THE VIRGINIA TEACHER

February, 1929

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION NUMBER

THE GROUP CONFERENCE UNDER THE DALTON PLAN
A NEW BOOKSHELF FOR HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS
MAKING SCHOOL SUPERVISION MORE DEMOCRATIC
AN INVESTIGATION OF EIGHTH GRADE READING
CHECKING BASIC VOCABULARY IN THE FIRST GRADE
APPLE FARMING IN THE SHENANDOAH VALLEY
THE THEORY OF DIRECT TEACHING
OBJECTIVE CLASSROOM TESTS

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THE THEORY OF DIRECT TEACHING

EDUCATION is the production of a right-thinking, creative population, which is able to fit into the scheme of things outside the schoolroom and to adjust itself to whatever situation arises. It is the growth from the dependent child, unable to care for its own wants, into the self-dependent adult, able to adapt himself to the purposes and exigencies of a progressive world. To accomplish this growth, real learning must be acquired, bit by bit, in the form of lesson units. In so doing we must not mistake mere information for educational content; only as information can be adapted, does it become of use to the individual and form a part of education. The primary thing in education is adaptation.

And now arises the question, “What is adaptation?” It is that change which takes place within an individual, when he has acquired, through real learning, the ability to do. What the ability is, depends upon the learning unit—one of the component parts of a subject—and it always corresponds to the adaptation in the pupil. For example, reading has only one unit, the reading adaptation, which is the ability to interpret the printed page. It is not enough glibly to pronounce words, in which art the lesson-learner type is often most proficient, but one must comprehend as well; otherwise, no adaptation can take place. Adaptation does not mean skill; skill is built upon adaptation and represents the dexterity with which the ability is used. If one fails, for a time, to use an ability, skill may be lost, but true adaptation is never lost. If a thing be forgotten, or not well done at all times, we may know the adaptation has not been made. What was accomplished was simply performance. The period of pupil effort before adaptation is reached is the time of assimilation. Assimilative material must be provided in the form of lesson units.

How may we know when adaptation is made? The surest evidence is the ability of the child to make application of what he has learned. For instance, the primary social adaptation of the child is made when he realizes the fact that there are other people to be considered, as well as himself. A little Hungarian lad entered school with the idea that whatever he wanted was his by right of appropriation. Other children’s apples, pencils, books, could be traced to Andy. He must return the article, or, if it had been disposed of, he must replace it. Eventually, the time came when things no longer disappeared. Andy had made the adaptation!

When the pupil has acquired the lesson product, he may be said to have attained mastery. The attainment of any unit is mastery. It is complete learning, lasting and customary in its use, and must be secured before adaptation, or change, in an individual is effected. In this process, it is not always the person who shows the highest I.Q., or who gives evidence of being the brightest in the beginning, that proves the most capable. The one who seems slowest often outstrips all others because of his painstaking and sustained effort. The teacher must have ever clearly in mind, not only the unit to be mastered, but the pupil, himself. Mastery has no half-way place; either the child knows it or he does not. Therefore, the teacher must be constantly on the alert, ever watchful for the signs that will indicate mastery. It is easy to mistake apparent adaptation for the real thing. Often the expression of the face and the tone of the voice give evidence of real learning.

Joe has a mind quick to grasp things and
is unafraid, when puzzled, to question the explanation that has been given. When the teacher steps to the board and demonstrates, step by step, it is beautiful to see illumination quicken his countenance and good to hear his emphatic, “That is right!” He is now able to make application of what he has learned.

For a number of years, not only the educational world, but the business world, has been dissatisfied with the results obtained from the stereotyped methods of teaching. Children pass from one grade to another, oftentimes with high marks, only to go out into the world to prove the ineffectiveness of the system. They have failed to make the learning through which they have passed, their own—a part of themselves—thereby losing in efficiency and adjustment. Many plans to overcome the situation, many devices for improvement have been undertaken; i.e., the Montessori method, the Winnetka plan, the project method, direct teaching.

Direct teaching first expressed itself in the teaching of modern languages, where its effectiveness became apparent. The use of the language to be studied as the only vehicle of expression, during the period set aside, has resulted in a quality, which makes up for the extra time and added resourcefulness that are required of the teacher. The attack is direct, not round-about, as in the case of lesson-learning.

An instance in the writer’s experience, perhaps, will bear out this testimony; only, in her case, the men were foreigners and the medium of expression, the English language. In dealing with a group of miners of several different nationalities in an Americanization class in English, she was handicapped, as she thought, in being unable to speak so many languages. She must teach by means of the one language. The interest and comprehension manifested were out of all proportion to expectations. To be sure, it meant much individual teaching, but the men responded so ably that one was fully compensated for the additional time and effort.

Indeed, direct, or systematic teaching bids fair to solve the problem of securing the effective education of all. It is a straightforward attack upon the thing to be learned and can be applied to all learning; it builds upon a central principle, or unit, and ever keeps not only this in mind, but the change that is to be made in the pupil, as well; it throws aside lesson-learning and lesson-hearing as inadequate and wasteful, unable to produce a finished product; it is opposed to lesson-hearing in that definite learning units are defined and each in turn is learned, or mastered, before another is taken up. True it is, that all do not move at the same rate, yet mastery, or change in the individual is steadily proceeding towards accomplishment. Those who are able to attain mastery first may spend their time upon something else. Perhaps there is another subject in which mastery is not so easily attained, or they may want to use it for a broader reading program.

When visiting a primary room, where direct teaching is the procedure, it will be observed that the teacher, each day, goes over and over the same material, working with the pupils in groups, then individually, until the poorest reach the point of adaptation.

In direct teaching, individual work, as well as the co-operative work of the class is necessary. Mere text-book assignment of a lesson is insufficient. It must be approached from many angles. From a certain sixth-grade history class choose a copy of Unit 10—“A New World Discovered.” Around this subject are grouped the incidents directly bearing upon it and those leading up to it, showing clearly that all the knowledge needed cannot be gleaned from one text-book, but many sources must be consulted. That appreciation may go hand in hand with understanding, the class is expected to memorize, in this connection, Joaquin Miller’s “Columbus.” How differ-
ent is the text-book assignment! Unless the teacher is most resourceful, the pupil gets a few facts, but "A New World Discovered" does not become a living, breathing part of him.

In truth, what progress is made with the old formal type of lesson-learning? In an investigation made by Dr. H. C. Morrison and others, it was discovered that what learning is made is by mere chance. The majority of the pupils made a very poor showing when tested without preparation upon the same kind of material that had been studied, indicating that mastery had not been accomplished; a few tested as well without preparation as with it, showing that, by chance, these individuals, designated as the transfer type, had attained mastery and were able to adapt their learning to all situations; another group, also few in number, were able to test higher without preparation than with it, giving evidence of direct learning. The last-named do not learn easily by the lesson-learning method, but secure learning from experience with the materials at hand. They do not show to advantage in regular classroom work, but, if tested without preparation, they are able to make application of what they have learned with higher marks than they secure on the prepared lesson. In the first group, what is known as the quick, bright pupil will make good marks and will pass the grades in quick succession, but he is simply substituting book-learning, or information, for the thing itself. Too many who fail to display that apparent facility in after years, prove the ineffectiveness of lesson-learning. Evidently the leaders of the past and present belong either to the transfer type, or to the direct-learner type.

A day or so ago, a mother entered a primary room during assembly period, when most of the children were out. She began testing her young daughter, who happened to be present, to see if she recognized single words in other content than that in which she had been drilled, going so far as to spell out the words for her. She complained that the child was just memorizing, not realizing that, in these three short weeks, the teacher had been trying to secure the reading attitude instead of teaching words. Evidently the mother was of the lesson-learner type.

In teaching the unit, four major procedures are necessary—pre-test, teach, test, teach again. Sometimes reteaching must be done two or three times. The pretest is the process of ascertaining whether, or not, the child is ready for the unit; teaching a unit requires much oral work, explanation, and repetition; by testing, the teacher discovers whether she may proceed, or must reteach. Reteaching is corrective, or scientific teaching, in which the teaching of the unit is modified or supplemented. If, then, mastery be not secured, the teacher will have found the reason why. Reteaching may need to be done more than once.

The application of direct teaching, however, involves more than one type of teaching—the language-arts type, the science type, the appreciation type, the pure-practice type, and the practical-arts type. The language-arts type is used in teaching subjects containing running discourse, as reading and music; the science type in subjects requiring understanding, as arithmetic and geography; the appreciation type, in literature, appreciation of music, etc.; the pure-practice type, in spelling and such subjects as require drill, but no thought; the practical-arts type is rarely used before high school, but involves those subjects which require manipulation of materials, for example, cooking and industrial arts.

In a certain second grade, literature is being taught. Those little tots are securing an appreciation that one could hardly believe possible. Several members of the class are asked to choose from the shelf books they have read, to give the reason why they chose them, and to tell why they liked them after finishing them. By what better means would one go about building
up an appreciation? Most lesson-learners have access to only one book at a time and that usually a prescribed text. They are not permitted to browse freely among books, choosing here and there as the appeal is born within them, but must needs read the lesson assigned, whether it interests them or not.

Finally, the advantages of direct teaching over lesson-learning may be summed up in the following statements:

In direct teaching the pupil’s growth is watched—he is guided; in lesson-learning, he must conform to certain standards.

Lesson-learning never identifies — one learns only by chance; direct teaching secures the real learning product.

Direct teaching takes cognizance of the pupil, as well as the learning unit; lesson-learning subordinates the pupil to the course of study.

In the one, the child’s development is natural; in the other, artificial means secures artificial results.

Direct teaching secures mastery, or learns the reason why; formal teaching mistakes mere information for adaptation, in most cases.

Direct teaching is clear in concept, simple in application; the stereotyped form is complex in character, adhering to tradition and cut-and-dried formalism.

In the former, each progresses at his own rate, attaining in the end; in the latter, the rapid mark time, the slow are left behind, while the average reap the benefit.

Bessie J. Lanier

“There is nothing like books. Of all things sold incomparably the cheapest; of all pleasures least palling; they take up little room; keep quiet when they are not wanted, and when taken up bring us face to face with the choicest men who have ever lived at their choicest moments.”

—Sam’l Palmer.
other books, Secondary Education in Country and Village, by Ferriss, and Principles of Secondary Education by Williams and Rice. The former sounds a timely note, as the tendency in the typical treatment of the secondary school is to stress the larger, but less representative, city high school, because the more progressive steps are usually taken there first. Ferriss's treatment recognizes with more than usual clarity and helpfulness the social background of the work of the high school, and builds its discussion of aims, organization, and administration in terms of this background. Williams and Rice devote about one-third of their text to the discussion of the comparative status of American and of European secondary schools, making this the distinctive feature of the whole treatise.

Of the nature of a general survey is Secondary Education, by Douglass. Beginning with a careful historical survey, he develops the place of the high school in the American system of education. The two remaining sections of the book deal with the pupil and the adaptation of the curriculum to his needs. In this latter treatment lies the peculiar value of this book, as Douglass has developed his discussion of the high school studies around the generally accepted seven cardinal objectives laid down by the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education.

Clement's Principles and Practices of Secondary Education combines a treatment of the general principles and philosophy of secondary education with a study of the selection and organization of materials in the high school studies. The work of the North Central Association on "unit curriculum" is here presented in helpful form.

A recent book of the survey type is The High School, by Monroe and Weber, one of a series edited by Dr. Walter Monroe. Like the books referred to above, but unlike earlier works such as the Principles of Secondary Education by Dr. Paul Monroe, the discussion of the various school subjects is given unity because the authors do not call in specialists to write upon the different high school studies. The authors have profited by many recent scientific investigations of the high school and its curriculum, and have offered especially vital discussions under the rubrics "the aims of the high school" (chs. 5 and 6) and "a functional view of the high school" (ch. 16). Both in the text and in the suggestive learning exercises at the end of each chapter, the authors have also kept in mind the student who takes courses in education for general information and not for professional training.

A book of somewhat earlier publication, too epoch-making to be left out of consideration here, is Morrison's The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School, to a large extent the result of experimental work in the laboratory schools of the University of Chicago. As the title suggests, this book is a constructive effort to reinterpret the work of the high school and to redirect it from the lesson-learning, ground-to-be-covered extreme, to a point of view designated as "direct teaching," where learning is conceived as learning only when real mastery takes place. The author practices a conception of Dewey's that subject-matter and method should represent a unity and not a dualism and develops a workable, vital technique of learning and teaching.

8See The Theory of Direct Teaching, by Bessie J. Lanier in this number of The Virginia Teacher.
which challenges the professional reorientation of every secondary school teacher. This theory is applied to the various school subjects which now appear as different types of techniques: the science type, the appreciation type, the practical-arts type, the language-arts type, and the pure-practice type. A fine companion volume to this work is a meaty little work entitled *Creative Learning and Teaching* by Miller. This book “takes it out” of the old-line methodizers, no less out of the recent faddists among the testers and classifiers in education. The thesis of the author is discovery of the individual pupil. This thesis has led, on the side of procedure, to the development of units of learning called contracts or challenges, these units being not unlike the teaching jobs in the Dalton plan. However, no book in the recent offerings needs so much to be thoughtfully read to be appreciated and enjoyed.

The recent interest in curriculum organization has led not only to the emphasis upon this topic in the survey texts but also to several special treatises on the subject. Of these, Davis’s *Our Evolving High School Curriculum* is essentially a study of the origins and trends in curriculum development and of the changing objectives back of these trends. As such, the book becomes a valuable sourcebook and book for reference. Similarly, Uhl in his *Secondary School Curricula* devotes two parts of his discussion to historical origins and critical evaluations with a rich source treatment. The three remaining parts deal with (1) educational objectives and curriculum values, (2) the curriculum, in terms of pupil equipment, interests, and needs, and (3) the curriculum and determining local conditions. Carefully annotated bibliographies supplement a content of real richness for the principal and progressive teacher. Quite different in point of view and treatment is Williams’s *The Making of High School Curricula*. After a brief discussion of the historical evolution of procedures in curriculum-making, he weighs critically the various present-day techniques: job analysis, activity analysis, functional analysis, content analysis, and the experimental test. This rather philosophic consideration, however, is made very practical by a listing and discussion of the definite problems and principles of program-making in the last two chapters.

Briggs’s *Curriculum Problems* is a suggestive little volume which in its first chapter lists twenty-seven significant problems of curricular research and in the two successive chapters deals with the relation to the re-organized curricula of attitudes and folkways or mores.

The gap between the studies of the curriculum and those of method in secondary education is interestingly and suggestively bridged by Judd’s *Psychology of Secondary Education*. The author states, as his main objective, the “analysis of the mental processes which pupils exhibit in studying particular high-school subjects.” However, the book contains much data of more general nature on such principles as the social elements in an educational psychology, the significance of maturity, and the nature and scope of generalized training (mental discipline). Pringle’s *Methods with Adolescents* and Reavis’s *Pupil Adjustment* supplement this volume admirably. Prin-
gle develops a synthesis of educational method and the developing adolescent intellect and then applies the bearings of the principles he has set up to the different high school studies. Davis, in a rather unusual volume, discusses the problems and principles of educational guidance and counseling with the emphasis upon pupil failure, and then devotes the latter half of his volume to the detailed discussion of the study and treatment of nine definite children of differing types which came under his observation. No teacher or principal but would find much suggestion in the careful perusal of these case studies.

Monroe's *Directing Learning in the High School* is a companion volume of The *High School*, which is reviewed earlier in this article, and of a book in preparation on educational psychology. It is an unconventional and interesting, but solid treatment of the methods of secondary teaching, management, and testing, with the emphasis upon the first. The major part of the book, therefore, is a discussion of the psychological outcome of education—skills, knowledges, and general patterns of conduct—and of the directing of pupil learning of the various consequent types. Rich collections of learning exercises accompany each chapter.

Two very helpful treatments of method for the beginning teacher or teacher-in-training, are Douglass's *Modern Methods in High School Teaching* and Mueller's *Teacher in Secondary Schools*. Each deals freshly and adequately with such topics as questioning, assignments, study, problem, and project teaching, examinations, and, unlike the books which have been the secondary teachers solace in the past, they draw their illustrations from the secondary field. Douglass will please the reader by his careful treatment of visual education and of the socialized classroom. Mueller seems to the reviewer at his best in his discussion of the use of textbooks and collateral reading and of the individualizing of instruction. Quite different from these treatments, and written more especially for teachers and supervisors in the field, is Waples's *Problems in Classroom Method*, a manual of case analysis. The author conceives of case analysis in terms of the applications of the steps of thinking as laid down by Dewey to the solution of definite classroom problems. The book is a veritable mine of type difficulties and case problems in six major fields: presentation of subject-matter, directing pupils' learning, routine of class management, securing pupils' co-operation, and problems arising from personal traits of pupils and teachers. A number of unusually valuable appendices in the form of analyses of teaching and learning activities round out this unique volume.

In the field of educational measurement, the secondary teacher is no longer forced to fall back upon texts prepared for the elementary field with a brief chapter on high school tests. Ruch and Stoddard's *Tests and Measurements in High School Instruction* and Symonds's *Measurement in Secondary Education* are both scholarly and well-illustrated treatises, dealing with the construction and use of standard tests, and with a detailed treatment of tests in the various studies.

A problem which has recently been given especial attention is that of extra-curricular,
or co-curricular, activities. Of the several available discussions, Meyer's\(^23\) differs from the others in that it is in the main a manual of suggestions for the promotion and direction of the “allied activities.” Foster\(^24\) develops with especial care the concepts of pupil guidance and of student participation in government. McKown\(^25\) combines the general discussion of principles with a wealth of illustrative material, while Roemer and Allen\(^26\) have prepared a treatise giving detailed outlines of the problems involved and also have appended very complete annotated bibliographies.

If this review were exhaustive, a number of other valuable books should be included. For instance, the field of secondary school administration, which was the subject of a number of studies some years ago, is again being attacked with vigor. And, in conclusion, it seems unjust not to mention the vision with which the publishers of college textbooks are supplying this field so adequately with books of a uniformly high order of mechanical structure.

W. J. Gifford

THE GROUP CONFERENCE UNDER THE DALTON PLAN

There are two focal interest points in a Dalton school. These are: first, the individual pupil as a member of a social group. In order to satisfy the first, the school organization is so arranged as to allow the pupil immediate and continuous access to his task and to his teacher. He works ahead without any reference to the progress of other pupils. When he meets with a problem on which he needs help he goes to his teacher, gets it, then returns to continue his work. His responsibility is great; his opportunity for developing those qualities compounded with self is practically without upper limits; and he is unrestricted except by his powers in point of actual achievement.

The Dalton Plan places equal emphasis upon the social responsibility of the individual. It provides opportunity for the pupil's social experiences largely through the effective use of a device which is commonly known as the group conference. This may be defined as a meeting, usually of pupils and a teacher, for a purpose which is clear and objective and worth while, and it involves the manipulation of materials essential to the satisfying of the purpose. The group conference is a community with a problem before it and the individuals make their several contributions to the problem-solving activity or process. It is a concrete expression of American democracy.

The relationship of the group conference to the “lesson assignments” is definite. In order to make this clear it is necessary to bear in mind that in a Dalton school all assignments are written and each is a unit in itself. Usually the written, unit assignment involves about three weeks of student preparation. Hence, in order that opportunity for social activities may be provided the pupil, the teacher in planning the assignment will set up at known intervals in it problems which are suitable for group consideration. Conferences of this type are, for purposes of convenience, classified as anticipated conference. In no sense are they to be regarded as accidental or as incidental to the learning process.

The selection of the problems for the anticipated group conferences in any assignment, heretofore referred to as a contract, challenges the teacher to the best exercise


of his abilities. In the first place it presupposes on his part and actually requires a thorough mastery of the subject matter, far exceeding in exactness and scope that level of mastery which satisfies the requirements of the traditional assignment—this is, the oral, short-range, daily assignment. Again, the selection is made more difficult because no two pupils on the contract may occupy the same position of progress at the same time. Hence, the character of the problem must be such that its solution does not depend upon the performance by the pupils of a series of related tasks set up in the contract as required to be done prior to the time of the conference. On the other hand, the problem before the group conference must have unity and coherence and at the same time possess a vital relationship to the central theme of the contract. Meeting these requirements the group conference, chiefly because of the wise selection of problems, escapes the duplication of materials or else, if old materials are utilized, results in new idea combination. In any case, there is a supplementation which is of itself valuable to the pupils in attaining to new progress levels and a corresponding opportunity for the pupils to enjoy those social experiences which are common to the traditional school procedure.

The flexible character of the Dalton Plan makes possible the use of another type of group conference. This is the unanticipated group conference, those meetings of teacher and pupils, or of pupils alone, which cannot be clearly foreseen by the teacher when the contract is being prepared. It is in this type conference that the social power of the Dalton Plan reaches its highest expression.

Basically the unanticipated group conference is the expression of an effort to meet an unexpected but nevertheless real situation which develops in the experiences of the pupils as they make progress on the contract. A pupil may in the course of his study discover an obstacle. Another pupil may have the same experience. Immediate-ly the teacher recognizes a need common to more than one pupil for assistance at that particular point. To supply it a conference of pupils and teacher is called and the removal of the obstacle is the aim of the activity. Unanticipated group conferences arise out of other situations. But in any case a conference of this type is the result of an actual need as contrasted with what might otherwise be a purely hypothetical one. Like the anticipated group conference those belonging to the unanticipated class are neither accidental nor incidental. They constitute a definite phase of the learning process in the experience of the individual.

Emphasis is placed upon the distinction between the anticipated and the unanticipated group conferences, a distinction which rests upon the origin of the aim. For the first is justified in terms of the aim set for it by the teacher and the second in terms of the aim set for it by the pupils. The second involves a higher degree of pupil responsibility through participation and in the discharge of that responsibility education as an experience takes on for the learner new vitality and significance. Pupil discovery of the fact that the teachers are quick to respond to pupil needs as presented by the pupils themselves exercises a determining and wholesome influence in the entire school organization. The tendency is away from a teacher imposed system to a pupil or self-imposed system of learning. There is a corresponding shift of emphasis upon the teacher's position in relation to the entire process, with the stress falling less upon instruction and more upon guidance as a major function.

The frequency with which group conferences of the first class occur is a matter of schedule-making on the part of the teacher. The number will vary with each contract, usually ranging from a minimum limit of five to a maximum of ten. The more numerous the scheduled conferences the less numerous in all probability will be the unan-
ticipated group meetings. There is reason to believe that the number of scheduled conferences—those anticipated by the teacher when preparing the contract—should be held at or near a fixed minimum number. There is always the possibility that the teacher will call a conference when one is unnecessary. The minimum number of pre-ordained or scheduled conferences tends to create an opportunity more favorable for calling conferences depending upon the actual needs of the pupils arising from their experiences in handling the materials of study.

The frequency with which conferences of the second class occur is determined on the principle that pupils' needs should be met by the school when those needs are discovered. There can be no possible formula for establishing in advance their character, their number, or the future time when they will take definite form. To the degree the school is successful in this respect the teacher must be an opportunist, quick to observe, keen to analyze, rapid to respond. It is not far-fetched to imagine that the alert teacher may recognize on a given contract the desirability of a group conference each day. At the same time it is probably correct to assume that the tendency is for the teacher to restrict the conference program to a schedule fixed at the time when the contract is prepared. If this happens, the teacher fails and the Dalton Plan with that teacher is like a master painting in the hands of a Visigoth.

The duration of a group conference period in a Dalton school is generally brief. In some instances where the principle of a maximum time limit is enforced the period is not allowed to exceed thirty or forty minutes. There are cases where the period has neither a minimum nor a maximum time limit, subject to certain understandings between the faculty members. The assumption is that the duration of the conference period should be controlled by influences inherent in the activity of the conference rather than by some external administrative device—e. g. an electric bell. The purpose of the conference, the character of the pupils, their active interest in the problem, the availability of information, and the teacher's technique are some of the factors which have a bearing on the amount of time necessary for the task in hand. "What do you do," a teacher was asked, "when the pupils show a lack of interest in the group conference?" "I dismiss them," he replied. On another occasion this teacher brought a group conference to a close at a time when practically all pupils present were intent on expressing their opinion on the question at issue. "Why did you do that?" the visitor asked. "The purpose of the period was to excite the pupils' interest. They are now ready to continue their work." These two situations illustrate factors which ought to be taken into consideration in governng the length of the conference period.

The purposes for which group conferences may be called are numerous and varied. However, any list would be incomplete which failed to include the following:

1. The explanation of a point in the contract considered by the teacher to be too complex for most of the pupils to understand without teacher aid.
2. The introduction of new materials related to the theme of the contract.
3. The removal of a difficulty common to a number of pupils and unanticipated as such by the teacher when preparing the contract.
4. The renewal of pupil interest and enthusiasm.
5. The presentation for debate of a related question which has in it the promise of definite benefits for the pupils.
6. A review of the logical development of the theme of the contract, resulting in the definition of problems in the immediate foreground.
9. The provision of opportunity for a pupil having done an especially creditable piece of work to make a report to the group.
10. The bringing of pressure to bear upon the indolent pupil.
11. The provision of opportunity for the pupils as a group to participate in contract-making.
12. To provide for the teacher an opportunity to become familiar with the background or character of the pupil's information on a given subject, exploratory to the setting up of tasks to be done.

R. B. Marston

MAKING SCHOOL SUPERVISION MORE DEMOCRATIC

ONE fundamental aim of education is the preparation of the individual as a prospective citizen and co-operating member of society; and it should be the purpose of supervision to so improve instruction that this aim of education may be more fully accomplished. Therefore, it seems worthwhile to consider what may be the demands of democracy on school supervision.

It is generally agreed that by supervision we mean those activities of the supervisor which have for their purpose the improvement of instruction by the teachers. This may be supervision of teachers in training or teachers in service, for both are of the same general type, and have the same underlying principles. The democratic viewpoint is that the supervisor exists for the sake of the teachers and the children who are being instructed. Her every act should further their independence and efficiency.

If democratic principles are to prevail in the work of the supervisor, there must be a democratic organization of the entire school system, rather than the autocratic or military type of organization, which has been found in the past in too many of our schools. In the Annual Report of the Superintendent of Schools of Oakland, California (1917-18), there is an excellent contrast of these two types or organization. As this superintendent says, "An efficient working organization in which there is a solidarity of spirit and a universally united action is absolutely essential to the carrying out of a democratic policy in the schools."

This solidarity of spirit comes from the common purpose and viewpoint which permeates the entire system, the purpose to provide for the maximum development of efficiency upon the part of all teachers.

The organization of a supervisory force may vary, but in any case the same democratic principles should apply. Every organization must have a head, which usually is the superintendent, but in democratic organization the superintendent uses his authority only in purely administrative matters. His immediate co-workers and staff will be regarded as a cabinet upon whose advice and cooperation he will constantly depend. His chief responsibility will be directing the larger issues and unifying the whole. There will be a sharing of responsibility for the success of whatever program is agreed upon.

The first duty of the supervisor is to lay the basis for cooperation in her work with the teachers by bringing to the consciousness of the whole group the common purposes which direct their work, and to secure the "whole-hearted identification of self" of each with the aim of improving instruction and thus benefiting the child for whose welfare the entire school system exists. To secure this genuine feeling of membership in the group calls for a high degree of leadership on the part of the supervisor.

What, then, should be the procedure followed in making use in supervision of the following agencies?

Teacher's Meetings: In all teacher's meetings with the supervisor a feeling of common interests should prevail. This can best be accomplished by taking up for discussion only those problems and difficulties which are felt needs on the part of the
teachers, those questions which have been presented by the teachers themselves, or needs for help which were observed by the supervisor in visiting the classroom and by her tactfully brought to the consciousness of the teacher. There should be free discussion of all subjects, bringing out all facts and different phases, and respect should be shown for each individual opinion.

The supervisor's special effort should be directed towards getting a contribution from each teacher present according to the ability and expert knowledge of each. When problems come up which cannot satisfactorily be settled in these meetings, a democratic procedure would be to appoint committees and special advisers who are representative of the teaching force to further study the question with the help of the supervisor. These meetings should be most fruitful in developing, on the part of the teachers, the initiative and judgment which they so much need in meeting the problems of their classrooms. The democratic control and organization of such groups should be such as the teacher is supposed to have in controlling her pupils.

**Conferences with Individual Teachers:** Whenever possible, the situation should be so manipulated by the supervisor that the conference comes as the result of a request from the teacher. The opportunity for this may come when visiting the classroom, when offering some new professional literature, or when asking for the teacher's help in solving some other teacher's problem. What is observed in the supervisor's visit to the classroom is frequently the basis of such work which is representative of the best efforts of the teacher. She should not judge the whole of a lesson by a detached part which she may see in a few minutes. This is not respecting the rights of the teacher. If the teacher feels that she has not done her best because of some unusual circumstance, she has a right to ask the supervisor for another chance. To grant this is to show due consideration for the personality of the teacher.

When the teacher comes for a conference, the attitude of the supervisor should be such that she is reassured and encouraged to present her difficulties and to ask for help. The attitude of the expert who "knows all" is not democratic. Supervision is a matter of inspiring teachers to their best efforts, and here is an opportunity to recognize the worth of each individual's effort and to stimulate growth and development. The supervisor's day should be so organized and planned that her office hours will best fit in with the free time of the teacher, thus making her accessible in case of special need.

**Visiting:** One commonly used means of improving instruction is visiting: the supervisor visiting the teacher in her classroom, one teacher visiting another, or a group who are interested in the same problems visiting, either within or without the school system. This is a legitimate means in so far as it is carried on with a proper purpose and with respect for the rights of the individual teacher. The supervisor should sanction and arrange all such visiting that will promote the growth of the teachers concerned, either by supplying new inspiration or giving help in methods or discipline. A visit solely for the purpose of inspection is undemocratic.

A visit should be arranged with the consent of the teacher visited and at the time best suited to her. Such visits should be followed up with conferences, reports, constructive suggestions for changes, plans for trying out such changes and for experimenting to determine the value of these. Demonstration lessons to make clear certain principles or methods may be given by the supervisor, or some especially gifted teacher. The teacher visited should be included in all of these activities with the visiting teachers and the supervisor. The purpose of the supervisor is to present and suggest
ideas, then leave her teachers free to accept or reject, to take that which they can use and make their own.

**Rating and Testing:** A democratic policy will demand a co-operative scheme of rating in evaluating the work of the school—a scheme by which the teacher is rated not only by the supervisor but by herself and her fellow teachers, and the supervisor is rated by the teachers. The supervisor will allow her teachers to experiment with new methods and devices to the extent that she respects their rights and recognizes their abilities as individuals, using her authority only to safeguard the interests of the child. The use of scientific tests and measurements as a means of testing the results of supervision has been proved to be most valuable. These objective tests are much fairer to the teacher than is the use of personal judgment alone. The teacher should participate in their administration and in checking and studying results in such a way as to make them a means of improving her work. She, as well as the supervisor, is vitally concerned.

**Curricula Making:** The reconstruction of the curricula of our schools to meet the changing conditions of democracy has come to be recognized as one of the best means of improving instruction in the schools, and much of this type of work is now being done. The entire supervisory force and teachers working together should do this. The supervisor, because of her superior training and experience, is an expert in her field. Her opinion should have great weight, but not to the extent of imposing her views upon the group and failing to allow all to have a share in forming the curricula. She may propose and direct and unify the work while she recognizes the right of each teacher to be guided by her best thought in accepting the proposals. She has the responsibility of leading them to recognize and understand the best in educational theory. Dr. Judd says, in an article on *Democracy and American Schools*, that America's contribution to democracy is a science of education, a body of scientific principles which are an adequate substitute for the old type of autocratic control. The curricula should reflect these principles.

The teachers will be growing in initiative, judgment, and a sense of responsibility through participation and will have an added sense of the value of the curriculum, because it is partly their handiwork. The collective judgments of the group as a whole are apt to be much sounder and more practical than that of any one individual in the group. In this way of making a curriculum, there comes the opportunity to capitalize the special talents of any individuals.

The spirit of democracy is growth and progress. If this is to prevail in the school, then the curriculum must embody this spirit. The content must stimulate in the child intrinsic learning and provide reconstructed experiences for him on higher and richer levels. There must be provision for selection and variations of subject matter so as to adapt it to the individual differences of teachers and children in abilities, needs, and interests. There must be provision made for modifications, as these modifications become apparent in its administration.

**Activities Affecting the Community:** The supervisor's responsibility to direct, to unify, to encourage, to improve, to inspire does not stop with the teachers, but extends to the community. It is not enough that there be numerous and varied shared interests among the school group, but these interests should be joined up in a great many ways with the interests of the community. The school belongs to the community and cannot exist independently of it. Both supervisor and teachers should feel responsible for not only participating in but initiating activities which means the promotion of the spirit of democracy in the community. This responsibility is especially great along the line of educating the community to understand and appreciate the efforts of the
school to put the work on a higher plane. Both should see that a large social relationship exists in their work and feel that the school is making a contribution to social progress. Democracy implies interdependence of the individual and the group. Just as the life of no individual teacher is complete without associated living with her group of co-workers, so the life of the school group is not complete without the associated living with the larger community group.

Emily Goodlett

OBJECTIVE CLASSROOM TESTS

It is now quite generally recognized that teacher's marks based on the traditional essay type of examination are inaccurate and unreliable. Investigations as to the sources of error in written examinations conducted by Starch, Kelly, Dearborn, Johnson, and others brought into relief many inherent defects. It was disclosed that some teachers gave very high marks and others very low marks; that the same teacher assigned different marks to the same paper when it was disguised; that good teachers differed widely as to the marks they gave the same paper. This evidence of great unreliability soon created a widespread doubt and dissatisfaction concerning traditional methods of testing.

The first attempt to meet the problem and to correct the situation was the development of standard tests. This scientific attempt to correct the measuring situation in education brought into the field an army of experts too numerous to mention. A large number of standard tests have been devised for practically all of the common school subjects. As a consequence testing is being elevated to a scientific basis and teaching is becoming more effective. The standardizing movement insists on uniformity in the giving, taking, and scoring of the test; a definite time limit is assigned, a norm established, subjectivity in grading is eliminated, and writing is reduced to a minimum.

Teacher's objective classroom tests were a natural outgrowth of the standard tests. These tests have been given many names in modern educational literature. Sometimes they are spoken of as Nonstandard Tests, again as the New-Type Tests, and, as I prefer to call them, Objective Classroom Tests. Now the objective classroom tests have, I believe, many points of advantage over the two previously mentioned types of tests, namely, the traditional written examination and the standard tests. But they are, I would insist, at their best when used to supplement and not to replace the other types. As regards the written essay type of examination, the objective tests are (1) more interesting and challenging to both teacher and pupil; (2) they are more economical in time and energy; (3) they are superior in their objectivity; (4) they are easier to score because the responses are definite and either right or wrong; and (5) as a rule a definite time limit is imposed.

There are several advantages which objective classroom tests possess over the standard tests: (1) they are inexpensive; (2) they can be directly adapted to subject matter which has been locally taught; (3) they are more potent in teacher improvement since they are teacher-made; and (4) they do not overemphasize standardization as many feel has been done by the standard movement. Everything considered, I believe that the objective type of classroom test more nearly fulfills the requirements of a good test than any of the other types, although each type has its merits and a definite place in educational testing.

In the construction of objective tests it is important to keep clearly in mind certain definite requirements. I shall note some of the major ones.

1. Make the Tests Objective

Objectivity is one of the prime requirements of the new-type tests. By objectivity
we mean the degree to which the personal element or judgment of the teacher is eliminated in the scoring of the responses. Subjectivity in scoring is one of the major defects of the written examination and one of the things that has made it untrustworthy. Every teacher has his own standards of value; human judgment is fallible even under favorable conditions. So, in the construction of tests one should try to avoid questions the answer to which would be largely a matter of personal opinion. You will find that this rule will improve the teaching condition in your classroom. Arrange your questions so that the answers are either correct or wrong; do not leave any room for doubt.

2. Cover Only Important Points of Subject

In the construction of good objective tests only the fundamentals of the subject are included. For a test to be valid and a score or mark worth giving only important content may be included. You say. But how do you know that the question is important or unimportant? There are several ways by which you may determine the essentials of your subject: (1) analyze several textbooks on the subject; (2) try to secure the judgment of competent persons; (3) try to determine whether or not the point under consideration is called for in courses of study and curricula; and (4) consult standard tests and try to find whether it is included or not. It is far more important to test for fundamentals of subject matter and principles than it is to test for mere incidentals or unrelated facts. Is it not the purpose of a test to determine whether or not the pupils have mastered the fundamentals of the subject?

3. Reduce Writing to a Minimum

It is the purpose of the movement in objective tests to reduce writing to the minimum. It is entirely correct to call for a large amount of writing if you are testing for English composition, but wrong if you are testing, say, for geography. In subjects other than composition, knowledge of fundamental facts and ability to reason on the basis of those facts is greatly impeded by the necessity of too much written expression. Since students differ so widely in ability to express themselves in written composition, certainly this factor alone would introduce a source of variability in the examination. Then, too, subjectivity in scoring is introduced and encouraged.

There are about ten varieties of the new type tests. Of these I shall choose three and point out something of the nature of each and give a few samples.

1. Multiple-Choice Type

The multiple-choice type test involves a question with several suggested answers, of which the student is to indicate the correct one. The multiple-choice test is one of the most commonly used types and is adaptable to almost every school subject.

Directions—Draw a line under the word which makes the sentence sensible and right.

(1) The Red Cross was founded by Jenny Lind Clara Barton Carnegie.
(2) “A man’s a man for a’ that” was written by Lamb Burns Scott Keats.
(3) Lee surrendered to Sherman Grant Jackson Sheridan Washington.
(4) Independence means virtue blame freedom hospitality.

The multiple-answer test leaves no room for doubt or debate as to the correct answer. The common method of scoring the multiple-choice test is to allow one point for each correct response. There are several varieties of the multiple-answer type of test, but the single-answer type illustrated above is probably most commonly used in the grades, and certainly is the easiest for a beginner to attempt.

2. True-False Type

The true-false type of objective tests consists of a number of statements, some of which are true and some false. The questions are arranged in chance order; the pupils are to indicate which are true and which are false. There are a number of ways by which pupils may indicate which
“t” and “f” may be used, or the words “true” and “false” may be written at the left, or right, of the statement. Some teachers have their pupils designate the re- are true and which are false. The letters response by signs, letting the + indicate true and the — false. Again some write or print both words and have the pupil to underline the proper one. The following are samples of the true-false type of test:

Directions—If the statement is true underline the word “true,” if “false” underline the word “false.”
(1) A dime is less than a nickel. true false
(2) Horses eat grass. true false
(3) We need exercise to keep us strong. true false
(4) A barge is a kind of animal. true false

The true-false type of test is like all other tests; it has its good points and its weak points. One of the common objections and one of the strongest is that it is bad psychology to present false statements to pupils. But a little observation discloses that life itself presents much the same situation as the true-false type of test. In everyday life we often hear the true put as false and the false as true. Life, like the true-false test, calls for discrimination. A discriminating, a critical attitude of mind, is one of the finest fruits of education, and the true-false type of test is a way by which this may be developed.

3. Completion Type

The completion type of objective test consists of statements with one or more crucial words or phrases left out; the omitted words are to be supplied by the pupils. The statements may be sentences, paragraphs, or longer passages. An example follows:

Directions—Fill in the missing words so the following sentences sound sensible and right:
(1) The largest state in the Union is ..............
(2) The .................. was written by Thomas Jefferson and formally adopted on ..............
(3) “The curfew tolls the .............. of parting day.”
(4) Louisiana was purchased by ..............

In scoring the completion test, count the responses either right or wrong and give one point for each word correctly placed. Further objectivity may be added to the test by providing a list of possible answers, but I think this is bad practice as it tends to kill initiative in pupils.

BIBLIOGRAPHY


Russell was one of the first to present a discussion of the construction and use of the objective type of test. A good sketch is given of each type of test with a consideration of the merits and demerits of each type.


This book deals with the major types of the newer examinations, their construction, validity, reliability, and use.


This book is very suggestive as to how to make and use new-type tests. It shows how objective tests can be locally adapted to subject-matter and presents a plan for the local construction and use of tests. It is a practical, up-to-date, and clear presentation of the subject.


This is a good discussion of the merits and demerits of the essay-type of examination and the new-type tests of the problems of marking and scoring, and of the construction of the different types of objective tests. It contains many good illustrations taken from specimen tests, and its bibliography is one of the best in print on objective tests.

W. B. VARNER

WITH THE HORIZON LINE

Tenderfoot: “Why do they have knots on the ocean instead of miles?”

First Class Scout: “Well, you see, they couldn’t have the ocean tide if there were no knots.”

LAW ENFORCEMENT AGAIN

The teacher was giving the class a lecture on “gravity.”

“Now, children,” she said, “it is the law of gravity that keeps us on this earth.”

“But, please, teacher,” inquired one small child, “how did we stick on before the law was passed?”—Commerce and Finance.
AN INVESTIGATION OF EIGHTH GRADE READING

The following article grew out of a study of reading ability in the eighth grade of the Harrisonburg Junior High School. The investigation was accomplished through the co-operation of the high school principal, the junior high school teachers, the director of training of the college, and the college students enrolled in the grammar grade course in tests and measurements.

PROBLEM

In the junior high school formal reading is not emphasized. This means that a good part of the practice in reading that pupils in the seventh and eighth grade get is incidental, and comes through their study of other school subjects or through their recreational reading.

The question has arisen as to the effect of underemphasizing formal reading upon the reading abilities of these pupils and therefore on their ability to properly prepare their other school work. The purpose, then, of this study, was to attempt an appraisal of the reading abilities of these eighth grade pupils, to diagnose their difficulties, and to suggest remedial measures.

PROCEDURE

The following vocabulary and reading tests were given by the instructor of the tests and measurements class and were graded and tabulated by the members of this class. The diagnosis and remedial suggestions were also largely the result of class discussion after careful study of the tests and after extensive reading. The tests were given in the order mentioned.

Holley Sentence Vocabulary Scale
Thorndike-McCall Reading Scale
Monroe's Standardized Silent Reading Test Revised
Stone Narrative Reading Scale

After the tests were carefully scored by the class, the scores for each test were distributed according to rank, medians arrived at, and comparisons made with the standard norms given by each test for the eighth grade. In order that all the results could be put on a single graph with a common norm for all tests, it was decided to use the percent of the norm method, that is, the score a pupil made in each test was divided by the norm for that test. Thus, if a pupil made a score of 12 in the Monroe test (comprehension) this score was divided by 13.7, the norm for the eighth grade and the resulting 87.5 would be the per cent of the norm. By this procedure the norms of all tests would be reduced to a 100% basis and have a common value. This makes it possible to construct a graph in which a single line will indicate the norm for all the tests.

Two forms of graphs were constructed. The first was an individual graph for each pupil showing in the per cent of the norm his scores in all four tests, both in rate and comprehension. An example of this graph is shown here.

COMBINATION GRAPH OF READING
for ...................... (pupil's name)
Harrisonburg Junior High School, 8th Grade

It is read as follows: Pupil "A" is 4% below the norm in the Holley Vocabulary Scale, 15% below the norm for rate in the Monroe Reading Test, and 10% above the norm for comprehension in the same test. In the Thorndike-McCall Reading Scale she is 2% below the norm and in the Stone Narrative Test she is 18% below in rate and 22% below in comprehension. This chart presents the scores of a pupil who is
complicated for reproduction here, but a whole. The second graph was a combination graph showing the comparative records of all the pupils in all the tests in relation to the common 100% norm. The graph is too complicated for reproduction here, but a tabulation of the results follows.

Knowing the situation, the writer finds himself sympathizing with them. That this attitude exists seems substantiated by the fact that later, under different circumstances, a number of the pupils did very much better work than their test grades indicate.

(b) Lack of Purposeful Practice. As was stated in the beginning of this discussion, these pupils had been a year and a half without formal reading practice. There has probably been a sliding back in their general ability to read. The reading skills had not been sufficiently habituated by the end of the sixth year. To the writer the results of the tests show the necessity for more formal and informal reading drill in the junior high school.

(c) Lack of a Broad Reading Vocabulary. The results of the Holley Test seem to indicate the lack of a good reading vocabulary and are further verified by the McCall test which has a wider vocabulary than most reading tests.

(d) Lack of Ability to Concentrate. There has been a growing feeling on the part of the writer, who has had the opportunity to observe this particular group over a period of years, that they have come to depend too much on the stimulation of their interest from sources outside the subject matter. The ability to concentrate has not been developed to the degree necessary to do rapid reading with a maximum of comprehension.

INCREASING RATE OF READING

Apparently the matter of rate is the greater problem in this class. It is first of all desirable that the pupils themselves re-
alize the importance of rate in reading. It is only with such knowledge that they can work intelligently toward increasing that rate. It is also necessary that they be able to distinguish between material that lends itself to rapid reading or even skimming, and that which requires slower and more careful reading.

Yoakam lists four types of reading based on rate. (a) Skimming; a very rapid rate of reading where the reader's desire is to get a general idea of what the page contains, or to find some particular reference. Skimming should be taught children after they have become masters of the fundamental mechanics of reading. (b) Rapid reading; where the material is familiar or recreational. Newspapers, magazines, or novels for pleasure are good material for rapid reading. (c) Normal-rate reading; the habitual rate at which a reader proceeds, determined by the material he is reading, by the purpose of the reading, and by the degree of his mechanical efficiency in reading. The better type of novel, informational books, and all reading of ordinary difficulty make use of this type. It is in this type of reading that pupils of the upper elementary grades need special instruction with the conscious purpose of increasing rate. (d) Careful reading; where the pupil recognizes the need of close attention to details. This rate is much slower, depending on the difficulty of the material. Directions, technical articles, and explanatory material may be listed under this type. Pupils should be taught to discriminate between the different types of reading and study material so as to apply the proper type of rate to it.

Experiments have proved conclusively that rate in reading can be increased to a considerable degree without endangering comprehension, especially if comprehension is continually checked upon. Extensive reading is of course necessary if a fair rate of speed is to be attained. Here, as in every other activity, practice of the right kind tends to improvement.

By the time the child has reached the seventh or eighth grade he has perfected to a fair degree the mechanics of reading. What he now needs is a well planned course of reading with many checks designed to develop not merely rate but rates of reading. This program could set up two aims; first, a large amount of general recreational reading of an easy character with plenty of action that carries the reader along with the rapidly developing story, and second, specific drill in getting thought out of paragraph or sentence in a limited period of time. In special drills for rate the reading material should always be of a difficulty less than that normal for the grade.

REMEDIAL WORK IN COMPREHENSION

There has been a great deal written on the improvement of comprehension in reading most of which is probably common knowledge to the readers of this magazine, so this article will give the subject but brief treatment.

Attention—Success in any type of work depends on the ability to attend, and this is especially true of reading. It is best achieved when the material he is reading, by the purpose of the reading, and by the degree of his mechanical efficiency in reading. The better type of novel, informational books, and all reading of ordinary difficulty make use of this type. It is in this type of reading that pupils of the upper elementary grades need special instruction with the conscious purpose of increasing rate. (d) Careful reading; where the pupil recognizes the need of close attention to details. This rate is much slower, depending on the difficulty of the material. Directions, technical articles, and explanatory material may be listed under this type. Pupils should be taught to discriminate between the different types of reading and study material so as to apply the proper type of rate to it.

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Attention—Success in any type of work depends on the ability to attend, and this is especially true of reading. It is best achieved when the material is recognized by the child to be of real intrinsic value either as a recreational or as an informational medium. A good teacher can build up an esprit de corps that will demand attention on material the value of which is not so easy for the pupil to ascertain or recognize.

Reading for Specific Purposes—Much of the reading of children is aimless because they have not formed the habit of setting up definite ends. Where aims are definite the material read has a greater meaning. Without definite aims the reader falls from the level of reading for thought to that of reading to memorize. These aims will of course have to be set by the teacher until the child develops sufficient judgment to

1. Adapted from Gerald A. Yoakam, Reading and Study. New York: The Macmillan Co. 1928.
select for himself and probably such selection should never be without the aid of the teacher.

Vocabulary Development—Much of the lack of comprehension on the part of adults as well as children is due to the meagerness of their vocabulary. Imagine a young woman teaching colonial history who gave the writer recently as a definition of “stockade,” “a small ornament worn on the hat of the French revolutionists.” Yoakam suggests the use of progress books (a) to analyze polysyllabic words, (b) to study prefixes, suffixes, and stems, and (3) to study homonyms.

C. P. Shorts

CHECKING BASIC VOCABULARY IN THE FIRST GRADE

The primary purpose in first grade reading is the development of right habits and attitudes: the child should learn to read across the line in an easy rhythm and to make an accurate and economical return sweep; he should read to find out something; and he should derive satisfaction from his reading. Such a program stresses the sentence and the story methods for beginners; it teaches words through context, always making sure that the word is rich with meaning. So far, so good. But often we find children promoted to the second grade so lacking in word consciousness that they are greatly hampered in their progress toward independence in reading.

This paper in no way advocates stress on the teaching of words out of context; it would always subordinate phonics to meanings. It does maintain that there must be systematic checking of single words if the teacher is to intelligently guide the child in his reading growth. And, for that reason, it offers a simplified scheme for such checking.

All primers contain some words not widely enough used to merit mastery. The teacher should therefore check the word list in her basal primer by some standard list such as the Thorndike list1 or the Ayres spelling list2 using for the checking only words common to the two sources. If she does not have access to such a standard list she can secure an approximate list by using words common to her basal and supplementary primers and first readers.

The words should be numbered in the order in which they occur in the basal primer. The number of words to be used will depend upon the time of the year; at the middle of the year 50 or 100 words is enough, but as many as 200 can be used toward the close of the grade.

The words should next be grouped in blocks of 10 or 20 according to the size of the class; it may take too long to get around a large class checking 20 words at a time.

If the teacher does not have word cards to accompany the basal primer and first reader, her next step is to make a card for each word on her list. Each word should be put on a separate card; the cards should be of uniform size so that the children can not associate a word with its card. The words can be lettered by hand, or a hand printing press can be used. In either case the work must be carefully done—all letters clear, evenly spaced, and well aligned—since a primary child’s perception of a word is greatly affected by its legibility.

Each child must be tested individually. The first series of 10 or 20 words is presented to him several times, each time in a different order so that the check is on his recognition of the particular word and not on memory of the order in which the words occur. After checking a few words the teacher can appreciate the individual child’s

rate of response, and any undue hesitation should be checked as an error. In the same way a stumbling or a mispronunciation is counted wrong; mastery of words is the thing being checked and only such words as are recognized automatically should be counted.

Before beginning to check prepare a piece of paper about 4x6 for each child. Put the child's name at the top of the paper; in the lefthand margin, not more than an inch from the top, write the date of the first checking. In one column list the words of which you are doubtful and in another those you are sure the child has not learned. The next day present the same series of words to him again, always varying the order, and draw a line through each word which is now automatic. Then draw a double line below the two columns so that the first checking will stand out from the later ones. (See Fig. 1.)

<table>
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</tbody>
</table>

Using a sheet of heavy paper at least 18x36, prepare a table something like the one shown in Fig. 2, entering as many of the words as possible so that one table will last for a considerable period of time. As you finish checking the first block of words with a child, put in an "x" for each word mastered. Then tabulate the times each word was mastered, and also the number of words mastered by each child. Write these totals in with pencil since you will want to change them frequently.

The words missed by as many as one-fourth of the class should be used frequently in class work. (By running down the last column to the right the teacher can easily determine which words need review.) One way to reteach these words is to include one or more of them in the daily blackboard supplementary story. By placing a tally after the word each time it is used—see column headed "Times Reviewed"—the teacher can measure the amount of review given. This record will take but a minute, and it will show the teacher whether or not her drill is focused upon real difficulties. (See Fig. 2, page 60.)

Such use of the unlearned words meets all standards for teaching them in context provided the teacher does not sacrifice the point or the style of the story in order to include a certain word. This should never be done; words which are not needed in a story should be taught in some other way.

Much time can be saved by planning seat work to teach particular words. Directions for making one such exercise to teach the word *little* are given here, but for a complete treatment of intrinsic teaching of vocabulary the reader is referred to Gates's new book.

Cut from a magazine three pictures of small dogs, and mount them on a card to fit a medium sized envelope. (Or make a rough outline sketch of the dogs on the card.) Prepare three phrases and print each on a separate card. Print a number or letter on the upper lefthand corner of the envelope, the picture, and each phrase card, using the same number or letter on all. Use three similar phrases except for one word, e. g.:

1. three big dogs
2. three black dogs
3. three little dogs

The child's problem is to match the card and the correct phrase. It can be seen that this forces him to discriminate carefully between words, yet presents the words in context.

---

To teach the word *dogs* the same picture might serve with the phrases as follows:
1. three little dogs
2. three little hens
3. three little cows

When the teacher centers her attention upon these unlearned words, she will generally find a number of errors that come from confusion between a pair of somewhat similar words. The point of similarity may be the initial consonant or blend, as in *stick* and *shovel*, *this* and *there*; it may be in the "family" ending as in *black* and *tack*; it may be in the configuration or pattern of the word as in *fell* and *fall*, *winter* and *water*.

In such cases neither supplementary stories nor seat exercises will fully meet the situation; these should be supplemented by a bit of teaching aimed directly at the difficulty. A few cases where pairs of words were so confused are given here with suggestive treatment.

Case 1. *House* and *Home*—The teacher sounded the "ome" in *home*; then she sounded the word slowly emphasizing the characteristic sound. Next she asked the child to listen how this word—*house*—says "ou" as if he were badly hurt. The child chuckled at the imagery, sounded each word a time or two and said, "I see."

Probably he would remember, but a wise teacher would check on him in a day or so to make sure.

When two words of similar configuration related in meaning as are *house* and *home* become confused, it is essential that the child have help in distinguishing word form. This is also true where words similar in appearance are not rich in meaning as *that* and *what*. In the case just given the class had had no formal phonics. But by sounding the needed elements for the child the teacher was able to help him use a bit of technical knowledge about words. And, after all, this is probably the sanest approach to the more formal phonics teaching.

Case 2. *Time* and *Tame*—The teacher asked the class to notice the "i" in *time* and the "a" in *tame*, pointing to the central vowel in each word as she slowly sounded the word. She then played a game in which one of the words was used in a sentence and a child was asked to touch the correct word on the blackboard with a pointer. Next she produced word cards, each containing a familiar word belonging to one of the families concerned, (*lime*, *dime*, *same*, *came*,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Words</th>
<th>Names of the Children</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>apple</td>
<td>Mary 2  x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>beside</td>
<td>6  x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>what</td>
<td>1  x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>from</td>
<td>2  x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>boy</td>
<td>1  x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>got</td>
<td>1  x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>house</td>
<td>1  x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>went</td>
<td>2  x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mother</td>
<td>2  x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>then</td>
<td>2  x</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N. B. Space should be left between the word "then" and the "Number Words Mastered" to write other blocks of words in.
frame, rime, and lame, and asked the children to put them with the word they were most like, tame or time.

Case 4. Saw and Was—These words have so little “personality” that it is essential that the child who has confused them be given some helping device. This teacher taught the class the “s” sound. She then produced a list of familiar words some having an initial “s,” some a final “s,” and some neither. She asked the children first to find words beginning with the “s” sound, then those ending with it. This took all the phonics time for a day or two, but the majority of the class mastered both words.

After an interval of teaching, the teacher should recheck each child on the first block of words, keeping a record as before. At the same sitting, she should also check him on the next block. The results are transferred to the table, new totals are found, another period of teaching follows and so on, until the class achieves mastery of the basic vocabulary.

Although this scheme has been simplified as much as possible, it will take considerable time to initiate it. But as the teacher sees the class come to the mastery level in sight vocabulary and child after child begin to do independent reading, she is apt to think it time very wisely expended.

Katherine M. Anthony.

APPLE FARMING IN THE SHENANDOAH VALLEY

A Fourth Grade Unit in Social Studies

I. The Outcomes
A. The Understandings or General Ideas for Permanent Learning
1. The apple is called the king of fruits, because it is so widely used.
2. The seedlings are budded or grafted in order to produce better fruit.
3. The trees should be transplanted carefully in a well-chosen place.
4. The apple tree requires much care, especially during the annual fruit bearing period.
5. The fruit must be carefully prepared for market.

B. The Abilities and Related Skills
1. Writing business letters.
   a. For information.
   b. For permission to visit places of business.
2. Using books.
   a. Using table of contents and index.
   b. Doing selective reading.
3. Using maps.
   a. Finding distances.
   b. Locating places.
   c. Tracing routes.
4. Doing construction work.
   a. Selecting good color combinations.
   b. Pasting neatly.
   c. Learning good spacing.

C. The Attitudes
1. A spirit of cooperation fostered by the group work and by the contacts with local apple growers and packers.
2. Appreciation of the apple industry in their own community.

II. The Jobs
A. They will answer the following large thought questions:
1. Why is the apple called the king of fruits?
2. Why are the seeds budded or grafted?
3. What are the successive steps for transplanting nursery trees?
4. Why do growers cultivate the soil of the orchard?
5. Why do growers spray apple trees?
6. Why do growers prune apple trees?
7. Why do growers thin apple orchards?
8. Why do growers pick apples at a certain time?
9. What things are done to the apples at the packing house?
10. How are ventilating cars made? Observe one until you can explain step by step how it is made.

B. They will use their outline maps:
1. To trace all shipping routes for Valley of Virginia apples.
2. To color the best apple producing areas in the United States.
3. To locate great apple packing and shipping cities.
4. To locate capitals of states producing large quantities of apples, in order to write to state chambers of commerce for information.
5. To locate cities which are in the center of apple producing areas.

C. They will visit:
1. An orchard.
2. A packing house.
3. A cold storage plant.
4. A vinegar plant.
5. A cannery.

They will conduct each trip as follows:
(a) Decide what to look for.
(b) Decide how the trip shall be taken.
(c) Report on their findings.
In these reports they will:
(1) Use single phase topics.
(2) Ask questions at close of report.
(3) Summarize—state most important point in report.

D. They will make a filing cabinet, in which they will place all loose materials collected, so that they may be used by incoming classes.

E. They will write letters
1. Asking for information on apple farming.
2. Asking permission to visit places of business.
3. Thanking business men for their courtesy.

F. They will observe and do budding and grafting.

G. They will read

1. Poems
   a. The Tree—Elson Reader, Book IV.
   b. The Bluebird—Elson Reader, Book IV.
   d. In Praise of Johnny Appleseed—This Singing World.

2. Stories
   a. The Apple of Discord—Children's Literature, Curry and Clippinger.
   b. The Quest of Medusa's Head—Old Greek Stories, James Baldwin.
   c. Old Appleseed John—Elson Reader, Book III.

H. They will collect and label apples grown in the community.

I. They will make charts to show:
1. How trees are planted in the orchard.
2. Types of apple tree enemies and how identified and destroyed.
3. Increase in apple production in the Valley of Virginia during a period of ten years.

III. Subject Matter or the Assimilative Material for Each Understanding
A. The apple is called the king of fruits because it is so widely used.
   1. Age of the apple.
   2. Number of varieties.
   3. Adaptability of the plant.
   5. Quantities grown in various parts of the world.

B. The seedlings are budded or grafted in order to produce better fruit.
   1. Grafting.
      a. Stock.
         (a) Make tongue cut in stock and cion.
         (2) Lock tongues.
b. Branch.
   (1) Cut limb off square and split.
   (2) Cut cion wedge-shaped.
   (3) Place cion in split, making sure bark of each touches.
   (4) Cover with grafting wax.

c. Root.
   (1) Make tongue cut in root and cion.
   (2) Fasten and tie with waxed cotton.

2. Budding.
   b. Set the bud under the bark.
   c. Tie with waxed cotton.

C. The trees should be transplanted carefully in a well-chosen place.

1. Time.
   a. When tree is from one to two years old.
   b. In the fall in Southern states.

2. Site.
   a. Rolling land.

3. Distance:—From thirty to forty feet apart, depending on the soil, variety of tree, and system of pruning.

D. The apple tree requires much care, especially during the fruit-bearing period.

1. Cultivating.
   a. Clean cultivation until bearing age.
   b. Clover crop planted.

2. Pruning.
   a. Value.
      (1) Shapes tree.
      (2) Prevents breaking of limbs.
      (3) Makes cultivating, spraying, and picking easier.
      (4) Removes diseased, dead, and injured limbs.
      (5) Develops fruit and healthy shoots.

      (1) Do in dormant season.
      (2) Cut back to half soon after planting.
      (3) Remove diseased, broken, injured, parallel, and crossing limbs.
      (4) Cut back new growth.
      (5) Cut side limbs close.

   For classification of enemies of the apple tree and spray calendar, see Spray Book in Stark Brothers' Guide to Profitable Orcharding.

4. Thinning.
   a. Time.
      Immediately after the May or June drop.

   b. Value.
      (1) Improves size, color, and uniformity of fruit.
      (2) Keeps up vigor of tree.
      (3) Prevents breaking of limbs.
      (4) Lessens disease and insect injury.

E. The fruit must be carefully prepared for market.

1. Picking.
   a. When:
      (1) Firm in flesh.
      (2) Yellow in ground color.
      (3) Hold on tree is weak.

   b. How.
      (1) Break no stems or spurs.
      (2) Use pointed ladders, stiff baskets, and canvas sacks.

2. Grading.
   a. According to
      (1) Color.
      (2) Shape.
      (3) Texture.
      (4) Freedom from disease and injury.


4. Packing.
a. Pack firmly and neatly in boxes or barrels.
b. Wrap best apples in paper.

5. Storing.
a. Air-cooled storage.
b. Ice-cooled storage.

6. Shipping.
a. Rail—air-cooled and ice-cooled.
b. Water—ice-cooled.
c. Motor.

IV. Bibliography.
A. Teacher's references.

B. Children's references.

C. Bulletins and pamphlets.
1. United States Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.
a. Agricultural Year Book, 1926.
b. Agricultural Year Book, 1925.
c. Apple Orchard Renovation—No. 1284.
2. Virginia Department of Agriculture and Immigration, Richmond, Virginia.
3. Extension Division of Virginia Polytechnic Institute, F. A. Motz, Blacksburg, Va.
a. Apple Blotch—No. 1479.
b. Apple Scald—No. 1380.
c. Apple Scab—No. 1478.
e. Apples Growing East of the Mississippi—No. 1360.
g. Packing Apples in Boxes—No. 1457.
i. Spray Information for Virginia Fruit Growers—No. 102.
k. The Apple and Peach Industries of Virginia.

4. Stark Brothers Nurseries and Orchard Company, Louisiana, Mo.


Gladys Goodman

YOU NEVER CAN TELL

The shore for some distance was dotted with castles, not unlike those which were built in the day when the good knights reigned; they were protected by well made stone walls; moats surrounded them and it was not uncommon to find a well in the castle yard. The castles were built by those who knew little of the cares of the world and who were innocent of all danger, whose bare legs were bruised and burned and scarred and scratched, it is true; but not from li’l threatening encounters.

Occasionally a mother would bestir herself from her chair to see what the fair builders were doing, but more often, “James, dear, don’t go out too far this morning,” would be all that broke the monotonous creak of the boards of the porch.

On this particular morning the castles were deserted. Once or twice a strong wave washed into the moats and over the walls, almost wrecking the castles completely. No childish laughter greeted this disaster; no strong hands were ready to build them up. The builders were otherwise engaged. Back from the water’s edge sat one, while the other seven walked slowly up and down the shore as if in quest of some treasure, sometimes stooping to dig, sometimes wading into the water and reaching down, but seemingly without success.

“Frances is such a gentle child, she wouldn’t hurt the tiniest creature,” remarked Mrs. Mellor, who stopped her knitting long enough to see that the children were in sight.

“And Robert,” said Mrs. Austin—“do you know last night he said that when he grew up he’d be a minister, and he won’t be six until next month. Isn’t it a relief to know that they are starting out on the right path?”

“This morning,” said Mrs. Leeds, “when I was——”

Just then a shout arose. “I’ve got one; I’ve got one!” and seven little figures ran as fast as their bare feet would allow to the one sitting on the sand.

“Surely they must have found something very wonderful; let’s go and see.”

As the mothers approached their children, they beheld an unusual sight. There in the sand was a hole; around it eight semi-serious, but intensely interesting faces; in it a fish wriggling for its life.

“Mother, when you were a little girl, did you ever bury fishes?” asked Frances, as the mother looked on in astonishment. “I’m going to be the grandmother at this funeral.”

Mary L. Seeger

THESE EXAMINATIONS

Examination Master: “Does the question embarrass you?”

Pupil: “Not at all, sir; it is quite clear. It is the answer that bothers me.”
THE VIRGINIA TEACHER

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EDUCATIONAL COMMENT

EASON NEW SECRETARY

At a meeting of the State Board of Education held January 15 Thomas D. Eason, Supervisor of Teacher Training, was appointed Secretary of the State Board to succeed Dabney S. Lancaster, resigned. Mr. Eason will continue in charge of the work of Teacher Training.

Dr. Charles E. Myers, A. B., B. S., A. M., Ph. D., of West Virginia, was appointed Supervisor of Surveys and Statistics to succeed Dr. Morgan L. Combs, who resigned to accept the presidency of the State Teachers College at Fredericksburg.

SURVEY SHOWS OLDEST CHILD HANDICAPPED

Older children in each family tend to be less intelligent, on the average, and more susceptible to disease and insanity than the younger children, according to the results of a two-year study analyzing the children of 1,500 Chicago families, conducted by Professor Louis L. Thurstone of the Psychology Department at the University of Chicago.

Binet tests for the respective ages given each of the children further indicated that the age of the parents at the time of the child's birth does not affect the child's intelligence, that discrepancy between the ages of the parents likewise has no effect, and that the level of intelligence of the children of small families is higher than that of large families.

“Our conclusions are based on averages in each case,” says Dr. Thurstone. “There are, of course, plenty of exceptions. Our averages show that the younger children are progressively three points higher on the intelligence quotient scale than the older children. While it might be said that younger children are more intelligent because the parents have had experience in raising children, this is usually balanced by the extra care given the oldest child.

“While we have attempted no systematic explanation of our finding that the children of small families are more intelligent than those of large families, the difference might be accounted for by a general difference in the social and economic status and environment. From the standpoint of the intelligence of the children there seems to be no ideal age for mating, nor any ideal difference between the ages of the parents, nor any ideal interval between the births of the children. It has been already recorded in Europe by other investigators that the children of the well-to-do are more intelligent than the children of the poor.”

The study was made in co-operation with Richard W. Jenkins, M. D., of the Chicago Institute for Juvenile Research. Miss Minnie Steckel, graduate student, is making a similar survey among 10,000 school children in Sioux City, Iowa, and preliminary reports indicate that she is getting results similar to those of Dr. Thurstone, whose conclusions will be published in a monograph.

IMPROVED TRANSPORTATION

The growth of secondary education, which has been one of the outstanding developments in recent years, continues at almost undiminished rate. At the present time more than one-half of the population of high-school age is in actual high-school attendance.

According to the recent report of the United States Commissioner of Education
to the Secretary of the Interior, the figures for urban as distinct from rural enrollments reveal greater opportunities of high-school attendance offered to city than to rural youth. It is better than an even chance that the city boy of 14 to 17 is in high school; by contrast the probabilities were 7 to 1 against his father having opportunities for a high school education in 1900.

High school enrollments have more than doubled since 1920. The extension of secondary education to include in its junior high school some of the grades formerly assigned to elementary schools accounts in some measure for this growth. The larger city school systems are expeditiously placing more and more of their pupils into junior high schools, while the smaller systems are less rapidly but quite consistently also adopting the junior high-school organization. In cities over 10,000 population, between 75,000 and 100,000 pupils are transferred from elementary schools into junior high schools every year.

Not many years ago the educational system included three units, namely, elementary school, high school and college. At present there are at least five distinct levels: Elementary school (including kindergarten), junior high school, senior high school, junior college, and college or university (including the professional school).

In the halcyon days of elementary high-school-college education, operation was on a single-track system which oddly enough provided no stopping facilities for anybody except at the terminus; if a passenger wished to get anywhere he had to agree to take a long trip and to stay on the train. At present the large city secondary schools provide accommodations for all, even for those who do not want to ride. After a certain minimum length of the journey is completed, a call for local stops is made all along the line for those who wish to go no further, and express service is furnished for those who want to go to the end of the line and are intent upon making connection at that point.

THE READING TABLE

**Elementary Science by Grades, Book Two.**

**Elementary Science by Grades, Book Three.**

This second-grade book is decidedly on the right track in that the authors have kept in mind "the psychology of the child rather than the orderly arrangement of the subject matter." This is the guiding principle in the most progressive courses of study for the grades of which the writer is aware, such as the Course of Study in Elementary Science by Gerald S. Craig, Ph. D., of Horace Mann School, New York. This principle requires the inclusion of simple physical science material as well as nature study.

Other good points in the book are: (1) the vocabulary has been "selected from and checked against accredited lists of words of highest frequency in the spoken vocabulary of young children"; (2) organization of material is on the basis of seasons; (3) a section on "Things to Think About" is included at the end of each chapter; (4) a section on "Things to Do" is also given at the end of each chapter, providing "laboratory" and field work suited to the second grade; (5) "Suggestions to teachers" are given for each chapter.

The book has an excellent mechanical make-up, large clear type, clear photographs from life, and splendid color plates of birds and flowers.

Book Three, designed for the third grade, is similar to Book Two which has been reviewed above. Altogether this series promises to be most useful in the field of elementary science.

Fred C. Mabee


This fascinating biographical study of the great scientist is a delightful book for anyone to read, be he child or adult. The book is attractively written and well illustrated.

The main idea of the book is to give pupils a broad basis for the appreciation of healthful living. The book may be used in two ways: 1. as supplementary reading; 2. as reference or source material in the development of teaching units in general science, social science, home economics, hygiene, physical education, language, art, and civics.


Similar to the book on Louis Pasteur reviewed above. This book is an excellent one to put into
the hands of school children to teach them the story of the discovery of vaccine for smallpox and of Jenner's immortal place in that history.


When methods of classroom instruction are rapidly shifting emphasis from the question—answer "recitation" to the use of the class period for exploration, teaching, and testing, the full significance of the high school library in such a plan of procedure is at once apparent. Miss Logasa has offered out of her experience as librarian in the University (of Chicago) High School a book rich in suggestions "to provide material for courses in education, and for use in library training courses." C. T. L.


Here is a tremendously vital collection of contemporary short stories with running comment on the diverse ways their authors have of handling material. The editor's explanation of the tragic undercurrent in most of these twenty-nine stories is that "the short story form itself demands dramatic subject matter ... A situation of sharp realistic potentiality or tragedy is much more likely to make for dramatic intensity than many a more subdued complication."

The volume is obviously for college students and mature readers. C. T. L.


Believing that "the great harm resulting from the present arrangement of the poetry in the curriculum is due to the fact that the majority of the poems are taught to pupils unable to comprehend them" (p. 109), the author of this study has spent eight years in an effort to learn the place in the curriculum at which each poem may first be intelligibly studied. His researches disclose these conclusions as to placement: Emerson's A Fable—grade IV; Hemans's The Landing of the Pilgrims—grade VI; Whittier's In School Days, Bryant's To a Waterfowl, and Longfellow's The Children's Hour—grade VII; Holmes's The Chambered Nautilus—grade VIII; Lowell's The First Snow-Fall and Bryant's Thanatopsis—grade IX.


An inexpensive edition, printed from clear type, in the "Nelson's Classics" series, under the general editorship of Sir Henry Newbolt.


These two companion books occupy a position intermediate between the elementary texts on physiology and the advanced books on the same subject. They are especially adapted to the freshman and sophomore courses. The material and arrangement lends itself admirably to laboratory teaching and removes the subject from the philosophical to the experimental field. It is evident that these books are the product of years of experience in teaching and their use even as classroom and laboratory references will revolutionize many classes in human physiology. Incidentally, the publishers are to be congratulated on the excellent quality of their work. G. W. C.


Two workbooks in silent reading each built around a central idea. Illustrated.


This book is one of the Home Economics Series edited by Dr. Katharine Blount. It is based on research work of courses in Investigation Cookery at the University of Chicago. As its name implies, an attempt has been made to find the answers to the Hows and Whys of cooking. Recipes, manipulation, temperatures, and other factors have been standardized by the use of scientific methods, and the findings are interpreted in terms of recipes and methods of work.

The book, while dealing with a limited number of problems, is a real contribution to the field of Investigation Cookery and would serve as a valuable guide in college courses of this nature. P. P. M.

**NEWS OF THE COLLEGE**

On December 7 members of the Senior class could be seen walking about the campus garbed in academic cap and gown. Chapel exercises were conducted by the class that morning, and in the evening "The Enchanted Christmas Tree" was presented in Walter Reed Hall. A buffet supper in the College tea room, given by the class for its members and guests, also helped make the day a pleasant one. The issue of the Breeze for December 7 was edited by the Senior class, with Kathryn Pace acting as class editor.

On December 8, the Schoolma'am staff held its annual bazaar in the little gym. Gifts and attractive novelties were sold in most attractive booths. The Christmas spirit was carried out effectively in the decorations. A prize was presented to Helene Duvall for the best poster made by any student to advertise the bazaar. Varied and original stunts were offered by the several organizations, the Blue Stone Cotillion Club receiv-
ing the prize for presenting the best pro-
duction.

After the annual bazaar everyone’s atten-
tion was directed toward examinations. This
was the last “event of entertainment” be-
fore the end of the quarter. Examinations
took place on December 15, 17, and 18. The
Christmas holidays, originally set for De-
cember 18 to January 2, were extended to
January 7 on account of the epidemic of
influenza. Fortunately, the cases at the Col-
lege were relatively few before the vacation.

The first entertainment of the new quar-
ter was Tony Sarg’s Marionettes on Janu-
ary 11. The matinee performance was a
vaudeville act, while the evening presenta-
tion was entitled “The Adventures of Chris-
topher Columbus.” Large audiences receiv-
ed both performances. On Saturday, Janu-
ary 12, the Debating Club presented a win-
ter carnival in the little gym.

Several organizations have admitted new
members since the holidays. Stratford has
initiated Rose Hogge, Christine Mason,
Groveen Pittman, and Betty Barnhart. The
Lanier Literary Society has admitted Eva
Holland, Anne Everett, Mildred Coffman,
Frances Ruebush, Margaret Pusey, Jeannette
Ingle, Mary Farinholt, Virginia Parker, and
Sally Bishop Jones. The Lees have initiated
Julia Duke, Edna Campbell, Pattie Fitz-
hugh, Frances Rolston, Anna Lyons Sulli-
vian, Betty Barnhart, Anna Mendel, Lucy
Malone, Ruth Sisson, Margaret Kelly, Mar-
garet Beck, Elizabeth Root, and Evelyn
Wilson.

The Page Literary Society has initiated
Gertrude Drinker, Anna Keyser, Catherine
Markham, Lucy Marston, Genevieve Cle-
enger, Elizabeth Townsend, and Jane Camp-
bell. The Debating Club has admitted three
new members: Catherine Markham, Doris
Bane, and Edna Brown.

During the Christmas holidays, terrazzo
floors were completed in Reed Hall. Doors
were placed at the entrance to the Senior
dining room, and the new laboratory in the
basement of Johnston Hall was completed
for class use.

Friday evening, January 18, the nominat-
ing convention met to suggest names of
girls to be considered for the heads of the
major organizations on the campus for the
ensuing year. The ticket, as finally approv-
ed by the electoral board, contained the fol-
lowing names:

Student Government: Mina Thomas,
Rose Hogge, Juanita Berry.

Y. W. C. A.: Elizabeth Dixon, Virginia
Thomas, Gertrude Drinker.

Athletic Association: Mary Brown All-
good, Evelyn Bowers.

The Schoolma’am: Anne Trott, Eliza-
beth Knight, Virginia Gilliam.

The Breeze: Phyllis Palmer, Frances
Snyder, Mary Crane. Misses Thomas, Dixon,
Bowers, Trott, and Palmer were elected.

On Saturday, January 19, the Sophomore
class had a most attractive bridge party in
the little gym. The members of the class
and their guests enjoyed bridge and danc-

The Glee Club has admitted a number of
new members: Virginia Nuckols, Frances
Ruebush, Delphine Hurst, Nellie Cowan,
Helen Crawford, Kathryn James, Arabella
Waller, Margaret Beck, Doris Bane, and
Elizabeth Oakes.

Miss Lucille Smith, of Missouri, takes
the place of Miss Margaret Miller, who
resigned at the end of last quarter to be
married.

Basketball season has begun and fast
games are eagerly anticipated. H. T. C.
took the first victory of the season from
Bridgewater College, on January 18, by a
count of 54-13.

The schedule, as announced by Evelyn
Bowers, business manager, follows:

Farmville State Teachers College (there)
February 1, Lynchburg College (there)
February 2; Fredericksburg State Teachers
College (there) February 8; Radford State
Teachers College (here) February 15; Sav-
age School of Physical Education, New
York City (here) February 22; Radford State Teachers College (there) March 2; Farmville State Teachers College (here) March 8; Fredericksburg State Teachers College (here) March 9.

Games may be scheduled with Lynchburg College and Westhampton College.

ALUMNAE NOTES

WEDDINGS

**Anderson-Clark**

Miss Mary Clark, of Danville, Virginia, recently became the bride of Mr. Charles Anderson, of Long Island, Virginia. Mrs. Anderson graduated with the class of '26 and since then has been teaching in Danville.

**Duppel-Crider**

A wedding, beautiful in its simplicity, was solemnized at the home of the bride's parents, Mr. and Mrs. J. W. Crider, near Lacey Spring, at twelve o'clock, New Year's Eve, when their eldest daughter, Miss Treva Frances Crider, became the bride of Mr. William Duppel, of Philadelphia.

**Kennedy-Denton**

On Monday, January 7, Miss Ruth Evelyn Denton became the bride of Mr. Carl Eugene Kennedy, in Staunton, Virginia. Mrs. Kennedy is the only daughter of Mr. and Mrs. D. Frank Denton, of Harrisonburg. She attended H. T. C. and taught in both Rockingham and Augusta schools. The groom is employed by the Campbell Shoe Co., Inc., of Harrisonburg.

**DR. WAYLAND'S NEW BOOK OF VERSE**

Comments by Verlie Story Giles on "Whispers of the Hills"

"Whispers of the Hills is altogether lovely. I read it with joy and sadness, for it recalls poignantly the golden days on campus and in classroom."

"Every poem is beautiful, finished, polished. May I tell you the ones I love especially? If the Heart Be Strong is exquisite. I need this. Green and White will be sacred to each of us. I like Hill Fever very much. This reminds me of the day you blazed the trail for a group of us, including Miss Cleveland, up Massanutten. Truth Hath Builted Altars is very fine, too. When the Laddies Passed rivals the others in its appeal to me. Reading it, that morning comes back with all its thrill."

"You have given a very beautiful gift to each of your girls in Whispers of the Hills, and you have made a real contribution to Virginia poetry!"

ALUMNAE NOW TEACHING IN VIRGINIA

Beginning with this number of the Virginia Teacher, the Secretary of the Alumnae Association will list the Alumnae who are teaching in the various counties and cities of the state. These lists will include the names of the graduates of our four and two-year courses as well as the names of some non-graduates and summer school students. The lists have been checked over by the division superintendents and in the alumnae office. However, you may know of other former students who belong on this register, and information about them would be welcomed at the alumnae office.

**Accomac County** (*indicates non-graduate)

Elizabeth Butler,* Chincoteague, Va.
Lula Phipps, Chincoteague, Va.
Katherine Watson,* Chincoteague, Va.
Doris Kelly, New Church
Margaret Johnson, Temperanceville
May Matthews,* Temperanceville
Amy Miles, Sanford
Evelyn Chesser, Bloxom
Louise Bloxom, Parksley
Doris Nock, Parksley
Ellen Nock, Parksley
Nell Scott,* Parksley
Mrs. Mary M. Johnson,* Accomac
Maude Nicholson,* Accomac
Lillian Doughty, Accomac
Velma Westells, Onancock
Kate Turlington,* Melfa
Mrs. Katherine Sclocumb, Painter
Mrs. Sara Bell, Wachaprague
Albemarle County
Mrs. Ralph Adams, Ivey
Lottie Goodwin,* Ivey
Mrs. S. A. Smith,* Ivey
Norwood V. Flick,* Rivanna
Hortense Herring, Rivanna
Annie Delvin, Rivanna
Nellie Maupin, Rivanna
Virginia Martin, Rivanna
Anne Cloud, Greenwood
Effie J. Via, Oak Hill
Mrs. D. M. Garlands, Garlands
Susie Beddows, Farina
Lois Henderson, Scottsville
Martha E. Roehr, Estmont
Edythe T. Mattox, Old Dominion
Eula Smith, Old Dominion
Clotilde Rhodes, Crozet
Mrs. M. B. Washington, Crozet
Lucy Via, Free Union
Mrs. F. M. Bruce, Browns Cove

Alleghany (Clifton Forge)
Lila Deisher
Sallie B. Hobson
Mary Lou Joyce
Pauline Johnson
Elizabeth King
Sadie Smith*
Ella Sutton
Katie Wilson
Mrs. Willie Willkerson*

Amherst County
Virginia Reynolds
Stella Black*
Katherine Foster*
Ethel Hammer*
Annie Campbell
Louise Foster*
Annie Younger
Anne Johnson*
Frances Carter
Emma Tompson*
Agnes Brown*
Virginia Campbell
Pearl Smith
Nancy Smith
Sarah Hartman
Margaret Heatwole
Isabel Lanford
Effie Humphries*
Myrtle Campbell*
Agnes Jennings*
Mary Ramsey*
Mabel Gordon*
Ruth Campbell*
Lucille Bowles

Appomattox
Hazel Reynolds, Oakville

Arlington
Mezelle Powell, Ballston
Elizabeth Ralston, Cherrydale
Edna Bonney, Clarendon
Nora Hosley, Clarendon
Mary Aldhizer
Mary Turner,* Cherrydale
Pattie Calloway, Alexandria
Mary Bibb, Ballston
Mildred Berryman, Ballston
Georgia Brockett,* Alexandria
Katherine J. Elliott, Cherrydale
Ellen W. Hopkins, Cherrydale

Thelma W. Lewis, Ballston
Hazel Groton, Ballston
Irene Rogers, Arlington
Nina Frey, Arlington
Madeline W. Whitlock, Arlington
Helen R. Browne, Clarendon
Mary B. Miller, Clarendon
Mary Smith, Arlington
Laura Rhodes,* Clarendon
Annie Goodman, Barcoft
Gertrude Kidwell, R. F. D., Alexandria
Ella Watts, Falls Church
Emma Byrd, Cherrydale

ALUMNÆ NOW TEACHING IN ROANOKE CITY

Jefferson Senior High School
Virginia Caldwell—Home Economics

Jackson Junior High School
Mildren Klinger—Sixth grade (lower)
Bessie Profitt—Sixth grade (higher)
Chrystella Lohmann—English
Mae Brindel—Mathematics
Estelle Flippen—Geography and Writing
Nancy Mosher—Home Economics

Woodrow Wilson Junior High School
Mae H. Hoover—Asst. principal
Lossie Dalton—Seventh grade (higher)
Virginia Harvey Boyd—English and Physical Education
Marie C. Helm—Mathematics
Elizabeth Gaines—Home Economics

Lee Junior High School
Mrs. Vera Anson—Latin

Lee Junior High School Annex
Virginia Edwards—Civics and Geography
Odessa Caldwell—Writing

Belmont School
H. S. Hooke—Principal
Amy E. P. Fetters—Asst. principal

Crystal Spring Road
Elizabeth Malone—Sixth grade

Forest Park School
Elizabeth Pearman—Second grade
Grace Pearman—Second grade
Mildred Reynolds—Sixth grade

Highland Park School
Helen Coke—Third grade
Wilson Chaney—Fifth grade
Virginia Brumbaugh—Fifth grade

Jamison School
Carrie Spillman—Asst. Principal
Luna Saunders—First grade
Mary A. Freeman—First grade
Kathleen Holtz—Second grade
Lucille McClung—Third grade
Doris T. Keeton—Fourth grade

Melrose School
Sarah Evans—Third grade

Monroe School
Irene Foutz—First grade
Pauline Armentrout—Second grade
Ruth Witt—Eighth grade and Art
Carrie Chilton—Music and English
Christine Forbes—Fourth grade
Mary Bocock—Fourth grade
LETTERS FROM OUR ALUMNÆ

Gertrude Bowler, 88 Horatio St., New York:

Outstanding, I may say first, among my pleasant anticipations for 1929, is the prospect of resuming contact with Blue Stone Hill through the Virginia Teacher.

I think you and Mr. Duke have worked out an admirable plan for spreading alumnae news through the college magazine. I am eager to receive my first copy.

It's an interesting fact—and not a strange one at all to me—that although I've studied in several institutions and am now carrying a heavy schedule at Columbia, I find any mention of alumnae or alma mater suggests to me only Blue Stone Hill. Please remember me to my friends there.

Carolyn R. Beebe, Stillman Valley, Illinois:

I'm enclosing check for one dollar for one year's subscription to the Virginia Teacher. Is this right? I paid Life Membership last spring.

I'm looking forward to seeing the Virginia Teacher again, as I am so far away that I feel the need of a real touch with old Blue Stone Hill.

Sarah Evans, Treasurer, Roanoke Chapter:

You will find enclosed a check for $25.00 for the Johnston Memorial Fund from the Roanoke Chapter of H. T. C. Alumnae Association.

We had a lovely benefit bridge party in November. The girls seemed to enjoy getting together very much. We haven't many new members in Roanoke this year.

We send our love to H. T. C. and best wishes for a Happy New Year.

Dorothy R. Cox, Charles City, Virginia:

I am enclosing a check for two dollars with which to pay my dues and to pay for a subscription to the Virginia Teacher.

I like teaching passably well, but I surely do miss H. T. C.

ALUMNÆ OR ALUMNI?

Sing a song of six-pence, pocket full of rye,
Do you say Alumnae (e) or Alumni (i) ?
When your mouth is opened, the words begin to flow,
It depends on which you are, which you say, you know.
The Prof. is in the English-room, a-working hard with me
And all the other people who say (i) for (e).
The President's in his office, a-kicking up a fuss,
'Cause I'm an alumna and he's an alumnus.
Sing a song of six-pence, I'm glad as I can be
That boys are called Alumni (i) and girls Alumnae (e).

CHECKS RECEIVED SINCE PUBLICATION OF LAST VIRGINIA TEACHER

The Alumnae Office acknowledges with thanks the receipt of checks from the following:

Mrs. Carolyn R. Beebe..........................$2.00
Miss Gertrude Bowler..........................$2.00
Mrs. C. E. Boyd...............................$2.00
Miss Dorothy Cox..............................$2.00
Miss Gladys Goodman.........................$2.00
Miss Page Johnson............................$1.50
Miss Mary E. Terrie..........................$2.00
Mrs. M. B. Washington.......................$2.00
Roanoke Chapter..............................$25.00

Dorothy S. Garber

OUR CONTRIBUTORS

Bessie J. Lanier's exposition of the theory of direct teaching was prepared under the direction of Professor H. C. Morrison at the University of Chicago.

Miss Lanier, W. J. Gifford, Emily Goodlett, W. B. Varner, C. P. Shorts, Mary Louise Seeger, and Katherine M. Anthony are all members of the department of education in the State Teachers College at Harrisonburg.


Gladys Goodman is fourth grade supervisor in the training school at Harrisonburg.
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Athletic field and tennis courts.
Two gymnasiums. Nine-hole golf course.
Two swimming pools (indoor and outdoor).

Harrisonburg is a delightful and progressive city of 7,000 inhabitants, people of culture and refinement, deeply interested in the welfare of the College and its students.