up only through specific training in each.

"The little child needs an atmosphere of love, trust, and social harmony, full of healthful provision for physical needs, which means inclusive training in habits of regularity and cleanliness. He should find that it pays to do right, or to wait for the
greater good, or to endure pains and disappointments bravely."¹

Habit formation is governed by two laws, the law of Exercise and the law of Effect. If we want to build up in the child the habit of brushing his teeth, he must exercise that habit over a long period of time. One trouble with mothers and teachers is that they are impatient. Instead of seeing to it that the child has practice in forming the habit, they talk about it. Because a thing is easy to us is no reason why the child won't have trouble with it. We often expect children to be polite or to know long division before they have had sufficient practice in either. We think that by having the child watch us sew or knit or bake a cake she ought to be able to do it. It is impossible to learn anything new without sufficient practice in doing the thing.

If you don't believe it, try to build a new habit yourself. I am trying to learn to swim; by all known laws of physics I know I can't sink, yet neither can I jump in the water and swim, and my admiration for those young women who may not know as much about education as they think I know, but who can dive like birds, is great. I may say here that it is better to extend the practice over a longer period of time than to concentrate it in a short time. That is, one practice a day for fifteen days is better than three practices a day for five days, or five practices a day for three days. Also, it is better to teach one habit at a time and establish it fairly well before attempting to teach another. For that reason the custom of stressing long division in the fourth grade and fractions in the fifth has arisen. We know from experience that the young child who is learning to walk and talk does not attempt both at the same time; while he is engaging in one activity the other stops.

Do not allow an exception to occur until the new habit is well established. Again, being an impatient people, we are apt, after a few practices, to grow lax, and do what the man did to his New Year resolution: One New Year's Day he resolved never to smoke any more. That night he mentally patted himself on the back and said, "Good for you, Resolution!" He did the same thing the second, third, and fourth nights. On the fifth night, however, after patting himself on the back, and saying "Good for you, Resolution," he walked over to his cigar box and said, "Now treat Resolution!"

Form the habit in the way it is to be used. Since most if not all the addition one does in life is arranged in vertical columns, that is the way it is taught in school. Since most of the spelling the child does is in connection with writing, most of his spelling lessons are written rather than oral.

Do not form two or more habits when one will answer the purpose. For that reason, one form is now taught for both long and short division.

It takes less time to form habits in children than in adults, but the old belief that one cannot learn anything new after thirty is no longer in vogue. Isn't it hopeful for those who have passed that milestone and are still desirous of learning? I never did like the idea of being a back number, and since society does not set an age limit, middle and old age are becoming much more interesting and exciting. Some of my colleagues have recently taken to golf. To them life has taken on new interest, and from everything I can gather, they are still learning.

A habit to be built successfully must be accompanied with satisfaction or pleasure, and therein is the essence of the Law of Effect. Stamp in desirable habits with pleasure; stamp out undesirable habits with pain. It is not enough for the child simply to repeat a thing over and over again. The repetition must be accompanied with satisfactory results. There is grave danger of building many wrong habits when no effort is made to reward the good. Often it is the

¹Thom—Mental Health of the Child.
worst child in the home who gets the most attention, who, in other words, is rewarded for misbehaving. Or again, staying after school and memorizing poetry or Bible verses is often the punishment imposed for misconduct. It is no wonder that some of us have so little appreciation for poetry when we came to know poetry first under such unhappy conditions.

The question arises: Do you believe in rewards? Yes, we all do. We all want to hear of ourselves, “Well done.” It is the thing which spurs us on. But as we grow in experiences, the nature of the reward changes: the piece of candy, the ice-cream cone, the doll, the bicycle, the ring, the approval of the “gang,” the good marks on the report card, the honor roll, the position in the legislature, senate, the wee small voice within one, or the dreamless sleep which comes after the finished task. (I can’t refrain from telling you of an experience I had with rewarding a group of children here in Harrisonburg. Many of the children had difficulty in skipping on both feet. They worked very hard, and one day I said, “Children, as soon as everyone learns to skip on both feet, I’ll give you a party.” They worked harder than ever, and at last the day when all the children could skip on both feet came. I said, “Children, what kind of party shall we have?” Whereupon, the son of one of our popular clergymen said, “Miss Seeger, give us a card party.” That didn’t meet the approval of the other children, so it was changed to an ice-cream cone party.)

Just as a desirable habit shall be linked up with satisfaction, so the undesirable one must be linked with pain or dissatisfaction. Here the question arises: Do you believe in punishment? Yes, we all do—but we disagree as to the nature of that punishment. “Spare the rod and spoil the child” has been debated pro and con. I have found an interesting statement, a soothing lotion to those of us who at various times have applied the stamp of disapproval and then worried for fear we had done the child a real injustice, when in reality we suffered much more than the child.

“The stimulation of contact receptors, such as skin and muscles, cause comparatively brief, rapid discharges of nervous energy, for the contact receptors have no control over such organs as the thyroid and the adrenals. It is the distant receptors, such as eye and ear, that set off prolonged and exhausting expenditures of energy. Experimentation shows that no amount of mere physical injury to an animal causes hyper-thyroidism or an increase of adrenalin in the blood, whereas fear or rage does both.”

Breaking a habit, however, is harder than building one, for it is not simply a matter of discarding one way of behaving, but also of forming a new mode of behaving. Try to break one of your long-established habits and see how difficult it is. If we were only made to break one now and then, we would be more careful about building right ones in the child from the start.

Before taking up the last point, I want very briefly to sum up the two points already made:

First: Habits are acquired ways of behaving, based upon the ready-to-wear activities which the child is born with.

Second: They may be classed as motor habits, pertaining to muscular movements; intellectual habits, pertaining to the thinking side of us; emotional habits, pertaining to the feeling side.

Third: The forming of a habit depends upon two things:

a. The amount and kind of exercise given to it.

b. The amount of pleasure and satisfaction linked up with it.

Breaking a habit is a double task, because you not only have to make it terribly disagreeable, but you have to form another habit which must be unusually attractive.

We parents and teachers have a big job

2Crile—Origin and Nature of the Emotions.
before us—but so had those who came before us and so will those have who follow. We are a part of the great scheme of things, and I for one would not have it changed if I could.

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MARY LOUISE SEEGER

NORMAL SCHOOLS INCREASING REQUIREMENTS FOR ADMISSION

Higher standards demanded of teachers in public schools of the United States are reflected in the advanced requirements in a number of States for admission to teacher-training institutions, as shown by a study of the professional training of teachers made by William McKinley Robinson, results of which have been published by the Interior Department, Bureau of Education, as Bulletin No. 36, 1927. This tendency is illustrated by the recent requirement of Pennsylvania State normal schools that students shall be graduates of four-year high schools approved by the State department of public instruction. Beginning the fall of 1928, Michigan State normal schools will accept only graduates of high schools accredited by the University of Michigan.

CAMP LIFE A PART OF NORMAL-SCHOOL COURSE

A nature-study and health-education camp is maintained in connection with slippery Rock State Normal School, Pennsylvania. Beginning as an experiment in 1925, it has become an established department of the school and offers health-education courses in camp craft, scouting, and water sports, and nature-study courses in stars, trees, flowers, insects, birds, and animals. Health-education students in the normal school must take six weeks' work in camp before they graduate; work in camp for other students is elective. The camp is well equipped, and offers facilities for canoeing and swimming, as well as for scouting and athletics. The nature-study and health-education departments of the school have charge of the camp.—School Life.

SCHOOLROOM HUMOR

FOOLED!

Where is the story of the college youth of whom his professor inquired how it happened that when he usually received a grade of forty-five on his history examinations, he had suddenly made ninety-eight, and of his chagrined answer: "What! Was that an examination? I thought it was one of those 'Ask me anothers.'"

PAINLESS, TOO

"Where did you find this wonderful follow-up system? It would get money out of anybody."

"I simply compiled and adapted the letters my son sent me from college."

CULLS FROM EXAM PAPERS

William the Conqueror was thrown from his horse and wounded in the feudal system and died of it.

In Holland the people use water power to drive their windmills.

Cereals are films shown in the pictures.

People of Iceland are called equinoaxes.

Queen Elizabeth was called the Virgil Queen because she knew Latin.

John Bunyan was an eminent specialist on foot troubles.

Glaciers are the guys that fix windows when they are broken.
EDUCATIONAL COMMENT

THE CAROLINA PLAY-BOOK

The Carolina Play-Book is the most recent venture of the Carolina Playmakers and the Carolina Dramatic Association. Under the editorship of Professor Frederick H. Koch, of the University of North Carolina, this new quarterly publication first appeared in March, 1928. The magazine will help to create a still closer fellowship among North Carolinians who are committed to the development of a native theatre.

It is part of the creed of the Carolina Playmakers that if they can see the lives of those about them “with understanding, with imagination,” they may be able “to interpret that life in dramatic images of enduring significance.” The Play-Book is meant to further this ambition. Its subscription price of one dollar a year will bring it within the reach of all Southerners who are interested in the Carolina Movement—as important to us as the Irish Movement has been in its way.

The contents of the first issue include an article by Paul Green, winner of the Pulitzer play award, an essay on the first American playwright, Thomas Godfrey, by Professor Archibald Henderson, and an account by Roland Holt of the Carolina Playmakers’ invasion of New York. Numerous illustrations including attractive woodcuts by J. J. Lankes add to the pleasing character of The Play-Book.

SOUTHERN INTERSCHOLASTIC PRESS CONVENTION

The Southern Interscholastic Press Convention held at Washington and Lee University on May 11 and 12 was reported in the state press as follows:

A made-in-Virginia banquet, everything used being procured in Virginia and donated by Virginia firms, featured the closing of the Southern Interscholastic Press Convention, held by the Journalism School of Washington and Lee University here. For the last two days, 150 high and preparatory editors from ten Southern States, accompanied by twenty of their publication advisors and journalism teachers, have been in attendance at the convention.

A churchman, Rev. J. Lewis Gibbs, editor of the Southwestern Episcopalian; a lawyer, Professor R. T. Johnson, of the Washington and Lee law school, and an educator, Dr. William M. Brown, head of the department of psychology, spoke to the delegates during the banquet, giving their respective opinions of the modern newspaper.

A five-column newspaper, The Banquet News, published during the meal by the journalism students, was distributed to the delegates before the banquet ended.

Copies of ten leading Virginia dailies, including The Richmond Times-Dispatch, were distributed to each of the delegates following the banquet.

Dr. Henry Louis Smith, president of Washington and Lee, presented nine loving cups, donated by leading Southern publishers, to the prize winners in school papers, magazines and annuals.

First prize in class A annuals went to...
Breckenbridge High School, of San Antonio, Texas; first prize in class B annual went to Staunton Military Academy, of Staunton, Va., and first prize in class C annual went to Woodberry Forest School, of Woodberry Forest, Va.

First prize in class A magazines went to Central High, Greensboro, N. C.; first prize in class B magazines went to E. C. Glass High, Lynchburg, Va., and first prize in class C magazines went to R. E. Lee High, Staunton, Va.

First prize in class A newspapers went to Asheville High, Asheville, N. C.; first prize in class B newspapers went to George Washington High, Danville, Va., and first prize in class C newspapers went to Weston High, Weston, W. Va.

Winners of the individual merit contests were: Hany Berlingame, of McKinley Technical High, Washington, D. C.; J. M. Morse, Columbia High, Columbia, S. C., and H. E. Baum, of Princeton High, Princeton, W. Va. They were given books by Virginia authors.

FOR A SANE FOURTH

There are in the United States today 200 happy children, toddlers and older—maybe one of them is in your home—who will be mourned by grief-stricken parents on July 5, unless their parents take greater interest in and exercise more care over the way they celebrate the 'Fourth' than did the parents of 195 little Americans last July," says the American Museum of Safety in a statement issued by its president, Arthur Williams.

And in addition to these living sacrifices to the spirit of the Fourth of July season, there will be more than 3,000 other victims of the "Fourth" suffering varying degrees of agony, some of them condemned to go through life more or less maimed, even blind.

These tragic figures are based on cold statistics. They are the foreknowledge gained by the American Museum of Safety through its annual surveys of Fourth of July accidents and its efforts to keep these tragedies down to a minimum.

Yet, in spite of the annual warnings issued by the American Museum of Safety and other organizations, and the broadcasting of warnings by newspapers and magazines through pictures and the printed word and warnings issued to employees by many industries, each year sees an increasing danger to the innocent celebrants of the "Fourth." In the last three years the number of deaths has nearly doubled and the number of injuries has increased three-fold.

In 1925 there were 111 deaths and 1030 injuries; in 1926, the deaths were 161 and the injuries 2205, and last year 195 lives were lost and the injuries ran up to 3179.

Mr. Williams is a pioneer in organized safety work. He was one of the founders of the American Museum of Safety and has been its president since its incorporation in 1911. He expressed the belief that the annual toll of deaths and injuries would have been much greater but for these warnings.

"Yet, there is little excuse for this condition," Mr. Williams said. "Why should there be 200 or more happy children with us today who will not be living after the Fourth of July season, and more than 3,000 others who will be more or less severely injured, some of them blind? We cannot, for the most part, blame these deaths and injuries on the victims, because so many of them are so young. The blame attaches partly to parents and guardians, partly to conditions that permit explosive and inflammable material coming into the hands of children without proper supervision, and partly to the long-drawn-out celebration of the Fourth of July.

"Already, in June, in some communities, dealers have been arrested for the sale of fireworks to children. These are usually the smaller communities. In the larger cities the restrictions of the fire departments and police departments are more stringent."
“No doubt, the annual toll of fireworks victims would be greatly reduced if the sale of fireworks were limited to the short period from July 1 to July 4. Also there is no doubt that there would be a great reduction in these accidents if parents exercised more care over their children.”

In 1927, the statistics show, there were 21 pre-Fourth deaths, 168 occurred on the Fourth, and six after the Fourth. Twenty-six of the victims were under five years of age, some of them only two, the cause of the deaths of these infants being phosphorous poisoning from eating torpedoes and other fireworks. The injured ran in about the same proportion, 124 of the victims being five years old and younger. The greater number of victims were between the ages of six and 20, and the great majority were boys.

A STATE-WIDE TEACHERS’ RETIREMENT SYSTEM FOR EVERY STATE

Every state in our Union should have a teachers’ retirement system that is actuarially sound, built up by both the public and the teacher. Twenty-two states and the District of Columbia have state-wide laws, while eleven more states have laws applying to certain cities only. Some of these retirement systems are most satisfactory, while some states are working to revise and strengthen their laws.

The teachers of the states having a good retirement law can do a lot to help bring about the enactment of a sound law in the sixteen states now working for such legislation.

What can you do?

Use your influence, as a member of our great teaching profession, as a voting citizen, in season and out of season, to encourage the tax-paying public to see that good retirement systems make for better efficiency in the schools by making our teachers more efficient.

The teacher working under a good retirement system knows that a sound retirement law attracts and holds capable young people in the profession, that it gives a better guarantee of promotion within the profession because of the retirement of teachers at retirement age.

The fortunate teacher, under a good, state-wide retirement law, realizes that the efficiency of the teacher is increased because it lengthens the period of teaching efficiency by relieving her mind of the fear of destitute old age; and again she shows that the good retirement law makes it possible for the teacher to invest in study, training, and travel without endangering the provision made for her old age.

When the teaching profession and the rest of the taxpayers in the states having no retirement laws are made aware of this, retirement legislation will take place. Provision should be made for reciprocal relations between states with retirement systems. It should be possible for a teacher to render teaching services at any place in the United States or its territories without being penalized by a reduced retirement allowance. This will be possible when all states have a sound retirement law.—E. Ruth Pyrtle.

GOOD ENGLISH

“She looked like a lady, but did you hear her talk?” is a remark which indicates how often people are judged by their conversation. One of the frequent questions asked of librarians is “Where can I find books to help me improve my English?” With this in mind the American Library Association has published a reading course on Good English, which aims to help those who wish to improve their conversation, their use of words and incidentally their appreciation of what they read and hear.

The author, Virginia Bacon, readers’ Adviser of the Library Association of Portland, Oregon, has given the reader a num-
ber of suggestions to help him in his study. Among the things she mentions are: Use the dictionary. Keep a special notebook for vocabulary study. Find someone to study with you, and make a game of your work wherever you can. Avoid self-consciousness. Read good books, especially the informal essay and modern drama for help in improving conversational English.

Mrs. Bacon recommends five books, including a grammar, all of them simple and easy to follow. These together with the introductory essay point the way to the correct use of English for conversation and writing, to the enlargement of the vocabulary, and to a wider understanding and appreciation of the spoken and written language of other people.

Good English is the most recent of the Reading with a Purpose series. These reading courses, covering a wide range of subjects and written by persons of authority, are available at most libraries. They may be borrowed along with the books recommended in each course.

HEALTH SERVICE INCREASING IN VIRGINIA

Counties in Virginia conducting rural health service under the direction of a whole-time health officer increased from 6 in 1920 to 15 counties in 1928. In 10 counties a sanitation officer is employed, according to recent study of rural health problems in Virginia made by a graduate student at the University of Virginia. In 14 counties rural health service is in charge of a sanitation officer and a nurse; in 11 counties a public health nurse heads the work. In all, 50 of the 100 counties in Virginia maintain some form of public health service. The Virginia State Board of Health provides 50 per cent of the funds required to establish in counties whole-time medical health units up to a budget of $10,000. A donation from the Rockefeller Foundation, equal to one-half of the State grant, further supplements the amount available to counties for work of this character. For less complete forms of health service State aid is given according to the extent of the work undertaken.—School Life.

THE READING TABLE

DICTIONARIES FOR DELIGHT


These two rather similar books represent the sanest authorities in British and American usage. Mr. Fowler, widely known as co-author with his brother of The King's English, The Concise English Dictionary, and The Pocket English Dictionary, has here provided what must long remain the most charming, the most gracious, the most urbane, and the most readable of dictionaries. Professor Krapp, recognized as one of the soundest of American authorities in language, has produced a handbook less ambitious, perhaps, in its purposes but more practical for use in America.

Modern English Usage is a constant delight to its readers; its flashes of wit are a unique touch in dictionary making. Under the word pronunciation, for instance, one reads: "The ambition to do better than our neighbors is in many departments of life a virtue; in pronunciation it is a vice; there the only right ambition is to do as our neighbors."

Speaking of writers who wish to safeguard their dignity and yet be vivacious, Fowler comments: "Surprise a person of the class that is supposed to keep servants cleaning his own boots, and either he will go on with the job while he talks to you, as if it were the most natural thing in the world, or else he will explain that the boot-boy or scullerymaid is ill and give you to understand that he is, despite appearances, superior to boot-cleaning. If he takes the
second course, you conclude that he is not superior to it; if the first, that perhaps he is."

There are apt characterizations. Writing of agreement in number, the author applies the word "red-herrings" to that situation where following a singular subject a plural noun attached to an of or the like, happens to close the trail and draws the writer off the scent. The humor that comes from using big words he titles "polysyllabic humor." The custom of seeking unusual words, of saying momentarily for instantly or namepart for title role or mentality for mind, is satirized under the term "novelty hunting." One who applies a rule willy-nilly is called a "whole-hogger."

Perhaps the American reader may be surprised to find this comment under eat: "The past is spelt ate, rarely eat and pronounced et to rime with met, wrongly åt to rime with mate." This current British usage is not observed in America, however, and it is the necessity of keeping an eye out for just such divergences in usage that will make the American reader wary.

A comparison of Modern English Usage with the Comprehensive Guide shows characteristically in the case of the word nice, which Fowler calls a "vogue-word," Krapp a "counter-word." "Nice," says Fowler, "has been spoilt like clever by its bonnes fortunes; it has been too great a favorite with the ladies who have charmed out of it all its individuality and converted it into a mere diffuser of vague and mild agreeableness. Everyone who uses it in its more proper senses which fill most of the space given to it in any dictionary, and avoids the modern one that tends to oust them all, does a real if small service to the language."

Professor Krapp's greater liberality admits both the literary use, as in "a nice distinction," and also the colloquial use, as in "a nice day" or "a nice dress." "The word is not to be rejected in the sense of fine, dainty, pretty, agreeable," says Krapp, "since they are established in use and since the language must have words like this for the colloquial purposes of everyday English."

"It is more than doubtful," he goes on, "if the use of these generalized terms is a sign of an impoverished vocabulary, as it is often said to be, or is characteristic of the speech only of persons who are incapable of appreciating fine shades of meaning . . . . There are many situations in life when it is not necessary to tell anything precisely, when indeed the social situation would be very inadequately met if one did say something precise . . . . That these uses (nice, fine, great; awful, terrible, etc.) remain on the level of colloquial discourse and do not often pass over into literary use is no condemnation of them . . . ."

The American authority, it is apparent, attaches much importance to the idea of appropriateness, and does not blink the fact that words shift from one level of usage to another. For instance, of the noun stunt he says: "Colloquial and slang for a part or turn in an entertainment. The word is now so generally used that it seems not improbable that it will pass from slang into standard speech."

Of the verb broadcast one learns: "Through broadcasted must for the present be characterized as low colloquial, and though it does violence to tradition as established in the simple verb to cast, with a present, a past tense, and a past participle all alike, nevertheless it is altogether probable that broadcasted will make its way in time into good general use."

So fascinating an approach to matters of usage as these two books offer is troublesome in that one never knows when to put the book down—not even the reviewer!

Conrad T. Logan

GOOD READING SERIES

This series is unusual in that each book appeals to the children of the appropriate elementary grades through wholesome, interesting subject matter. In the primer and the first reader the same characters are kept throughout the book; thus a story thread connects all lessons. This gives continuity to the context and holds good interest for all beginners in reading.

In all the readers the stories are based not primarily on the folk tales as found in so many other series, but on various vital topics. These topics range as follows: nature study, activities of the home and community, historical, geographical, and scientific studies. They do contain a few unusual folk tales, fables, and good selections of poems. Not only are the stories well selected from the best in the literary field—therefore valuable in themselves, but they lead also to further literary reading. Stories from the Arabian Nights and letters from great men like Roosevelt make a child in the grammar grades eager to read similar works.

Not only is the subject matter wisely chosen, but much attention is given to vocabulary development. Most of the words used in the primer and first reader are found in the Thorndike Word Book or are among those used by children in everyday life.

The mechanics of these books is also carefully worked out according to the best scientific methods of the day. A child is aided especially in the primary grades to form the best eye habits. The paper is excellent, the type clear, and the lines in the beginning books are short and regular in length.

The illustrations have been worked out as carefully as the other details of the books. They are attractive, secure interest in the subject matter, and are simple in detail, making a strong appeal to children.

The authors in their introduction to the primer give as the educational aims of their material, aside from the great one of teaching children to read, the following:
1. To enrich the child's experience.
2. To increase his love of home and family life.
3. To stimulate his interest in social groups outside his own.
4. To develop observation and interest in nature.

Such aims could not help but develop a love for reading in the primary grades.

In giving the aims of their material to the reader of the Sixth Book the authors write:
1. To give enjoyment to your reading.
2. To take you to interesting places and introduce you to great persons.
3. To acquaint you with the best ways of reading so that you will learn to read rapidly and easily get the meaning carried by words.
4. To extend your reading to many good books to help you make them your friends and companions, true and helpful.
5. To teach you to think clearly, feel rightly, and love deeply the best things in life.

This is the mission of Good Reading. With these aims before him no child could help but gain interest in the written page and in forming higher ideals.

Virginia Buchanan

MAY MAGAZINE ARTICLES

The ten outstanding magazine articles selected by the Franklin Square Council of Librarians from the May issues of magazines published in America are as follows:

The Doctor's Kit of Tools—Michael W. Davis in Survey Graphic
Can a Rich Man Be Convicted?—Train versus Sinclair in Forum
Latin America Falls in Line—Genaro Arbaiza in American Mercury
THE VIRGINIA TEACHER

THE TAMING OF TEXAS—Tom Finty, Jr. in Review of Reviews

SHALL OUR FARMERS BECOME PEASANTS?—William E. Dodd in Century Magazine

DOES BUSINESS WANT SCHOLARS?—Walter S. Gifford in Harper's Magazine

THE IMPERIALISM OF THE DOLLAR—Gov. Ritchie in Atlantic Monthly

CHARLES E. HUGHES—Everett Colby in Scribner's Magazine

SPEED AND BUSINESS—S. L. Rothafel (Roxy) in Magazine of Business

GOING CANOEING?—Collin Snyder in Field and Stream

OTHER BOOKS OF INTEREST TO TEACHERS


This book is the first of its kind published in the field of Nature Study. It brings together into one volume much necessary and valuable information for the teacher of this subject.

A very interesting section deals with Nature Education programs in the various states. Another gives a brief history, the aims and work of the leading "Associations and Clubs Interested in the Promotion of Nature Education." One deals with the training of leaders in Nature Education in teachers colleges, normal schools, summer nature schools, and Nature Education camps.

The sections of especial help to the grade teacher, however, are on the Nature Calendar, the School Nature Outline, the Bibliographies, and "How to Form a Nature Club." Here she finds an excellent outline with suggestions as to the season when each topic is best taken up and what and how much to give in each grade. Excellent material on organization and method and detailed references to Nature Magazine are included.

To the up-to-date teacher this volume is indeed worth much.

B. W.


The exercises in this manual are appropriate for supplementing the ordinary textbooks on civics as used in the high schools, junior colleges, and university extension courses. The aim is to lead the student beyond the covers of the books into the practical fields of actual government.


The charts contained in this large-page manual and the prepared foundations for making additional ones save time for the teacher and offer stimulating opportunities to children for doing things that are both interesting and instructive. The work outlined may be done in the 7th, 8th, or 9th grades.


This is one of the interesting and valuable volumes recently published by the Institute for Research in the Social Sciences at the University of Virginia. This number deals particularly with area and population, health, social statistics, education, agriculture, manufacturing and mining, banking and insurance, taxation, cost of government, etc.


Maps and outlines to be filled in and completed by the pupil enable the teacher to present American history in an organized, vivid, and practical manner; and the pupil enjoys doing things with his hands while his imagination is stimulated and his understanding is enlarged. Book I covers the period from the discovery of America by Columbus through the War of 1812; Book II begins with Monroe's administration and comes down to the very recent past, ending with some interesting projects in government and civics.


Book I in this series is based on Blackmar and Gillin's Outlines of Sociology and Case's Outlines of Introductory Sociology; Book II is based on Beach's An Introduction to Sociology and Social Problems and Case's Outlines of Introductory Sociology. Regular reading assignments are suggested, questions are proposed to be answered, and space is conveniently provided for keeping extended notes in connection with each topic and division of the subject. The work laid out should be of aid to the teacher and of real assistance to the pupil, and when it is done there will be tangible and visible records for review and additional study.


This is a text for secondary schools in which the material usually used in the colleges is condensed and simplified for use by high school students. The major objective seems to be preparation for the college rather than for the student whose education will stop with the high school. But life application is made to the problems of everyday life. As a preparation for college it is an excellent book. It is especially valuable for use as a reference in connection with other textbooks.

G. W. C.

In this book the author has brought together highly significant material which should be of inestimable value to that student who is confronted by the task of making adjustment to a new and trying situation—namely, the college freshman. The material is put upon a practical, workable basis in such simple, comprehensive terms that the perplexed individual can make direct application of the methods suggested. Those relative to the taking of notes, the use of the library, the laboratory, and textbooks, should be especially helpful in inducting these groping minds into college practices. The various processes are clearly defined and arranged in logical order, from the selection of courses through the different psychological phases involved, to the actual teaching of the study habits. It seems, in short, one of the most worthy expositions of the "study process" yet put into the hands of teachers and students.

B. J. L.


In Psychological Foundations of Teaching Professor Tonks has presented a simple, untechnical and practical discussion of several important principles of psychology which underlie the teaching process. Among the problems discussed are instinct, feeling, interest, attention, habit formation, and other related topics. These problems are so clearly defined and practically applied that the elementary teacher will find in it a most helpful guide to the understanding of child nature and the improvement of classroom practice.

W. B. Varner


In this revised edition of elementary psychology Professor Phillips has done an excellent piece of work. The book is modern, very interesting and practical. It is designed for the beginning student and would be an excellent book for an introductory course in psychology. As we would have it, the author has given psychology an educational bent, one of the major considerations being that of character building. The author has avoided the error that many writers of beginning psychology are guilty of, that of presenting technical controversies over instinct and behaviorism. The book aims to help the beginning student interpret life as he lives it rather than to prepare him to defend a theory.

In the revised edition there are three new chapters: Human Nature Simplified; Mental Hygiene; and the History of Psychology. The problems and references at the end of each chapter are also a valuable addition to the volume.

W. B. V.


This book is divided into four parts of which the first part contains teaching outlines in chart form for the work in nature study for the first to eighth grades inclusive with an introduction dealing with the methods and objectives of the courses. The second part contains plates and life histories of 48 mammals, 104 birds, 19 fish, 15 amphibia, and 15 reptiles. The third part contains the plates and life histories of 64 galls, 72 insects, and 32 other invertebrates. The fourth part contains plates and life histories of 176 forms of plant life. These figures do not include numerous identification drawings. For instance, there are 118 for the identification of the leaves of trees and 200 illustrations of wild flowers.

The information is given in chart form which makes an unusually ready reference and allows a vast amount of information to be concentrated between the covers. If the same information were given in the usual form it would take a five foot shelf of books to contain it. This book is just what practically every grade teacher has been wishing for and is one for which she will have constant use. It is probably the most valuable contribution make in recent years to the teaching of nature study.

G. W. C.


The test-study-test plan is here utilized in a series of lessons in elementary English for use in grades five and six and in junior high school. All the lessons are on perforated sheets, and a teacher's answer book is provided.

The lessons are divided into nine blocks of work: Sentence Sense, Grammatical Correctness, Singular and Plural Number, Sentence Structure and Simple Possessives, Capital and Punctuation, Abbreviations and Degrees of Comparison, Correct Word Forms, Spelling and Contractions, and Themes. Each block contains ten lessons, of which the first is the pre-test, the ninth re-test, and the tenth general test.

Perhaps the most original feature of the book is the attempt in the last block to center attention on the selection of good theme titles and on theme structure and form.


This book of exercises was prepared for use with the Century Handbook of Writing, with which it is closely keyed, but general references are given to eight other textbooks as well.

Designed for high school students—and college freshmen—the exercises are concerned with four main problems: sentence structure, grammar, spelling, and punctuation.

"Graphic analysis," offered as an absolutely new method of analyzing sentences, is used in place of diagraming, and provides a means of indicating sentence structure and grammatical relationships by wavy and straight lines, letters and symbols.

Although the pages are sometimes crowded and insufficient space is allowed for writing, these exercises will be a serviceable device in helping students win sentence mastery.

The authors with the completion of this book have given to the elementary school a series—primer, first, and second books—of worth-while, well-graded reading material. As a supplementary reader it has much value, for the stories are short enough to hold the interest and there is sufficient variety for everybody. The illustrations are most attractive.

M. L. S.


This is a new set of arithmetics which conforms to the best of modern theory and practices in teaching arithmetic. I notice the following outstanding points: (1) The problems relate to things that are real and interesting to children, as a group of problems based on Saving for Summer Vacation, Buying by Parcel Post, etc. (2) Abundant test material on the fundamental operations is provided, as well as frequent improvement tests with directions for self-scoring by the pupils. (3) Many excellent teaching exercises are given, as carefully graded exercises which prepare the pupil for the difficulties in dividing by nine, and a clear statement of the five steps to be taken in long division. (4) The book for the higher grades makes clear in an interesting way the practices of modern banks and, in explaining how money transactions are conducted, gives information of real social value.

I believe the use of this series of books in our public schools would do much to improve the teaching of arithmetic and give satisfactory results in pupil ability to meet life situations which call for knowledge of arithmetical processes.

Emily Goodlett

NEWS OF THE COLLEGE AND ITS ALUMNÆ

Dr. Kilpatrick's visit to the College was one of the biggest events of the month of April. The great teacher and philosopher spoke to the faculty and student body on the evening of April 23, in Walter Reed Hall, contrasting the present era with the era of the "buggy" and showing how education develops with civilization. His attack was, of course, scientific, but his appeal was human. The calmness with which he held his hearers showed that he is a true teacher. Since his visit there has been a rush on his works in the College library.

Another important happening was the announcement that the Breeze had won second place among college newspapers entered in the contest sponsored by the Columbia Scholastic Press Association. For the past several years the Breeze has sent delegates to the convention of that organization which is held yearly in New York City. The benefits derived are beginning to make a showing.

Our college annual, the Schoolma'am, has gone to press with every one of her belongings. The book returns about the first of June in all her finery of print and engraving.

Florence Reese, president of Student Government, and Frances Bass, vice-president, attended the thirteenth annual conference of the Southern Inter-Collegiate Association of Student Government. This year the group met at Randolph-Macon Woman's College in Lynchburg April 19-21.

Among the prominent people who made addresses on the problems of student government were Dr. D. R. Anderson, President of Randolph-Macon Woman's College, Professor John L. Manahan, Dean of the School of Education, University of Virginia, and Miss Mary L. Sherrell, of Mt. Holyoke College, Massachusetts.

Another group of Harrisonburg representatives went to Randolph-Macon during the past month. Adelia Krieger, Evelyn Wolfe, Anne Bulloch, and Stribbie Dottier attended a Y. W. C. A. conference there. Dr. William Geiger of William and Mary College made the main talks.

New officers of the local Y. W. C. A. were installed Thursday, April 12. The Reverend J. Lewis Gibbs of Staunton talked on the responsibility of youth. Mary Boone Murphy took the oath of office as president, which was administered by the outgoing executive, Marion Wagner.

Chapel programs have been varied. Professor Milton Smith, of Teachers College, New York, and Rabbi I. Mortimer Bloom of the Hebrew Temple, New York City, have
given interesting talks. The Dayton orchestra and the Bridgewater male quartet gave concerts on different occasions; Mr. and Mrs. Potter, of Charleston, West Virginia, gave a concert. Mr. Potter is brother-in-law of Dr. Rives of the local Methodist Church. Mrs. Potter sings and Mr. Potter plays. During their stay in the city they gave several programs in the Methodist Church.

One of the loveliest musical programs given in chapel was the Easter cantata sung by the Glee Club. A choral fantasy, “King Nutcracker,” based on the “Nutcracker Suite” by Tschaikowsky, was given by the College Glee Club the latter part of March. The girls spent the greater part of April preparing for the trip which took in Danville, Roanoke, and V. P. I. The Glee Club brought the V. P. I. Dramatic Club to the College April 21. The boys presented “Mrs. Bumpstead-Leigh,” a romantic comedy in three acts which was a scream from start to finish, with the girl parts so carefully and yet ridiculously portrayed. The quartet which accompanied the players sang some things that were well worth listening to.

The Choral Club functions with its usual high grade activity. Friday evening, April 12, the organization presented “The Bells of Beaujolais,” a two-act operetta. Under the able direction of Miss Shaeffer the Club put on a very attractive production. The chorus singing was particularly good.

The Aeolian Music Club, which promotes music of the best type on the campus, has admitted five new members. Henrietta Chapman, Lillian Spain, Nelson Chapman, and Elizabeth Brinkley passed the entrance examinations on piano, while Phyllis Palmer passed the voice exam. The new members gave a program in chapel, and the high degree of their accomplishment was evident.

Spring fever has in no way retarded athletics. Many students are working hard to gain as many points as possible before the end of the school year. The system provides for girls who have only average ability in certain activities as well as for those who specialize in one sport. In that way a girl may win her points in more than one activity.

Warm weather has aroused renewed interest in swimming. Miss Florence Skadding, who gave the life saving tests here last spring, returned April 25 to give the tests to a new group and to investigate those who were working for the Examiners’ seals. Her trip extended to April 28 and included an exhibition of some very fine diving. The meet with George Washington University did not materialize, but plans are even now being made for next year.

The annual basketball awards were presented by Mr. Duke in assembly, April 11. Clelia Heizer, captain-elect for next year, received a sweater and a letter. Doan, concluding her fourth year of varsity basketball, Miller and Cockerill, each having finished her third year on the team, and Smith and Quisenberry, two-year players, received stars. Cockerill and Doan are not returning.

Track practice, in preparation for Field Day, has been started. The class leaders are: Margaret Shackleford, freshman; Elsie Quisenberry, sophomore; Audrey Hyatt, junior; and Bill Alphin, senior. Each girl must attend sixteen practices to obtain her points. Those going out for track may go out for only one other event—swimming or tennis.

Baseball season is opened. Helen Holladay is manager of the senior team; Frances Rand, junior; Virginia Hughes, sophomore; and Harriet Dickson, freshman. The final clashes have not come yet.

The tennis courts are greatly improved by a new wire cage and resurfacing. Work on the new buildings continues as rapidly as possible. The annex to the service building is almost under roof and the new dormitory will soon reach that stage.

The sophomore class had its annual tree planting Friday afternoon, April 13. Mina
Thomas, president of the class, conducted the exercises, while Dr. Wayland, honorary member, made the address. The words of the song were composed by Nancy McCaleb, a sophomore. Phyllis Palmer, another second-year girl, read an original poem, "The Beauty of Growth."

The freshman class has been making itself known. "The Sketch Book," an original musical play, was presented by the Froshes April 27, at the conclusion of their "baby day." The day was a great success despite the heavy snowstorm, and the play came off well under the direction of Catherine Sponseller and Helene Duvall, with the aid of Miss Marbut. Elizabeth Bishop, Ruth Archibald, and Mary Buchanan were cast in the leading parts. The choruses were particularly original and snappy. The orchestra also was composed entirely of freshmen.

The freshman Breeze, under the editorship of Frances Snyder, of Roanoke, was a worthy issue. It very appropriately came out in red and white at the end of the play. The freshman class added distinction to itself April 27.

Freshman privileges have been extended for the spring quarter. First-year girls may now go down town one night a week.

Officers have been elected for various organizations. "Dots" Murphy succeeds Lucy Davis as president of the Alpha Literary Society. Mildred Rhodes is the new secretary-treasurer. Eugenia Ely is now president of the Blue Stone Orchestra; Madeline Hinkel, vice-president; Mary Buchanan, secretary; and Othelda Mitchell, treasurer and business manager.

The Frances Sale Club has installed Eugenia Ely, president; Mary Watt, vice-president; Lestelle Barbour, treasurer; Mary Brown Allgood, secretary; Dorothy Rhodes, sergeant-at-arms; and Marianna Duke, chairman of the program committee.

The newly elected leaders of the French Circle are Mina Thomas, president; Elizabeth Kaminsky, vice-president; Edna Phelps, secretary; Elsie Quisenberry, treasurer; and Virginia Thomas, chairman of the program committee.

The officers of the Lanier Literary Society for this quarter are Lillian Jackson, president; Anne Garrett, vice-president; Axie Brockett, secretary; Rosalie Wynne, sergeant-at-arms; Till Bell, critic; and Mary M. Nickols, chairman of program committee.

The Art Club is doing some splendid work. On several occasions the members have sponsored art exhibits which bring to the College copies of the works of the great masters. Frequently girls are given an opportunity to order duplicates. Advertising has improved greatly in quantity and quality since the Art Club has taken over the direction and making of posters.

The Math Club is not lazy. Dr. Converse's numerous volumes on mathematics are being catalogued by the members. The Day Students enjoy the companionship they get through their organization, and the weekly luncheons are drawing them even closer together.

Dorothy Cox and Lucy Taylor are going to Farmville to represent H. T. C. in the triangular debate between Harrisonburg, Fredericksburg, and Farmville. The Debating Club had charge of the preliminaries here.

That spring is really here is evidenced by the fact that preparations are numerous for both May Day exercises and the Apple Blossom Festival in Winchester. The May Day Court is at this time a secret organization, but the plans for the float and parade in Winchester are better known and promise a lovely effect.

The progress of students during the past quarter is shown in the merit roll. To Mary Travers Armentrout goes the unique distinction of receiving all A's during the second quarter. The list of honor students:

Seniors: Mary Moore Aldhizer, Broad-
way; Mary Armentrout, of McGaheysville; Pattie Callaway, of Norwood; Martha Cockerill, of Purcellville; Martha Derrick, of Pulaski; Beth Jordan, of Roanoke; Rowena Lacy, of Oak Park.

Juniors: Elizabeth Cockerill, of Purcellville; Eva Kinsey, of Covington; Effie Elva Kirkpatrick, of Debee, N. B., Canada; Mary Thelma Miller, of Roseland; Mary Finney Smith, of Parksley.

Sophomores: Mildred Berryman, of Newport News; Mary Crane, of Waynesboro; Ruth Dold, of Buena Vista; Harriet Harris, of Winchester; Janet Houck, of Harrisonburg; Elizabeth Kaminsky, of Norfolk; Elizabeth Knight of Westfield, N. J.; Bernice Mercer, of Norfolk; Sylvia Myers, of Harrisonburg; Nina Grey Pifer, of Mt. Crawford; Blanche Sprinkle, of Roanoke.

Freshmen: Lola Davis, of Harrisonburg; Gladys Green, of Saxe; Katherine Thayer, of Norfolk; Lois Winston, of Hampden Sidney.

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OUR CONTRIBUTORS

WILLIAM H. KILPATRICK is professor of education in Teachers College, Columbia University. Both as author of Education for a Changing Civilization and of Foundations of Method and as a teacher of large power and influence, Dr. Kilpatrick is widely known.

CARRIE BELLE PARKS is a teacher of English in the State Teachers College at Indiana, Pennsylvania, and a frequent contributor to the professional magazines for English teachers.

W. A. CRAIGIE is at present engaged in the preparation of a dictionary of American English, being for the time at the University of Chicago.

EVANGELINE JOSEPH has just completed her directed student teaching in the Harrisonburg Training School and here recounts her effort to have fifth-grade pupils make an artistic book for nature study.

MARY LOUISE SEEGER, who is a professor of primary education in the State Teachers College at Harrisonburg, prepared this summary of information regarding habit formation for a recent meeting of the local Parent-Teachers Association.

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