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LENORA E. JOHNSON
Discuss Co-operation Between the Training School and Subject-Matter Teachers

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ATTENTION OF TEACHERS AND PRINCIPALS
CO-OPERATION BETWEEN TRAINING SCHOOL AND SUBJECT-MATTER INSTRUCTORS

Introduction

The outstanding problem confronting public education today is the development of efficient teachers for the public schools of our country. Because of its importance, this problem should offer the greatest challenge to our most competent educational workers. Schools can be efficient only in proportion as their teachers are efficient. Teachers can be efficient only in so far as they are prepared for their vocation.

Since a large proportion of public school teachers now receive preparation for their work in teachers' colleges and normal schools, educational leaders should study these same institutions very carefully in order to determine the causes of the inefficiency of their product. As the result of such a study, intelligent suggestions should be made for improving the preparation of teachers in these schools.

The purpose of this paper is to consider only one factor (with its implications) which, if allowed to function, it is thought would help to improve the efficiency of the product of teacher-training institutions. This factor is co-operation between the training-school staff and the subject-matter instructors of teachers' colleges and normal schools.

The following discussion is based on the assumption that co-operation among instructors does not consist merely in "making" opportunities for teachers of various departments to work together. Instead, it is assumed that all faculty members concerned should become conscious of certain relationships which already exist by virtue of the very aims and purposes of teacher-training institutions. It is further assumed that these intrinsic relationships should function in determining the policies and practices governing co-operation.

In attempting a discussion of co-operation between the training school and subject-matter teachers, it seemed advisable (1) to consider some of the reasons for lack of co-operation between subject-matter instructors and the training-school staff; (2) to set forth some of the conditioning factors which tend to influence professional trends and co-operative activities; and, finally, (3) to make certain constructive proposals, the carrying out of which will help to bring about a high degree of co-operation between the training school and subject-matter instructors of teacher-training institutions.

I

SOME REASONS FOR LACK OF CO-OPERATION BETWEEN ACADEMIC INSTRUCTORS AND THE TRAINING SCHOOL

More than a century has passed since the movement for the training of teachers was first got under way in this country. Many changes have taken place in teacher-training institutions during the process of evolution from "seminaries" to "normal schools" and on into "teachers' colleges." It is not surprising that all kinds of attitudes, specializations and differences of emphasis should crop out, which have hindered rather than aided co-operation among various instruc-

1Throughout this paper the term "subject-matter" as applied to teachers, is used to include teachers of educational classes as well as academic courses.
tors of these schools. Because such institutions are off-shoots of academic schools, they quite naturally carry with them many academic traditions and heritages. Some of these traditional influences, together with other factors which have developed with the growth of teacher-training institutions, are decided hindrances to co-operation between academic instructors and the training school.

**Academic Attitude.** Foremost among the reasons for lack of co-operation between academic instructors and the training-school staff is the attitude of the academic instructor. He is interested in subject-matter for its own sake, as is evidenced by the following quotation from Dean James E. Russell:

> "The academically-minded teacher revels in his own subject; he classifies, systematizes, expands, and magnifies it; he has such implicit faith in its educational efficacy that he believes no education complete without it; scholarship is his ideal, and if he be a good teacher, his students are swept along by his enthusiasm. Such teachers are a blessing in an academic institution, but they make trouble in a professional school. Not that scholarship is not wanted in a professional school, but it is scholarship based on knowledge selected and evaluated in terms of professional needs."

Randolph, in emphasizing the contrast between the academic and the professional viewpoints, quotes the following:

> "He who learns that he may know, and he who learns that he may teach are standing in quite different mental attitudes."

It is just this difference that exists between the academically-minded instructor and the professionally-minded teacher. Quite frequently the former has never spent a day in the elementary school since he was a pupil there. He knows nothing of its problems and does not care to know them. He is unable to appreciate the work done by training teachers even when they are well prepared for their work. He is interested in knowledge for its own sake, and not for its contribution to the development of teachers. He sees no need for working with other instructors. He knows his subject and needs no assistance from other instructors, so he thinks. This academically-minded type of instructor is forgetting the aim of the institution he is serving. Perhaps it would be more accurate to say, he is so wrapped up in subject-matter that he has never really become conscious of the meaning of the aim and function of the institution in which he works. The singleness of purpose which should guide the policies of the institution—namely the development of efficient teachers for the public schools of the United States—has not become a controlling idea in his teaching. So long as this academic attitude is held by teachers of subject-matter, just so long will co-operation between them and the training school be lacking.

**Training School Regarded Inferior by Subject-Matter Teachers**

A false conception regarding the status of the various groups of instructors in the teacher-training institutions is another factor negative to co-operation. This is evident from the condescension shown by subject-matter teachers when attempts are made to get them to work with the training school. This attitude may be derived from the fact that although there was a training school in connection with the first normal school at Lexington, Massachusetts, training schools in general came as an afterthought about fifty years following the establishment of normal schools proper. The training school is therefore deemed inferior by unthinking subject-matter teachers and far beneath their range of interest. They feel that any connection they may have with the training

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5Vanderslice, H. R.—The Correlation of the Subject-Matter and Theory Department of Practice Teaching.
schools means a condescension on their part. There can be no co-operation on such a basis. Academically-minded instructors need to be awakened to the fact that the training school is to continue, and to make effective the training started by college courses. It is, in fact, a testing laboratory for their own work. Only to the extent to which subject-matter instructors identify themselves with the training school will the subject-matter, principles and theory taught by them find application in the practical aspects of the training-school classroom.

Inferior Housing and Equipment of Training School. It may seem trivial to mention the location and equipment of the training school as a cusative factor in lack of co-operation between the training school and subject-matter instructors. However, quite often the very location and equipment of the training school signify the unimportant place this school holds. Sometimes the training school is found in the basement of a building which is attractive and well-kept from the first floor up. Sometimes it is found in some out-of-the-way corner beyond the power-house, in an old frame building which served as a dormitory in earlier days. Altogether too infrequently is it found in an attractive, well-kept building, which is the pride of the whole institution. The same attitude is often reflected in the teaching equipment of the training school. It is not always true, but how often one does find the most "dilapidated" chairs, the most "antique" desks, and the most "tattered" maps of the whole institution are relegated to the "use" of the training school. In recent years much has been said about the training school's being the "heart of the teacher-training institution." One could ask,—"Does it not follow that the training school deserves a central location and the best of equipment in order that it may function effectively in a co-operative sense?"

Qualifications of Training School Teachers. Not the least of the reasons why the training-school teachers and subject-matter instructors have not worked on a co-operative basis is to be found in the training-school teachers. A careful study of the accompanying data (though they are by no means final), will reveal the painful fact that training teachers are not as well prepared for their work as are theory, English, language, mathematics, social science, and science instructors. The training teacher's preparation is more nearly comparable to that of teachers of art and music. They do not even rank up to the average for all departments in terms of degrees held. According to Mr. West's study 6 80 per cent. of the training teachers in the United States have less training than is required to teach in an accredited high school. And yet is not the training teacher's position of more importance, and does it not require more skill and more technical training than that of a high school teacher? The training teacher's academic preparation should be as thorough (if not more so) as that of our best public school teachers, and her professional training should be much more thorough. The National Association of Directors of Student Teaching and the National Education Association Committee on accrediting and classification of teachers colleges recommend the equivalent of the M. A. degree in quantity, and special preparation for critic work, plus successful teaching experience in the public schools. Results show that 81 per cent. of the training teachers of the United States fall below this requirement, not considering successful experience and special preparation.

"The strategic point in teacher training is in personal conferences, and yet teacher training institutions in the United States are using in these personal conferences, as models for teachers of

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West, Joe H.—The Status and Training of Critic Teachers; Educational Administration and Supervision; November, 1927—pp. 563-67
America, as personal advisers in the art of teaching, their most poorly trained group. 7

Low Salaries Paid Training Teachers. This lack of preparation on the part of training teachers is closely associated with another factor which has hindered co-operation between subject-matter instructors and the training school staff. This factor is that of the low salaries paid to training teachers as compared with those of subject-matter instructors. Here again Mr. West offers some interesting though deplorable data. In a study of 102 teacher-training institutions, he found that 52, or 51 per cent. of these schools pay their training teachers less than their academic instructors. Forty-seven per cent. of these same 52 schools pay training teachers from $100 to $1,300 less than their other teachers, i.e., from five per cent. to 50 per cent., or on an average of $492 or 25 per cent. less. Forty-eight, or 47 per cent., pay the same, and two or two percent. pay more. Equally well qualified teachers cannot be expected to serve as training teachers rather than as academic teachers when in 51 cases out of 100 they will receive 25 per cent. less pay for such services, and will have only two chances in 100 to receive more. Thus it is readily seen that the lower salaries paid training teachers are a double hindrance to co-operation. They cause these teachers to be regarded as inferior by subject-matter teachers, and they make for the extremely short tenure of training-school positions. Mr. West found that the median for teacher-training tenure is 2.4 years, and that only twelve per cent. of the training teachers held such positions for more than seven years. Co-operation, to be effective, cannot be based on an inferiority-superiority relation. It requires more than 2.4 years to become a specialist in any particular field.

In spite of the inferior position which the above data indicate training teachers hold, Dr. Bagley seems rather hopeful in regard to the equalization of professional rank of teachers, as evinced by the following comment:

"The University study of education," he says, "has played a most important part in integrating the teaching profession. The lower grades have been regarded as the testing ground for the immature and inexperienced teachers, the permanent abode of the weak and the indolent, and the final resting place of the old and decrepit. Today there is a growing conviction that no phase or field of teaching can lay valid claim to being more difficult or more important than any other phase or field. Discriminations and distinctions as to salaries are breaking down, as for example in the gradual extension of the single-salary schedule which does away with all distinctions except those that are based upon training, experience and meritorious service. . . . One of the striking characteristics of this and other phases of our professional development has been the clear-cut tendency toward a thorough-going democracy. Not only are the distinctions between the elementary school service and the high school service being obliterated, but the equally unfortunate distinction between the classroom teacher and the executive and supervising officials are being minimized. In our professional organizations, as in our classes in education, all the workers in our field can meet on a common footing." 9

Not until such relations as these have permeated teacher-training institutions can cooperation function between training-school and subject-matter instructors.

The Teaching Load a Hindrance to Cooperation. Often both subject-matter and training-school teachers are forced to carry such heavy teaching loads that, even if there were a willingness on the part of both groups to co-operate, the situation makes it impossible. This is a matter which the president of the school, together with the director of teacher training should study, and make serious efforts to adjust in terms of recent recommendations of a 15 or a 16-hour teaching standard. 10 If such a standard holds for one group of instructors, should it be uniform throughout the school?

7McMullen, Lynn B.—The Service Load in Teacher Training Institutions of the United States—p. 94.
8West, Joe H.—The Status and Training of Critic Teachers.
ACADEMIC PREPARATION OF TEACHERS IN NORMAL SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS COLLEGE IN THE UNITED STATES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Catalog Study (1)</th>
<th>Number Considered</th>
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- McMullen's Study (2)
  - Education (Critic) 348
  - Total, all Departments 1943

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Again, is there a difference in type of work which should vary the standard? Such questions will bear study. The conclusions of such studies, if put into practice might influence the degree of co-operation between the training school, and subject-matter instructors.

Lack of Administrative Direction to Professional Ends. The administration of teachers' colleges and normal schools must bear part of the responsibility for lack of co-operation, from another point of view. For financial reasons, and in a spirit of rivalry, administrators of teacher-training schools try to compete with liberal arts colleges. In an effort to secure large enrollments of students, many purely academic courses are offered; loose organization of courses is permitted; and an appreciation of the important part teacher-training schools play, or rather, should play in the professional training of teachers, is lacking. Quite the reverse should be true. If such schools are to send out successful teachers, administrators should see to it that every course offered in a teacher-training school has a direct bearing on the preparation of teachers. Such action on the part of administrators will do much toward encouraging the functioning of co-operation among instructors of subject-matter courses and the training school.
II

CONDITIONING FACTORS WHICH TEND TO INFLUENCE PROFESSIONAL TRENDS AND CO-OPERATIVE ACTIVITIES

The Aim is Fundamental. An examination of 147 normal school and teachers' college catalogs shows that the primary aim of such institutions is the training of teachers for the public schools of the state. In a large majority of cases teacher training is given as the sole aim of such institutions. Only rarely does one find secondary comments as that of Sul Ross State Teachers College, Alpine, Texas:

"others are permitted for purposes of general education, or for preparation for other professions";

or, that of South Texas State Teachers College, Kingsville, Texas, which—

"offers students above high school immaturity an opportunity to find themselves, or to prepare for other professions."

The catalog of Concord State Normal of Athens, West Virginia, states the main purpose of the school as that of teacher-training, but adds this interesting statement:

"If any course offered for the training of a teacher happens to meet the needs of any who are not expecting to teach, and they wish to enter said course, they may do so, but no course will be offered just to accommodate students not expecting to teach."

It is interesting to note that the aim of teacher-training institutions has not always been so definitely limited to that of training teachers as the above study of current catalogs indicates. "An Act to Establish a State Normal School" at Ypsilanti, Michigan, in 1849 reads:

"Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the State of Michigan, That a State Normal School be established, the exclusive purpose of which shall be the instruction of persons both male and female, in the art of teaching and in all the various branches that pertain to a good common school education, also to give instruction in the mechanic arts, and in the arts of husbandry and agricultural chemistry, in the fundamental laws of the United States and in what regards the rights and duties of citizens."

A revision as stated in the Act of 1889 narrows the scope of training as follows:

"The purpose of the normal school shall be the instruction of persons in the art of teaching and in all the various branches pertaining to the public schools of the State of Michigan."

The current catalog is even more specific in its aims.

No doubt, research would bring out even more interesting facts in regard to the original and the present aims of many professional schools. For practically all of the older professional schools are offshoots of liberal arts colleges and as such have been greatly influenced by these older academic institutions—quite frequently to the detriment of the professional schools. This is particularly true of teacher-training institutions, which have suffered severely from too academic curricula.

Vocational Purpose of Teacher-Training Institutions. Professional schools through their aims are vocational in nature—vocational of the highest type, to be sure. For this reason their curricula should be in terms of the specific vocations for which they are supposed to prepare. Dean James E. Russell says:

"The only guide in the professional school is the needs of the practitioner. The minimum standard is the preparation that best fits the novice to take the next step on leaving school. . . . The one inflexible requirement is that what is needed in practice must be taught. That school does best which fits its products to take the successive steps in their professional careers in confident, intelligent and skillful fashion. . . . A professional school is expected to develop special knowledge, attitudes, and skills in its students."

Professional training is the process whereby the individual is fitted for the job. The objectives of a professional school are therefore vocational in character.

Dean Russell holds that:

"Professional education is vocational education raised to the highest power. . . . The professional school is at best only one means of providing what is needed by the professional worker. It is a short cut to an objective taken under guides who know where they are going and how to avoid the pitfalls that beset the path of the lone traveller. . . . All that the novice needs in his preparation is already in the possession of some master or can be found in print. It is the business of the professional school to help him on the way that the masters have trod, to give him as much of the master's knowledge as he can learn in the time at his disposal, to imbue him with their ideals, to put him in the way of acquiring their skill, and, if possible, to make him self-reliant in coping with new conditions, and self-directing in the advancement of his profession."14

Teacher-training institutions, through their primary aim, as expressed in their catalogs, are at once vocational in nature; and failure to consider them as such is "certain to be attended with disastrous consequences to their efficiency in the development of teaching skill."15

If teacher-training institutions are vocational in nature, then they ought to be conducted as such. What has been said in the preceding paragraphs regarding professional education in general, applies specifically to teacher-training institutions.

"The task of professional schools for teachers is to take young, inexperienced men and women and give them to the knowledge, skill, habits, ideals and attitudes of mind that will enable them to go into the public schools and to teach the course that is laid down by the state, and teach it with skill and effectiveness. And even more important, it is the function of these institutions to develop in these young men and women those bases of personality and character that will enable them to go out into the public schools of the state and develop character in the children of these schools. . . . Just how these purposes are to be attained is a perplexing problem. A young man or woman wishes to be trained to be a teacher for the intermediate grades or to be a teacher of high school Latin. The professional work must not only look after the spiritual and moral welfare and growth of this individual; it must also see to it that the prospective teacher master the subject-matter of the field in which he will work, as well as achieve skill in imparting knowledge to children."16

A realization of the responsibilities of professional schools preparing individuals for the business of teaching, naturally leads to a consideration of just what must be done to fit the individual for his work. Whatever is included in the curriculum of a teachers' college must contribute to the preparation of teachers in terms of the purposes just quoted. This means that students must be given a threefold training, consisting of facts and subject-matter; theories and methods; observation, participation, and practice teaching. This training must be in such a manner and to such a degree that these same students can go into the classroom and carry on satisfactory procedure.

Such an assumption as the foregoing makes it necessary that the student be equipped with (1) subject-matter; (2) principles, habits, ideals, and attitudes; and (3) skills—all selected in terms of certain definite "vocational outcomes."17 For—

"there can be no satisfactory results of educational practice until sufficiently definite outcomes have been chosen in terms of vocational objectives to guide technical procedure."18

"Vocational outcomes" must be the bases for the selection of all three of the foregoing units with which the student must be equipped.

A Study of Curriculum Construction is Essential. Vocational ends sought, as described above, have made necessary a study of curriculum construction. Typical courses must be offered. The curriculum must provide for (1) courses in which students may get subject-matter, and theories and principles of education; (2) a training school where theories and principles learned in class may be made meaningful through observation and participation, and where skill may be developed in the use of these theories and principles in connection with the

16Alexander, Thomas—Survey of the Louisiana State Normal Schools, 1924—pp. 119-120.
17Root, Rosamund—The Outcomes of Supervised Student Teaching; Supervisors of Student Teaching, February 22-23, 1926—pp. 68-76.
18Root, Rosamund—Ibid.
subject-matter gained in classes; and (3) opportunities for developing habits, ideals, and attitudes of mind necessary for success in teaching.

In addition to there being general aims and purposes for the whole school, which have already been stated in terms of vocational outcomes desired, there must be specific aims and purposes for each subject-matter course. Such courses must also be selected on the basis of vocational outcomes desired. At present many courses included in the curricula of teacher-training institutions do not affect the practice of young teachers, since these courses are not organized with reference to the use of the content in the positions to which young teachers must go. Because teacher-training institutions are primarily vocational, no subject or course can justly be included in the curricula of such schools which does not have a direct bearing on increasing teaching ability. In choosing subject-matter for the various courses in the curriculum, preference should be given to that material which is of greatest value in the preparation of teachers—regardless of the requirements of liberal arts colleges.

This means that courses must be put on a professional basis. The Teacher Training Committee of the New York State Teachers’ Association recommends that:

"The normal school curriculum shall give a thorough review of the subject-matter which the student will later be called upon to teach, from the professional viewpoint, incorporating method with subject-matter taught and making definite use of type lessons and devices, such as the teacher can actually use in practical teaching conditions... Nor in laying stress on these subjects need there be any loss in cultural values if they are properly taught. The subject-matter taught in the normal schools and teachers colleges should not, however, be a mere formal rehash of history, geography, arithmetic, and the like. It may be described as a review in the sense that these fields are viewed again, but at a college level. The attention of students and teachers should be upon (1) a thorough mastery of the field itself; a grasp and scope of knowledge which should give the independence, self-confidence and ease which a wide margin of information alone affords; (2) an understanding of the uses of the subject in fulfilling the aims of elementary education, together with an adequate knowledge of methods of attaining these ends. This implies a sound basis in the psychology of the subject and of the child at a given age; (3) an acquaintance with the history of the field and a working knowledge of its literature; (4) a thorough knowledge of the maps, texts, visual materials and other aids available in teaching; (5) the development of ability to interpret the results of diagnostic tests and to apply remedial measures; (6) the consideration of courses of study, their interpretation and proper use. There should be also some experience in planning units of work in conjunction with a given course of study. Such an integration of subject-matter and method not only makes for a more effective teaching of both, but saves time by eliminating some of the over-lapping of courses."  

Subject-Matter Courses Must Be Related to the Training School. But even with such improvement in subject-matter courses as the carrying out of the above recommendations would bring about, knowledge, and knowledge of right practices will not insure skill in the use of such. To insure that these courses will really contribute to the development of teachers, and that they will function in public school classrooms, they must be definitely related to the training school through observation, participation, and later through actual practice, in the training school which has the following aims and purposes selected in terms of vocational outcomes desired:

(1) To conduct a good school where boys and girls may learn, in order
(2) To provide an opportunity for intending teachers to acquire skill (through observation, participation and practice) in the organization and use of subject-matter, and theories of teaching which function best in developing democratic school situations;
(3) To help intending teachers develop those desirable personal qualities (habits, ideals, attitudes of mind) which are needed in professional advancement; and
(4) To develop those personality and character traits to a degree that they can develop desirable character in the chil-

dren of their schools and take their places in the social life of their communities as becomes thinking, constructive workers in a democratic society.

(5) In general to induct, gradually, intending teachers into the profession, and at the same time to be sure that they can go into the public schools and carry on efficient procedure.

Only through definite relations between the training school and subject-matter courses can the aims of either as defined in the preceding paragraphs, or the aim of the whole school, as previously defined, be realized. The following proposals represent some rather definite co-operative relations between training school and subject-matter teachers, which, if allowed to function, would greatly improve the efficiency of the product of teacher-training institutions.

III

CONSTRUCTIVE PROPOSALS FOR CO-OPERATION BETWEEN THE TRAINING SCHOOL AND SUBJECT-MATTER INSTRUCTORS

1. A teacher-training institution should be considered a vocational school of the highest type.

2. The president of such a professional school should be a democratic individual who sets free the maximum of energy of all the faculty and utilizes it in a co-operative way for the solution of the problems of the institution.

3. The training school should be considered the central department of the institution and the testing laboratory of every other department.

4. The faculty as a whole should determine the policies of the school.

5. Every instructor should know the aims and purposes of the school as a whole, the specific aims of the training school, and the relation of his particular subject to the accomplishment of these aims.

6. The teachers in the training school should be equally as well prepared for their work as are other faculty members; and should have the same professional standing (rank, salary, privilege).

7. There should be a dean of instruction or some such co-ordinating agent delegated to focus the work of the whole college upon the development of efficient teachers.

8. Every subject-matter and every theory course in a teachers' college should contribute to the training of teachers and should be closely related to the training school through observation, demonstration, and participation.

9. The staff as a whole, or as groups, should determine the subject-matter and methods of their training school and of the subject-matter courses.

10. The curriculum of the training school should directly influence the curriculum of the college.

11. The teaching of children in the training school for observation, demonstration, and regular classroom work should be done by "expert teachers of children." (All teachers in a teacher-training institution should be qualified for this work.)

12. There should be frequent conferences among academic teachers and between academic instructors and training school teachers, when every person is free to express his own position on every question under discussion.

13. All faculty members should observe children's learning in order to improve their own instruction of students who are preparing to teach children.

14. The responsibility for the training of teachers rests with all members of a teachers' college staff. For this reason all instructors should observe student teachers at work in the training school.
Every department in which the student teacher has had work has a definite responsibility in improving the practice work of that student.

15. Co-operation should grow out of a respect for inherent relations found to exist in carrying out the purposes of a teacher preparing institution.

If the relationships implied in the above proposals could be realized, teacher-training institutions would carry out their aims much more effectively than they are now doing. But these relations cannot be realized unless every instructor is conscious of the fact that whole-hearted co-operation is essential to carrying out the aims of a teacher-training institution. Whole-hearted co-operation is essential because without the spirit and will to co-operate, any degree of consciousness of inherent relations would avail nothing.

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EDUCATIONAL AGE AS A BASIS FOR MEASURING RETARDATION

The science of education is in its infancy, but some of its practices are already verging on senescence. One of these is the common age-grade method of computing what is known as retardation. This method has rounded out a quarter of a century of distinguished service in the field of child accounting, and has now passed the period of its greatest usefulness. In the measurement of retardation, according to the evidence hereinafter supplied, it should be replaced by a more reliable method based on educational age instead of chronological age.

When the late Superintendent Maxwell, of New York City, made his suggestive study of retardation in 1904, he inaugurated not only a method, but indeed a movement. His method, refined by Thorndike, Ayres, and Strayer, has become a standardized procedure in school surveys, while the results of its application have offered a point of departure, in fact, a foundation, for the scientific study of school administration. On the whole, the studies of retardation, based on the relation between chronological age and grade position of pupils, have made a splendid contribution. When, however, one examines the reports of recent surveys, one finds it hard to escape the impression that this type of study has somehow taken a secondary place since the advent of the testing movement. This is not to say that it has been completely superseded. Age-grade investigations, as one writer contends, furnish “a quantitative statement of output as compared with intake.” That is, they provide an index of the holding power of the school. It will, no doubt, be conceded that they are exceedingly valuable for this purpose, and that such an index has an important place in the comparative study of school systems.

The point to which attention will be given in this paper, is the use of this method in the measurement of retardation. The method grew up in the days when the principal basis for the classification of pupils in the public schools was chronological. The supposition was that all pupils should enter at about 6 years of age, and that normalcy consisted in advancing one grade per year thereafter. When a school system was found to have a third or more of its pupils moving behind the normal pace, the usual conclusion was that many, if not all, of these so-called retarded pupils were classified where they ought not to be. The classification resulted, of course, from the common administrative device of using chronological retardation as a means of adjusting the pupil to the school régime. Following the revelations of age-grade investigations,
there was a long period of attempts to increase the promotion rate and correspondingly reduce the amount of retardation under condemnation. The process of reduction, however, has not, according to Strayer and Engelhardt,¹ been highly successful, tional status. The writers of this paper have made a comparative study of the retardation of the same pupils as measured by three different methods:

1. By the interval between chronological age and grade position;

TABLE I

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Percentage Retarded</th>
<th>Percentage Accelerated</th>
<th>Percentage Age at Grade Position</th>
<th>Percentage Age at Chronological Age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4A</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4B</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9A</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9B</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. By the interval between mental age and grade position;
2. By the interval between educational age and grade position.

The data for the investigation were kindly made available by Professor A. S. Barr, director of the Racine school survey. They consisted of the chronological age, the grade position, and the scores on both intelligence and achievement tests, of 1,572 pupils in four schools of Racine, Wisconsin. In two of these schools the grades studied were 4B to 9A, inclusive; in two, 4A to 6A. The intelligence scores represented the results on the Otis Self-Administering Test of Mental Ability, Intermediate Examination, Form A; the achievement scores, the results on the Stanford Achievement Test, Advanced Examination, Form A.

The mental and educational ages of each

¹G. D. Strayer and N. L. Engelhardt, The Classroom Teacher, p. 143. (1920.)
pupil were derived from the test scores in years and months. With the chronological age in similar form, three comparable ages of each pupil were available for comparison with grade position. Age-grade tables of three types were prepared for each of the four schools separately and for all combined, as follows:

1. Tables based on the relation between chronological age and grade;
2. Tables based on the relation between mental age and grade;
3. Tables based on the relation between educational age and grade.

In each of the retardation tables a one-year span was used for each half grade. The form of the tables is illustrated by Table I which shows the relation between the educational age and the grade placement of the 1,572 pupils studied.

The facts in the three sets of tables are summarized in Table II in percentage form.

This table shows the percentage of acceleration, normality and retardation according to the chronological, mental, and educational ages of the pupils in each of the four schools. In each school, it will be observed, the highest percentage of acceleration is in mental age, and in all except one the lowest is in educational age. Again, in each of the schools the highest percentage is normal according to chronological age, and the lowest

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>C.A.</th>
<th>M.A.</th>
<th>E.A.</th>
<th>C.A.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>34.1</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>54.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td>24.8</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>46.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>28.1</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>64.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>43.9</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>43.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Table II one can see the difference in results when educational age is used in place of chronological age in a study of the classification or grade position of the same pupils. Turn, for example, to School C in this table. On the chronological basis, 13 per cent of the pupils are accelerated, 65 per cent are at age, and 22 per cent are retardation is greatest in all the schools when measured by educational age, and least in all except one when measured by chronological age. These pupils are therefore least accelerated and most retarded in educational age, and the classification is most nearly normal with respect to chronological age.

The results just described are probably to be expected in a period when grade position is still determined so largely by chronological age. Under the influence of the testing movement, however, situations like this are being rapidly clarified. Investigations have been gradually making it clearer that the classification of pupils is to be judged primarily not by chronological age, nor indeed by mental age, nor intelligence quotient, nor teachers' marks, nor personal traits, nor physical condition, important as each of these is in its proper place. It is to be judged by objective measures of educational attainment, and the most convenient form for these measures is probably educational age.

In Table II one can see the difference in results when educational age is used in place of chronological age in a study of the classification or grade position of the same pupils. Turn, for example, to School C in this table. On the chronological basis, 13 per cent of the pupils are accelerated, 65 per cent are at age, and 22 per cent are retardation.

2 No attempt was made to determine the relative merits of methods in common use, such as the one-year span, two-year span, etc. The problem of the study was to determine the difference in results when educational age and mental age are used instead of chronological age in the calculation. So far as span is concerned, the requirements of the present problem are met by keeping this constant for the different ages.

3 One of the recent experimental studies lending support to this view is A. D. Hollingshead's An Evaluation of the Use of Certain Educational and Mental Measurements for purposes of Classification. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 302, New York (1928).
tarded. By the older standard, this school would be regarded as in a very satisfactory condition. Now examine the placement of these pupils in relation to educational age. Four per cent are accelerated, 29 per cent are at age, and 67 per cent are retarded. This well shows how misleading a judgment of classification based on the traditional age-grade data may be, and suggests the need for a more scientific criterion. The findings suggest, in fact, that the technique of educational surveys may be appreciably improved by the introduction of a new type of table based on the relation between educational age and grade position. The educational ages of the pupils would be derived in years and months from the best educational achievement test now available, namely, the Stanford Achievement Test, and the chronological ages would be obtained in the same form by any reliable method. With these two sets of data, the process of constructing the table is the same as that used in the familiar age-grade investigation, and is illustrated in Table I.

The next problem of the study was to determine to what extent the groups accelerated, normal, and retarded according to one age are identical respectively with the groups accelerated, normal and retarded according to each of the other ages. The aim was to get a precise answer to such questions as the following: If 30 per cent of the pupils in a given school are retarded chronologically and 30 per cent educationally, to what extent are identical pupils involved? The procedure in this part of the study is probably too tedious for most survey purposes, but has value in throwing light on the nature of the indices obtained by the different methods.

In each grade and school the accelerated groups were compared as follows:

1. The chronologically accelerated with the educationally accelerated;
2. The chronologically accelerated with the mentally accelerated;
3. The educationally accelerated with the mentally accelerated.

Similar comparisons were then made.

---

**TABLE III. Percentages of Identity in Accelerated, At-Age, and Retarded Groups of a Sample**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Chronological Age</th>
<th>Educational Age</th>
<th>No. Identical</th>
<th>No. Non-identical</th>
<th>Percent Identity</th>
<th>Per Cent Non-identical</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Both</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Accelerated</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Retarded</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>12.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE IV. Average Percentages of Nonidentity in Chronological-Age and Educational-Age Groups in Four Schools**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>4A</th>
<th>5B</th>
<th>5A</th>
<th>6B</th>
<th>6A</th>
<th>7B</th>
<th>7A</th>
<th>8B</th>
<th>8A</th>
<th>9B</th>
<th>9A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accelerated</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>98.8</td>
<td>91.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>94.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At-Age</td>
<td>86.1</td>
<td>78.8</td>
<td>75.3</td>
<td>73.3</td>
<td>69.6</td>
<td>86.2</td>
<td>65.5</td>
<td>81.4</td>
<td>80.4</td>
<td>81.7</td>
<td>82.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retarded</td>
<td>81.1</td>
<td>93.0</td>
<td>87.8</td>
<td>79.3</td>
<td>92.1</td>
<td>92.1</td>
<td>81.5</td>
<td>94.3</td>
<td>87.4</td>
<td>83.5</td>
<td>93.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE V. Average Percentages of Nonidentity in Chronological-Age and Mental-Age Groups in Four Schools**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>4A</th>
<th>5B</th>
<th>5A</th>
<th>6B</th>
<th>6A</th>
<th>7B</th>
<th>7A</th>
<th>8B</th>
<th>8A</th>
<th>9B</th>
<th>9A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accelerated</td>
<td>90.4</td>
<td>94.2</td>
<td>92.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>91.6</td>
<td>97.2</td>
<td>96.4</td>
<td>96.0</td>
<td>87.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At-Age</td>
<td>80.1</td>
<td>69.4</td>
<td>76.9</td>
<td>85.5</td>
<td>74.4</td>
<td>89.4</td>
<td>78.6</td>
<td>84.5</td>
<td>90.7</td>
<td>83.4</td>
<td>83.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retarded</td>
<td>88.5</td>
<td>95.3</td>
<td>88.9</td>
<td>81.3</td>
<td>91.6</td>
<td>84.4</td>
<td>80.5</td>
<td>84.8</td>
<td>85.8</td>
<td>80.4</td>
<td>91.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE VI. Average Percentages of Nonidentity in Educational-Age and Mental-Age Groups in Four Schools**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>4A</th>
<th>5B</th>
<th>5A</th>
<th>6B</th>
<th>6A</th>
<th>7B</th>
<th>7A</th>
<th>8B</th>
<th>8A</th>
<th>9B</th>
<th>9A</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accelerated</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>94.7</td>
<td>88.5</td>
<td>85.6</td>
<td>73.9</td>
<td>57.0</td>
<td>61.4</td>
<td>48.7</td>
<td>56.5</td>
<td>54.2</td>
<td>61.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At-Age</td>
<td>89.9</td>
<td>81.7</td>
<td>80.8</td>
<td>83.2</td>
<td>61.3</td>
<td>69.6</td>
<td>81.4</td>
<td>82.3</td>
<td>84.5</td>
<td>77.0</td>
<td>70.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retarded</td>
<td>48.6</td>
<td>48.7</td>
<td>78.0</td>
<td>40.7</td>
<td>47.3</td>
<td>55.3</td>
<td>50.7</td>
<td>35.4</td>
<td>30.1</td>
<td>39.8</td>
<td>34.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
among the various normal and among the various retarded groups. In the case of any two compared groups the number of identical and nonidentical pupils was determined. The percentages that appear in the following tables are based on the total number of different individuals found in any two compared groups. For example, if

\[ I = \text{Number of identical pupils} \]
\[ D = \text{Number of nonidentical pupils} \]
\[ I + D = \text{Number of different pupils in both groups;} \]
\[ \frac{I}{I+D} = \text{Percentage of identical pupils,} \]
\[ \frac{D}{I+D} = \text{Percentage of nonidentical pupils.} \]

The percentage, \( \frac{I}{I+D} \), represents the proportion of the whole number of different individuals in two compared groups, who appear in both groups.

Table III will indicate how the data for a single grade was compiled. This table shows the number of pupils in a 7B group who are accelerated, normal, and retarded, first in chronological age, and second in educational age. Then follow data on the identity of personnel in the two groups. It will be observed, for example, in the last row of the table, that 10 pupils are chronologically retarded, and 18 educationally retarded, but that only 3 of the 25 different pupils involved belong in both groups, which gives an identity of 12 per cent.

Tables IV, V, and VI show the average percentages of nonidentity in compared groups for the 1,572 pupils in the four schools. In Table IV the comparison is between chronological age and educational age; in Table V, between chronological age and mental age; and in Table VI, between educational age and mental age. The most significant percentages are found in the last column of each table. The results show that computations of retardation based on chronological age are in extreme disagreement with those based on educational age and on mental age. The percentage of nonidentity is 88 in the one case, and 87 in the other. The disagreement in the results is even greater for the accelerated groups, where the percentages are, respectively, 98 and 94. It is clear, therefore, that readjustment of the classification of these pupils on the basis of the older studies would be in almost complete violation of modern scientific principles, complete in the sense that acceleration or retardation on the chronological principle would advance or detain almost none of the pupils that should be advanced or detained. This does not mean that chronological age is a matter of inconvenience in classification, but that it is a matter of relatively minor consequence. It means also that the older definition of retardation has quite clearly led to an overemphasis on and an exaggeration of the evils of chronological retardation. Our attention needs just now to be centered on educational retardation.

The basal viewpoint of Ayres⁴ was that "it is the mission of the common school to give as large a proportion of the children of the community as possible a complete elementary education." This statement might well be revised to read: It is the mission of the common school to give each child the most profitable training possible during the period of compulsory attendance. With multiple-track plans and homogeneous grouping, with minimal essentials and a policy of enrichment, or with minimal essentials and a policy of acceleration, the schools now seem happily on their way to a solution of the retardation problem. In the opinion of the writers, the administrative devices that will contribute most to its solution are the measurement of retardation on

the basis of educational age rather than chronological age, and a properly differentiated curriculum.

Frederick E. Breed
Bessie J. Lanier

SUNDAY AT COLLEGE

THE Harkness Hoot, the most provocative of college magazines, which invented the term "girder Gothic" for the current gargoyleism of college architecture, has turned its attention to the college Sunday and the week-end exodus from all campuses, great and small. Its suggestions are picturesque—a brass band morning concert (we hope with little tables) in the quadrangle, church services with some ritual and pomp to them, visiting speakers who can lift the undergraduate mind from its week-day rut, orchestral music, and in general enough excitement to induce by Sunday evening a much needed weekly rest. It does not, one admits, sound like a Cambridge or a New Haven Sunday, and has little resemblance to Herbert’s—

Sweet day, so cool, so calm, so bright!
The bridal of the earth and sky.

Yet the picture is not without its attractions, although a brass band in the morning would probably get crockery instead of clapping from the dormitory windows.

The writer of the article in question is gently ironical; even so, he seems to betray some of that dependence of moderns upon noise and rapid movement which psychologists are noting. Can academic dullness be cured by doses of metropolitanism? If the English biographies and studies of Victorianism now appearing are to be trusted, it was certainly not dull in Oxford or Cambridge of the '60s, '70s, and '80s, even on Sundays. Was the reason perhaps the presence of the Victorian don, whose disappearance Mr. Benson and Mr. Wingfield-Stratford and Lord Balfour have all lately deplored?

They were great scholars, some of those dons, and some were not. They were great men, nationally distinguished some of them (Lewis Carroll, Walter Pater, Matthew Arnold, Benjamin Jowett), and some of them were great men but only local celebrities. It would be difficult to fit them with a general description, for they were individual to eccentricity, and Benson in his "As We Were" records almost unbelievable episodes. Yet they had certain traits in common, one of which was a confident assurance in the worth of the intellectual life and the dignity of their profession. They were not to be classified as we classify today—as classicists, chemists, professors of English—but rather as Influences, prejudiced often, pervasive always, sincere, and powerful.

The success of the rusty and often anachronistic educational program of the Victorian period, with its slipshod methods, and blind narrowness, was due, it would seem, almost entirely to these men. They were an educational experience in themselves.

We have such men now, but there is a widespread feeling that, when they are in the universities, they are overburdened by executive work, kept aloof on lecture platforms, or driven into the solitude of research work. It would be more accurate to say that the American desire to educate everybody has made the teacher a slave to his mark book, while the demand for specialization has sharpened the scholar into a keen but exceedingly narrow instrument, which blunts if used for anything but the most specialized operation. Yet the great classicists of the Victorian age dealt in a specialty which could be and often was of a narrowness beside which physics or romance literature seems broad. No, there are other explanations for the dearth of intellectual personalities, one of which may well be that decay of responsibility for life seen steadily, to quote a Victorian don, and seen whole, which began when our col-
leges went mechanistic at the end of the nineteenth century. A further explanation may be a matter of geography. The Victorian don was a housemate of the undergraduate; he was a presence to a family group, if not always accessible. He was not "the physics prof," but a personality, who lived where he could be seen, and talked where he could be heard.

Perhaps the new house plan which Harvard and Yale are inaugurating will give opportunities for the old kind of contact, and the opportunities will breed or seize upon the men that can use them. It may be that President Hutchins of Chicago is proposing more than an educational simplification when he states that the undergraduate shall come to Chicago, not for four years, but for an education, and be granted a degree when he can prove that he is educated. Men of strong personality, self-confident, and able and willing to make their views prevail against philistines and barbarians, have not been attracted to the American college in recent years. Many, fortunately, have been drafted and held there. They are needed, particularly when they are specialists in life as well as scholars in a narrower field. Our prescription for the college Sunday and the college weekday also, would be a liberal dosage of men of the type of the lost Victorian dons.

—Saturday Review of Literature.

INTELLIGENCE TESTS AT HORACE MANN SCHOOL NEW YORK

HORACE MANN School, New York City, has not abandoned the use of intelligence tests, many newspaper reports to the contrary notwithstanding. The section of the principal's annual report dealing with the school's changed policy in this regard was widely misinterpreted in the press. Headlines particularly created the impression that intelligence tests as such had been discredited by the school which had been one of their foremost exponents.

In response to an inquiry from the News, Dr. Rolla G. Reynolds, principal of Horace Mann School, explained that while every child in the school is still given an individual Binet test, the school has discontinued the practice of grouping children on the basis of abstract mental ability as measured by such testing. And though this announcement is considerably less sensational than the press reports, it is of real interest that Horace Mann has definitely retreated from its position among the pioneers in "homogeneous grouping."

"The by-products of the 'advanced,' 'normal,' and 'slow' grouping method seemed to the staff of the school to be evil," says Dr. Reynolds. "Either children develop an inferiority complex, or if they are in the 'advanced' group a type of intellectual snobbery which is harmful. Parents through a mistaken sense of family pride make every effort to have children put into 'advanced' groups without consideration of the real welfare of the child. Even teachers develop jealousies and antagonisms on account of this method of grouping.

"I should like to state strongly that the Horace Mann School does believe in the use of intelligence tests for certain purposes and every child in the Horace Mann School is given such a test; however, every effort is made to interpret the results of these tests sanely and to realize that at best they are subject to error in giving."

Under the present system of grouping, each grade in the school has three sections. Before the personnel of these sections is decided upon, each child is ranked on the basis of three measures. First of these is the intelligence quotient, which is weighted at one in the final computation; second is the judgment of the teacher as to the child's ability to do work in the next grade, which is weighted at three; lastly, the results of
standardized tests in fundamental subjects, given semi-annually, have a weight of one. "The ranking of the child is further modified in special cases by certain psychological and psychiatric information in the principal’s office."

The low ranking children, never more than twenty, are placed in what is known as the "small group," and the rest divided into nearly equal groups and taught in classes of about thirty.

"It is of interest to know," says the principal in his annual report for the year ending June 30, 1930, "that the proportion of high I. Q.'s in the small groups is as great as that in the other two groups. Lack of ability to read, lack of mastery in the fundamental processes of arithmetic, lack of emotional stability, unfortunate home conditions, and many other influences make the small-group children unable to compete in the grade with the others.

The desirability of the smallness of the group is made clear to parents and children, and insofar as seems wise, the child is told of his disabilities. It is explained to him that "he is to have an opportunity to build up his lacks and to overcome his difficulties. In no way is he made to feel that he is ‘dumb’ or different from other children in the school. These small groups are put into the hands of expert teachers who because of the small numbers can give these individual troubles more individual attention.

“The service facilities of the school such as the division of psychology, the division of psychiatry, the remedial division, are all at the disposal of the teacher in her year’s work with the small group. As a result of the first year of this type of grouping, because of the careful analysis of each child in the small group and the focusing of the school’s attention on the difficulties mentioned above, we were able to overcome, in the case of fifty per cent of the children, their difficulties and disabilities.”

The fact that such a system of grouping has proved successful at Horace Mann does not mean necessarily that it is applicable to all schools, Dr. Reynolds is careful to point out. "However," he says, "the fundamental philosophy on which the Horace Mann method of grouping is based, it seems to me, is sound in the education of children. This sort of philosophy does away with the practice of handling groups of children by formulas, and substitutes education based on special attention to individual children. It assumes the validity of the psychology of individual difference and tries in a practical way to take this into consideration in the education of children. It is expensive, but is in my opinion a justifiable expense."

—Private School News.

HIGH SCHOOL AND THE STUDENT NURSE

SHOULD I like this girl to care for me when I am sick?"

If teachers and others who advise girls to go into nursing would use this question as one criterion, they would help greatly in safeguarding health standards in their communities.

They would also keep many young women from spending unhappy years in a profession for which they are unfit, which does not want the low-grade member, and cannot support her.

This is vividly brought out in facts gathered by the Committee on the Grading of Nursing Schools. This Committee is conducting a nation-wide survey of nursing, to study ways and means of providing adequate nursing service at a price within the reach of the average person.

The survey, directed by Dr. May Ayres Burgess, educator and statistician, includes more than 150,000 replies to questionnaires from doctors, nurses, patients, student nurses, and heads of nursing schools. It is the first of its kind in the field.

It shows that the “high school failure”
girl who goes into nursing is often a positive danger to the sick in her care. It also shows that, because patients, physicians, hospitals, and health agencies steer clear of her whenever possible, she is an economic liability, and her own professional life is a failure. Moreover, she lowers standards in a profession in which only the highest standards should prevail, because of its direct responsibility for human life.

How high school educators, even today, sometimes regard the candidate for the school of nursing, may be seen from the following letter, written by an assistant principal of a famous metropolitan high school. The letter is genuine. Only the names have been changed.

"Dear Miss ..., 
Lillie Haynes, of Section 561, has set her heart on being a nurse. Is there any opening for her? What are the requirements? Where can she apply? She is a hopeless failure in her studies, but I think she would do well in nursing."

There is a real danger in regarding nursing schools as a refuge for the dull, or a discipline for the refractory. Student nurses, often before their first year is completed, are already entrusted with life-and-death responsibility in the care of hospital patients. On a typical day studied in 1,338 schools, student nurses gave 64 per cent., or about two-thirds, of the actual bedside care to patients, in the hospitals to which the schools belong. Unless one employs a special nurse when one goes to a hospital, it is very likely one will be in the care of student nurses.

Most student nurses are only eighteen years old at entrance. Unless this immaturity is offset by a sound educational background and a keen sense of responsibility, they may jeopardize human lives.

These students, after graduation, will be responsible for the community's health, as public health nurses, industrial nurses, school nurses, bedside nurses in the homes of patients or in hospitals, and directors of entire hospitals or of hospital nursing services.

The heavy demands of modern medicine have brought into the curriculum of the nursing school such difficult studies as anatomy, physics, chemistry, sociology, and psychology. Without at least a sound high school preparation, the student nurse is likely to find this work too hard. She either leaves, or is asked to resign from the school. She may spend months trying to learn, and the school much time and money trying to teach her a profession she should never have attempted. Aside from formal study, the student nurse must have the intelligence also to correlate what she has learned in the classroom with the actual work she does in the hospital, and to make the right approach to patients, a most important aspect of nursing care.

The better nursing schools now require a four-year high school diploma for entrance, together with evidence that the student stood in the upper half of her class. The high school diploma requirement is rapidly on the increase, through State law, and through the voluntary decision of many school heads. At present, 73 per cent. of 59,612 student nurses are high school graduates. Eight per cent. have also had a year or more of college. More than 16,000, however, still do not meet this essential requirement.

The high school program of the student who contemplates taking up nursing should include science courses, chemistry, physics, biology, bacteriology, sociology, psychology, ethics, and economics. It should also include household science, cookery, nutrition. The general all-round course, with emphasis on cultural and scientific subjects, seems to give the best foundation on which to build a nursing training.

The fine type of high school graduate is eligible for entrance to the better nursing schools; she is equipped to grasp the difficult studies and procedures now included in the nursing course; and she can qualify for the high positions in her profession. There is a decided need for the high quality young woman in executive positions and as nurse teachers.
If the nursing school should accept the girl who has not completed high school, she will find upon graduation that the majority of the better opportunities in nursing are closed to her. Her future in general is apt to be precarious.

From the point of view of both the community, and the individual patient, the intelligent, well-educated nurse is the only one to whom the lives of the sick should be entrusted.

When more than 4,000 physicians were approached, they were emphatic in demanding nurses of good breeding, good background, and fine training. Patients also want their nurses to have intelligence, breeding, and education. While patients are generally satisfied with the nurses they employ, they make such comments as the following: "My criticism is that applicants for training schools should be considered more carefully before being taken into training. Some of them are sadly lacking in education."

A high school diploma, a high class standing, and intelligence are the basic requirements for a worthwhile student nurse. Other important qualifications are good health, a real liking for people, conscientiousness, good breeding, and a professional attitude.

Martha Dreiblatt

A public government without public information or the means of acquiring it is but a prologue to a farce or a tragedy, or perhaps both. Knowledge will forever govern ignorance, and a people who mean to be their own governors must arm themselves with the power which knowledge gives.—James Madison.

No man can reach the front rank if he is not intelligent and if he is not trained with intelligence.—Theodore Roosevelt.

Knowledge is in every country the surest basis of public happiness.
—George Washington.

THE PRESIDENT'S COLUMN

During the early part of January, Hon. Harris H. Hart, who has been the State Superintendent of Public Instruction for more than twelve years, retired from this office to become associated with the Johnson Publishing Company. Anyone connected with the public school system of Virginia during Mr. Hart's incumbency in office must have been impressed with the great progress that the Virginia system of education made under his leadership. The progress of public education in Virginia was outstanding among that of all states in the union and especially in the improvement of the teaching force. Virginia is fortunate, however, in that a young, vigorous, well-trained leader was promptly selected by Governor Pollard in the person of Dr. Sidney B. Hall, a Virginian who, at the time of his appointment, was a member of the faculty of George Peabody College at Nashville. We predict for Dr. Hall the same type of cooperation that the people of Virginia gave to Mr. Hart and believe that his leadership will be of the same constructive type that characterized Mr. Hart's administration. We sincerely trust that every teacher in Virginia will loyally stand behind him in his efforts to improve public education.

Elevated Standards

In line with the above comment regarding the improvement of the teaching force, it might be well to mention the fact that the elementary certificate for teachers in the public schools of Virginia will no longer be issued to new teachers after July 1, 1931. It is true, however, that the entire summer of 1931 may be used for the completion of the elementary certificate, although this certificate may be dated as of July 1st. This statement means that, after July 1st, the minimum training for teachers coming into the public school system of Virginia will
be two years of training on a college level. This, in most cases, will mean two years of professional training as the professional content of all certificates is being constantly increased. There doubtless will be many teachers who will use the coming summer to complete the requirements for the elementary certificate that may have been begun one or two years ago.

**Administration Building**

The alumnae of Harrisonburg will probably be interested to know that the new administration building, which stands at the head of the quadrangle and completes the inner group of buildings planned for the College, will be completed and dedicated on May 15. It is planned by the College to make this a great “home-coming” occasion for its alumnae. Ex-Governor Trinkle, chairman of the State Board of Education, will preside at this meeting and among the speakers on the program the College hopes to have Governor Pollard, former Governor Byrd, and President Alderman, of the University of Virginia. Dr. Alderman will deliver the eulogy on Woodrow Wilson, in memory of whom the building has been named “Wilson Hall.” In the afternoon of this day the regular May Day Exercises will be given on the lawn and in the evening the first concert in the new auditorium will be held. The new auditorium will seat fourteen hundred people and it is anticipated that the auditorium will be filled for these two occasions. **The Virginia Teacher** through this column in March and April, will give further details about this celebration.

**Music Contests**

The State Board of Education has requested the music departments of the State Teachers Colleges to conduct elimination contests in group singing for high school choruses throughout the nearby counties.

The purpose of this movement is to create more interest in music and, through competition, to encourage better singing in the public schools.

In compliance with this request, plans have been made for County contests in Rockingham, Shenandoah, and Augusta, after which a contest for the winning choruses from each county will be held at the Harrisonburg State Teachers College.

In addition to the county contests, plans have been made for an inter-city contest.

Last spring when there were similar contests, sponsored by federated music clubs in Rockingham and Shenandoah counties, the pupils responded with the keenest enthusiasm.

This genuine interest shows conclusively that as soon as it seems practicable to include a well organized course and adequate training in music, the real objective of beautiful singing in the public schools of Virginia will be accomplished.

**Samuel P. Duke**

Upon the subject of education, not presuming to dictate any plan or system respecting it, I can only say that I view it as the most important subject which we as a people can be engaged in. That every man may receive at least a moderate education, and thereby be enabled to read the histories of his own and other countries, by which he may duly appreciate the value of our free institutions, appears to be an object of vital importance, even on this account alone, to say nothing of the advantages and satisfaction to be derived from being able to read the Scriptures and other works, both of a religious and moral nature, for themselves.

For my part, I desire to see the time when education—and by its means morality, sobriety, enterprise, and industry—shall become much more general than at present, and should be gratified to have it in my power to contribute something to the advancement of any measures which might have a tendency to accelerate that happy period.—**Abraham Lincoln**.
EDUCATIONAL COMMENT

ILLINOIS’ NEW PRESIDENT

Doctor Harry Woodburn Chase will be formally installed as President of the University of Illinois on Friday, May 1, 1931.

From June, 1919, Dr. Chase was President of the University of North Carolina. He came to Illinois in July, 1930, following his selection by the Board of Trustees as the successor to Doctor David Kinley, who had served the institution for more than 37 years, the last ten as its president.

Doctor Chase has had a distinguished career in American education. At North Carolina he served as professor of the philosophy of education, as professor of psychology, later as acting dean of the college of liberal arts, chairman of the faculty, and then as president.

He has served as secretary-treasurer, and later as president, of the National Association of State Universities. He is a trustee of the General Education Board of New York City, and of the Rosenwald Fund of Chicago.

Today Doctor Chase heads the third largest educational institution in the United States—the total net resident enrollment for 1930-1931 will exceed 15,000. Its teaching and administrative staff exceeds 1600 and the net worth of the institution, in lands and buildings, as based on the original cost of the buildings, is $25,117,354. The income for the past year was $7,115,864.

A WELL KNOWN PUBLISHER DIES

It is with regret that we announce the death on January 4 of William Edmond Pulsifer, president of the publishing firm of D. C. Heath and Company from 1910 to 1927. An alumnus of Bates College, Mr. Pulsifer served in various New England educational institutions as teacher from 1874 to 1883, when he became New England representative of Ginn and Heath. This firm later became Ginn and Company. In 1889 Mr. Pulsifer joined the then newly formed firm of D. C. Heath and Company, with which he was connected until the time of his death.

FIFTH PRIZE EXAMINATION FOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS ANNOUNCED

Announcement is made of the Fifth National Competitive Examination on the League of Nations open to high school students throughout the United States, to be held under the auspices of the Educational Committee of the League of Nations Association, 6 East 39th St., New York. The examination is to be held March 20, 1931. The first national prize will again be a trip to Europe, featuring a stay at Geneva, Switzerland. Second and third prizes will be $100 and $50 respectively, and there will also be local and state prizes.

The prize-winners of the last four examination contests have come from as widely separated states as Oregon, Mississippi, Arkansas, and New York. The first three prize-winners were boys—David G. Wilson, of Portland, Oregon; Henry Bobo of Clarksdale, Mississippi; and Winfred Polk, of Corning, Arkansas; last year for the first time a girl, Esther Lawrence, of Buf-
falo, New York, won the coveted prize trip. Last year over one-sixth of the high schools in the United States participated in this examination, representing every state in the Union.

The Committee on Award for the Fifth National High School Examination is as follows: Miss Helen Clarkson Miller, Headmistress of The Spence School, New York, Chairman; Charles C. Bauer, Vice-Chairman of Advisory Council, League of Nations Association; Joseph P. Chamberlain, Professor of International Law, Columbia University; Everett Colby, New York attorney; Clyde Eagleton, Professor of Government, New York University; Miss Louise Laidlaw of New York, author of “Wishing on a Comet”; John L. Tildsley, District Superintendent of Schools in New York City.

The National Advisory Committee on this examination, of which Stephen P. Duggan, Director of the Institute of International Education, is chairman, is composed largely of college presidents or other faculty members. The Virginia representative on the Committee is Miss Meta Glass, President of Sweet Briar College.

VIRGINIA LATIN TOURNAMENT

On April 25, 1931, will be held the third Latin Tournament, which is sponsored by the Virginia Classical Association. One tournament was held in May, 1929, and the other in April, 1930. These have been most successful and have aroused a great deal of interest among the Latin teachers and pupils of Virginia.

The examinations are to take not over three hours, and will begin at 10 a. m. The centers are: College of William and Mary, State Teachers College at Harrisonburg, State Teachers College at Farmville, State Teachers College at Fredericksburg, Virginia Polytechnic Institute at Blacksburg, Emory and Henry College at Emory, Hampden-Sydney College at Hampden-Sydney, Randolph-Macon College at Ashland, and the University of Virginia.

For each school entering the tournament, except junior high schools, a fee of $2.00 will be charged. This will entitle a school to enter as many as four contestants, one from each year. Since a junior high school can enter pupils only in the first year class, its fee will be $1.00.

Class 1. First Year:
A. Pupils who are completing their first year of Latin in a senior high school.
B. Pupils who are completing the Latin given in a junior high school.

Class 2. Second Year: Pupils who are completing either the third or fourth semester of Latin study.

Class 3. Third Year: Pupils who are completing either the fifth or sixth semester of Latin study.

Class 4. Fourth Year: Pupils who are completing either the seventh or eighth semester of Latin study.

The following schools are eligible: public, private, and parochial high schools and college preparatory departments.

General content of examinations:

(a) Translation of prepared and sight passages.
(b) Questions to test comprehension.
(c) Questions on forms and syntax.
(d) Prose composition.
(e) Derivative tests.
(f) Historical and cultural background.

Specific Requirements. First Year: Syntax, forms and vocabulary as given in Place, “Beginning Latin,” through page 212, or the equivalent in any standard first year book. The subjunctive mood, participles, gerund, and gerundive and other forms not found within the above stated limits will be omitted. Sight translation of easy stories, using the vocabulary found in the prescribed text, and comprehension
questions on such stories. Translation of simple sentences from English into Latin. Proper word order should be stressed. Derivative tests based on the prescribed vocabulary and questions on the cultural and historical background appropriate to the beginning year.

Second Year: Prescribed reading: Caesar, De Bello Gallico, Book II, complete. Translation and comprehension questions. Forms and syntax as prescribed in the General Report of the Classical Investigation, Part One, for the first three semesters of Latin study. Prose composition and sight reading using the above stated forms and syntax and the vocabulary given in Place, "Beginning Latin," complete and used by Caesar in Book II. Derivatives. Cultural and historical background as given in the introduction to Walker’s edition of Caesar, including such topics as the life and influence of Caesar, the social and political condition of Rome in Caesar’s time, and Roman army organization and methods of warfare.

Third Year: Prescribed reading: Cicero, In Catilinam III, and Pro Archia Poeta. Translation and comprehension questions. Forms and syntax as found in the prescribed reading. Prose composition as given in Bennett’s Composition, Part I. Sight reading using the Ciceronian vocabulary and syntax. Cultural and historical background as given in the introduction and notes to D’Ooge’s “Select Orations of Cicero.”

Fourth Year: Prescribed reading: Vergil’s Æneid, Books I, II lines 1-267, and VI lines 791-901. Translation and comprehension questions. Sight translation from Æneid, Books VII-XII. Scansion. Vergilian syntax. Cultural and historical background including mythology, life and times of Vergil, literary qualities of the Æneid, the story of the entire Æneid, the influence of Vergil on later ages (cf. introduction and notes to Knapp’s Vergil).

Prose composition will be original in each year. The prose and sight reading set for the various years will be based upon constructions and vocabulary found within the limits of the prescribed text.

A plaque is awarded to the school represented by the winner in each year (the winner in each division of the first year). These plaques remain in the possession of the respective schools for one year. The names of the winning schools are engraved on these plaques. An individual prize is presented to each winner and a certificate of honorable mention is given to each contestant making a grade of 90 or above in the examination.

Time limit for registration: By March 31 each school desiring to enter the tournament must send the registration fee to the treasurer of the Association, together with a statement of the number of contestants the school desires to enter and the classes which they will represent. The name of the tournament center at which the contestants intend to present themselves should also be given.

Any information in regard to the tournament desired in addition to that given above may be secured from the officers of the Association, Mrs. P. W. Hiden, Newport News, Va., and Mrs. Ann Stiff, Maury High School, Norfolk, Va., or from Professor A. P. Wagener, College of William and Mary, Williamsburg, Va.

COST OF SCHOOL BUS SERVICE

Gradual displacement of the small, usually inadequate rural school by the “consolidated” school has brought to school boards throughout the United States another problem—that of providing and paying for child transportation.

Data which is expected to be of aid in solving this problem is disclosed in a new Office of Education bulletin on “Factors Affecting the Cost of School Transportation in California,” prepared by Frank O.
Evans, Director of Administrative Research, Los Angeles Public Schools.

By comparison with other states, California transports its school children longer distances. Approximately 26 per cent. of the high-school pupils there live more than ten miles from their school. The average student pays $41.35 per year bus fare to and from school, while the cost for the same privilege to the average elementary school pupil is $28.86 per year. A school bus in the Pacific Coast State makes a daily trip of 37.7 miles on the average, and carries an average load of 30.6 pupils. The expenditure for "school transportation" has come to occupy third place in the budget of union schools in the state, and amounts to 11.5 per cent. of the total current expense.

"The present large expenditures," concludes Dr. Evans, "seem to be justified both as an economy and as a means of enlarging the educational opportunities of more than 30,000 children in the state."

William John Cooper, United States Commissioner of Education, commenting on the subject of school child transportation, says, "In order to equalize the opportunities for children some effort has been made to increase the size and consequently the wealth of the unit for school administration, and to establish so-called "consolidated" schools, to which children are transported. The transportation business carried on by some school boards involves an expense element of such magnitude that every effort consistent with the safety of pupils must be made to reduce its cost."

GEOGRAPHIC MAGAZINES AND BULLETINS

Rural schools will find of special interest two types of material which may be obtained at nominal cost from the School Service Department of the National Geographic Society.

As a contribution to the enlivened teaching of geography in rural schools The Society recently announced it will send packets of ten different copies of the National Geographic Magazine, to rural schools only, upon payment of 50 cents to defray cost of packing and carriage charges.

The National Geographic Magazine is edited from the standpoint of permanent value of its contents. Hence ten copies of The Geographic, containing some 35 authoritative and interesting articles on world lands, peoples and explorations, and more than 1,000 illustrations, many of them in color, form the nucleus of a working geography library.

The Society requires that teachers sign a blank stating The Geographies are for school use, so that back copies at this price may not fall into the hands of commercial dealers, and these blanks may be obtained by addressing the Society's headquarters, at Washington, D. C.

The Society also publishes weekly illustrated Geographic News Bulletins, five bulletins to a weekly set, which are issued for 30 week of the school year. These Bulletins are prepared from the standpoint of giving the geographic, historic, and scientific background of news events, and have from six to ten illustrations each week. Hence they are widely used in current events classes as well as in geography, history, and social science studies.

They may be had, by teachers only, upon application to the National Geographic Society's headquarters, Washington, D. C., and a remittance of 25 cents to cover the cost of handling and mailing the 30 issues should accompany the request.

"Education is essentially active. The educated person develops his character through grappling with actual problems."

—CLYDE R. MILLER.

"A nation that has had a Comenius need never fear a Mussolini."

—WILLIAM C. BAGLEY.
THE VIRGINIA TEACHER

READING TABLE

READINGS IN EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY


The beginner in psychology, especially if he be at junior college level, needs the stabilizing effects of a textbook. Yet he must have the breadth of view which comes only from contact with many writers. This book of readings in educational psychology is designed to meet both needs.

The book is noteworthy in that its own organization tends to facilitate learning. It is built up on a well integrated outline, the relation between the chapters being not only logical but also psychological; each chapter is composed of a series of sections chosen from the best current literature and so carefully fitted together that the student gets the feel of a continuous narrative; the introduction to each chapter and the fore exercises for each section train the student in methods of study; the further learning exercises at the close of each chapter not only force the student to organize the content around a series of important principles, they also guide him in direct application of these principles to classroom situations.

For the class that can profit by still wider readings, there are carefully chosen bibliographies for each chapter and a general list at the close of the book.

Katherine M. Anthony


A group of delightful stories for children in the primary grades. Since they do not carry any indication of grade, nor contain any preface and word list, they are especially valuable as gifts and also lend themselves to use on library tables and in special classes.


This handwriting scale is especially devised for those who wish to evaluate the handwriting of any pupil or group of pupils.

Some of the outstanding characteristics of it are:

1. The samples used in the scale are actual samples of child writing.
2. The material is interesting and meaningful to the child.
3. Practically all of the alphabet is used in each of the selections.
4. Full and carefully worked out directions are given for administering scoring and interpreting each paper.

The record blank is convenient for filing.

M. L. S.


The authors have given first and second grade teachers a course of study in arithmetic which will not only fit every situation, but which is also in accord with progressive trends in education. The text is accompanied by individual number cards which cover the basic number combinations with whole numbers, and which may be used with any class method.

Seldom does one find such complete material for beginners’ arithmetic.

M. L. S.


Phonics, word building, or whatever term we may use to designate independence in word getting, has a definite place in the teaching of reading in the elementary grades. Many teachers dislike the teaching of the subject because there is so little tangible material for them to use.

The words used in these books are taken from the International Kindergarten lesson list of the spoken vocabulary of children before entering first grade. They are presented so that the child may have a systematic way of attacking unknown words, thereby giving him independence in reading. They are presented as whole words, undivided and in a contextual manner.

M. L. S.


The characters, Johnny and Jenny Rabbit, are well known to primary teachers. In this edition Johnny and Jenny go out into the wide world. They visit the policeman, the ice man, and the farmer; they go to the post office, and they have the thrill of helping to put out a real fire. All of the stories relate to social experiences and should be especially interesting to first grade children.

M. L. S.

BOOKS RECEIVED


NEWS OF THE COLLEGE

Announcement from the Registrar's office showed the following girls to be on the honor roll for the fall quarter: Seniors, Delphine Hurst, Lillie Frances Blankenbaker, Rebecca Beverage, Mae Brown, Jane Campbell, Shirley Miller, Evelyn Click, and Jeanette Gore; Juniors, Ruth Elizabeth Miller, Lola Davis, Julia Duke, Catherine Markham, Edna Motley, and Harriet Ullrich; Sophomores, Sidney Aldhizer, Mary Virginia Morgan, Lois Drewry, Vesta Landes and Dorothy Martin; Freshmen, Margaret Eure, Gladys Farrar, Ruth Watt, Mary Cloe, Doris Lucille Hanger, Mary Louise Lawson, Hilda Hisey, Elizabeth Kerr, Sarah Lemmon, and Elizabeth Myers.

Sunday afternoon teas given to the students in the Music room and sponsored by the various clubs and societies, have done much, this year, to relieve the feeling of home-sickness and unrest which has hitherto characterized this time. Programs of musical and literary nature are given during the tea and the delightful atmosphere of informality which is present make these cheerful and enjoyable occasions.

Misses Juna Reynolds, Annette Brigham, Lena Pexington, and Mary Robards have come to H. T. C. to supervise student teaching work in the training schools. These teachers have been sent from the normal school education department of Teachers College, Columbia University, for practical experience in supervisory work through an arrangement with this college.

Varsity basketball training began with twenty-two girls on the squad. They are Lena Bones, Kitty Bowen, Marie Burnette, Marian Cicerale, Kathryn Clarke, Nell Coyner, Lucy Coyner, Beatrice Dameron, Julia Duke, Bernice English, Mary Farinholt, Mary Haga, Jo Hedinger, Vivian Hobbs, Jac Johnston, Sue Leith, Frances
Commemoration of the birthday of Robert E. Lee marked the chapel program for January 19, which was sponsored by the Lee Literary Society. Rev. E. B. Jackson spoke on aspects of Lee's character which place him among the world's greatest men, concluding his speech by saying, “It is the greatness of his goodness which is to be remembered.”

In an interview published in the Breese recently, Mr. Joe Neilson, contractor for the new administration building, Woodrow Wilson Hall, told of the many desirable features which the new stage and auditorium will possess. “With a switchboard apparatus costing $5,000 the stage in the new building will be as flexible as any in the country. There will be unusually large and comfortable seats, excellent acoustic properties, perhaps sound reproducing equipment, velour valance, drop curtains, draperies, as well as dressing rooms underneath the stage,” he said.

Dr. Sidney B. Hall, newly appointed state superintendent of public instruction, told something of his philosophy of education to a divisional meeting of county superintendents and high school principals held here January 30. Mr. D. W. Peters, supervisor of secondary education, presided over the meeting and led the discussions which took up many phases of public school administration and teaching.

The Stratford Dramatic Club this quarter adopted a new form of public initiation. Instead of “baa-ing” the new members made a quiet appearance, wearing small masks. The new members of Stratford are Dorothy Martin, Madeline Newbill, Catherine Markham, Linda Sanders, Margaret Moore, Catherine Bard, Helen Knight, and Mary Cloe.

Other campus organizations have recently initiated new members as follows:

- *Lanier Literary Society*: Evelyn Sykes, Anne Salmond, Louise Thweatt, Jean Gills, Virginia Eubank, Louise Neal, Mary Cloe, Margaret Payne, and Amy Moore.
- *Page Literary Society*: Sally Face, Louise Henderson, Elizabeth Warren, Virginia Ruby, Margaret Campbell, Elizabeth Moore, Margaret Eure, Gladys Farrar, Gertrude Blake, Louise Hobson.
- *Art Club*: Louise Mapp, Sylvia Grimm, Edith Andes, Dorothy Crowell, Katye Wray Brown, and Lola Davis.
- *Glee Club*: Bessie Grinnan, Mary Lawson, and Virginia Harlin.

Five new members successfully passed the tests for Scribblers and were initiated on January 30; they are Martha Ellison, Janet Lowrie, Vesta Landes, Sadie Finkelstein, and Dorothy Martin.

Lena Bones and Virginia Harlin passed the entrance tests for membership in the Aeolian Club in January.

A new school song written by Garnet Hamrick and set to an old Venetian melody by Miss Eunice Kettering, of the music department, was presented at a chapel program given January 23 by the Glee Club.

Shirley Miller and Dorothy Cornell, assisted by Nellie Cowan, gave a piano recital January 30, which was followed by a reception by the Aeolian Club.

Class basketball, which has aroused so
much interest on campus this season, came to an end January 23 with another double header, with these results: Seniors, 27; Freshmen, 25; Sophomores, 13; Juniors, 47.

The department of social sciences has sponsored throughout the school year a series of films exhibited at the college, which are based on historical incidents and people. Among these are "Daniel Boone," "Vincennes," "The Frontier Woman," and "Alexander Hamilton."

Movies which have recently been shown on campus under the sponsorship of organizations include "Sarah and Son," "The Big Pond," and "The Beloved Rogue."

Professor George W. Chappelear spoke in chapel during the week of January 12 to 17 on the subject of heredity, taking it up in the many phases in which it affects personalities, and showing through historic examples how it works.

WITHOUT AN EQUAL
The teacher was trying to impress upon her pupils’ minds the distinction accorded Francis Scott Key.

"Why is he so famous?" asked the teacher.

"I guess because he knew all four verses of the Star Spangled Banner," was the reply.

CAN’T FOOL HER!
Guide—These ruins are 2,000 years old.
Cynical Young Teacher on First Tour to Europe—Go on. It’s only 1930 now.

A PRACTICAL PLAN
"Now, Robert," said a teacher, dilating on the virtue of politeness, "if you were seated in a car, every seat of which was occupied, and a lady entered, what would you do?" "Pretend I was asleep," was the unhesitating reply.

ALUMNÆ NEWS

PRIZE LESSON PLAN ON SAFETY
Mrs. Valeria Dunavan Jones, graduate of the State Teachers College at Harrisonburg and former Page County teacher and former member of the Williamsport High School but now a teacher in Hagerstown, Maryland, has received a signal award, according to the following clipping from a Hagerstown newspaper:

"For her interest in studying a plan whereby school children may protect themselves to the best advantage while on the streets or highways, Mrs. Valeria Dunavan Jones, East Antietam street, this city, former teacher at Williamsport, has been awarded first State honors for a paper on safety sent to the Highway Educational Board, Washington, D. C.

"Not only has Mrs. Jones received a certificate of honor, but she will also get a trip to the national capital with all expenses paid. The board has notified her that the lesson plan she sent them has been entered in the national contest in competition with the best papers from all States in the Union. There are three prizes offered in the national contest.

"The ninth annual safety campaign which Mrs. Jones entered last spring awarded the prize for the best lesson plan teaching the essentials of street and highway safety.

"Mrs. Jones is in receipt of letters of congratulation from the members of the Highway Board, co-workers and her many friends, interested in the safety of school children."

PERSONALS
Jessie Harouff teaches third, fourth, and fifth grades at Burnsville, Bath County.
The Port Norfolk School has the following H. T. C. alumnae on the faculty: Mary Alice Woodward, Ruth H. Lewis, and Maude Cuthriell.
Elizabeth Thomas, sister to "Jitney" Thomas, teaches a special class in the Sixth Ave. School, Portsmouth. Other alumnae teaching in the same school are Lucille Duling, Elizabeth Joyner, Lillian Barham, and Sophia Simpson.

In the various other schools of Portsmouth we find the following alumnae teaching in the grades: Rowena Lacy, 6A; Dorothy Frey, 5B; Mary Saunders Tabb, 3B; Mary E. Sturtevant, 4A; Kathryn Barham, 6A; Agnes Spence, 3A; Gladys Vincent, 5A; Margaret Leavitt, 3B-4A-4B.

Ruth Rodes teaches chemistry in the Woodrow Wilson High School, Portsmouth; Carrie Spradlin, history; and Frances Tabb, domestic science in the same school. Helen Acton is supervisor of domestic science and art in all the schools of Portsmouth.

Ruth Paul is doing splendid work as teacher of science in Thomas Jefferson High School, Richmond.

Virginia Warren Gaines and Mrs. Audrey Girard Harvie teach English in the Binford Junior High School, Richmond. Mary E. Hawkins teaches math in the same school.

Susie Hawkins teaches social science in the East End Junior High School, Richmond.

The following former students teach in the Northside Junior High School, Richmond: Kate M. Dunivin, Ruby Norford, and Mozelle K. Powell. Virginia Thornton teaches English in the same school.

The Richmond Normal School has on its faculty the following H. T. C. alumnae: Virginia Drew, Gladys Lee, Marion Nesbitt, and Marie Meisel. These girls are reported as doing fine work as supervisors.

A letter was received recently from Lila Deisher, who teaches at Clifton Forge. Other alumnae there are Katie Wilson, Eila Watts, Mary Brown Allgood, and Mrs. Willie Wilkerson.

Superintendent E. C. Glass, of Lynchburg, writes words of highest praise concerning the work of our alumnae in the Lynchburg schools. Our graduates teaching there are: Harriett E. Kelly, Bessie Dillard, Helen Burroughs, Elizabeth Bailey Varn, Mary L. Maiden, Marguerite Shenk, Mary Jackson, Virginia Jackson, Charlotte Lawson, and Mrs. Evelyn Coffman Williams.

Sue Kelly teaches domestic science in the Newport News High School. Lois Evans and Anne Parker also teach there. Other alumnae teaching in the Newport News city schools are: Pauline Miley, Pearl Mitchell, Elizabeth Buchanan, Anne Christiansen, Dorothy Smither, Ruth Cary, Virginia Seegar, Thelma Woodcock, Ruth Fitchett, Emily Wiley, Mildred Berryman, May B. Kemp, and Matilda Rollins.

Charlotte Wilson, president of the Hampton Alumnae Chapter, teaches in the Hampton High School. Kathryn Pace teaches in the same school. Virginia Curtis, Bessie Bertschey, Margaret Johnson, Marion Kelly, Louise Bloxom, Emily Hogge, Angie Hatcher, Ruby Dixon, Lois Ellis, Verna Vaughn, Elizabeth Peake, and Charlotte Horton teach in Elizabeth County and the City of Hampton.

OUR CONTRIBUTORS

LENORA E. JOHNSON is director of student teaching in the State Normal School at Frostburg, Maryland. Miss Johnson was assistant to the director of the training school at Harrisonburg during the session of 1929-30.

FREDERICK S. BREED is professor of education in the University of Chicago.

BESSIE J. LANIER is associate professor of education in the State Teachers College at Harrisonburg.

MARTHA DREIBLATT is a member of the Committee on the Grading of Nursing Schools, with headquarters at 370 Seventh Avenue, New York City.

SAMUEL P. DUKE is president of the State Teachers College at Harrisonburg. "The President's Column" will be a regular feature in the magazine hereafter.
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