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

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GENERAL J. A. LEJEUNE on
George Washington
His Childhood and Youth

The Research Racket
by STRINGFELLOW BARR

Supply and Demand of School Librarians in the South
—Helen M. Harris; Case Studies of Individual Children—Katherine M. Anthony; Biological Technique in the High School—M. Dorisse Howe;
Book Reviews

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ON THE eleventh day of February, 1732 (old style), or the 22nd day of February (new style), George Washington was born. Until his death, he considered February 11th as his birth-day, even after the calendar was changed from the old to the new style. Officially and legally, however, February 22nd has long since been established as the birthday of the man who liberated and founded the nation which in the space of less than 150 years has become the richest and most powerful nation in the world.

This achievement alone would stamp him as a very great man, but he has accomplished much more than this, by reason of the profound influence he has exerted on all Americans during his life and since his death by his unselfish patriotism, his rugged integrity, his dauntless courage, his unbending will, and his stainless character.

Unfortunately, there is but little extant concerning the events of George Washington, the boy. In this respect, he is like all other boys not born as princes in palaces, and no historians were at hand to record his wise sayings or his boyish pranks. It is true that after his death one Parson Weems, an ignorant itinerant preacher who falsely claimed to have been the minister of Mount Vernon Parish, pretended to have collected from certain persons unknown and unnamed a number of such incidents. These he published in book form with an account of Washington's official acts in later life, and peddled the book among the western pioneers. In this way, he undertook to supply the widespread demand for stories of Washington's early life by exercising his powers of exaggeration and imagination. Historians tell us that all his stories of Washington's childhood are spurious, and that the famous story of George's little hatchet and the cherry tree, for instance, is without foundation in fact.

Personally, I am inclined to believe that it has a basis of fact, and that perhaps George did chop down the cherry tree and did tell the truth when charged by his father with commission of the act. I have known other boys to commit similar acts of vandalism and to confess when questioned by their stern parents. I never did know a boy, though, who answered in the stilted manner ascribed to George by Parson Weems, and I don't believe George was guilty of such priggishness, either. But let us take up the thread of our narrative in a more orderly fashion by returning to the birth of the infant and by briefly referring to his paternal and maternal ancestors.

George was born at Bridges Creek, Westmoreland County, Virginia, on his father's farm, which afterwards was given the name of Wakefield. The house was a frame building with four fair-sized rooms on the first floor and with a large attic on the second floor which was lighted by dormer windows in the hip roof above. The house was flanked by two large brick chimneys in accordance with the custom of the period.

George's father, Augustine Washington, was the grandson of Colonel John Washington who, together with his brother, Lawrence, emigrated from England to Virginia about 1656. They belonged to the Washington family of Sulgrave Manor, which for several centuries had supplied many names of some distinction in the mother country. They were educated, courageous, country gentlemen, who served their communities and their kings with loyalty and fidelity. Several of them were
notable in their espousal of the cause of King Charles First in the civil war between the Cavaliers and the Round Heads, which ended in the beheading of the king. It is commonly believed that the emigration of John and Lawrence to the New World was due to their dissatisfaction with the rule of the Regicides, as the adherents of Cromwell were called by the Royalists.

The records now extant indicate that George's paternal ancestors in both the old and the new world were worthy progenitors of their famous descendant. Augustine Washington was twice married, his second wife, Mary Ball, being the mother of George, who was her eldest child.

Mary Ball was the daughter of Colonel Joseph Ball, of "Epping Forest," in Lancaster County, Virginia. His father, William Ball, emigrated from England in 1650 and settled at the mouth of the Corotoman River, a tributary of the Rappahannock. The Balls were people of influence and standing in the colony, as is indicated by the fact that Colonel Ball was a vestryman of White Chapel, and therefore a magistrate, and that he constructed a family pew in the chapel by special authority of Governor Spotswood and was made a colonel by the same governor.

Little is known of Mary Ball's early life, and a fragment of an unsigned letter found in a deserted mansion on York River which refers to her is therefore deemed worthy of quotation.

It is as follows: "Williamsburg, ye 7th of October, 1722. Dear Sukey, Madam Ball of Lancaster and her sweet Molly have gone Hom. Mama thinks Molly the comeliest maiden she knows. She is about 16 yrs. old, is taller than me, is very sensible, Modest, and Loving. Her hair is like unto flax. Her eyes are the Color of yours and her Cheeks are like May blossoms. I wish you could see her."

Senator Lodge, in his Life of Washington refers to her in the following terms: "She was of gentle birth and possessed a vigorous character and a good deal of business capacity. The advantages of education were given in but slight measure to the Virginian ladies of her time, and Mrs. Washington offered no exception to the general rule. Her reading was confined to a small number of volumes chiefly of a devotional character. She evidently knew no language but her own, and her spelling was extremely bad, even in that age of uncertain orthography. Certain qualities, however, are clear to us. Even now, through all the dimness, we can see that Mary Washington was gifted with strong sense, and had the power of conducting business providently and exactly. She was an imperious woman, of strong will, ruling her kingdom alone. Above all, she was very dignified, very silent, and very sober-minded. That she was affectionate and loving can not be doubted, for she retained to the last a profound hold on the reverential devotion of her son, and yet as he rose steadily to the pinnacle of human greatness, she could only say that 'George had been a good boy and she was sure that he would do his duty.' Not a brilliant woman, evidently, not one suited to shine in courts, conduct intrigues, or adorn literature, yet able to transmit moral qualities to her oldest son which, mingled with those of the Washingtons, were of infinite value in the foundation of a great republic."

Lafayette's report of his interview with her to his friends at Mount Vernon was: "I have seen the only Roman matron living at this day."

Three years after George's birth, the family home was burned and the family moved to another estate in what is now Stafford County. The second house was similar to the first and stood on rising ground looking across a meadow to the Rappahannock, and beyond the river to Fredericksburg, which was nearly opposite. Here in 1743, Augustine Washington died, and here, too, the boyhood of George was passed.
When old enough to take up the study of the three R's, George was placed under the tutelage of Mr. Hobby, the parish sexton. He soon exhausted his teacher's store of knowledge, and a short while after his father's death he was sent back to Bridges Creek, where he lived with his half brother, Augustine, and attended a school kept by a Mr. Williams. There he obtained what would now be called a common school education with the emphasis placed on mathematics instead of on more cultural subjects. He then returned to his mother's home and attended the school of Mr. Marve, a Huguenot gentleman who had settled in Fredericksburg, and from him he received lessons in deportment in addition to more erudite subjects.

When about fourteen, he returned to Mr. Williams's school and spent two more years under his tutelage in the study of surveying, in which he became very proficient. This was the extent of his schooling, although in after life he read good books whenever his unending tasks permitted him to have the opportunity.

It is known that he was a conscientious student at school, that he matured rapidly, and that he was tall and vigorous physically. He could outrun and outride any of his companions and probably was superior to any of them in fisticuffs. Naturally, therefore, he was a leader among his school fellows. We also know that he was honest and true, a lad of unusual promise, and was liked and trusted by such men as his eldest brother, Lawrence, and Lord Fairfax.

George's earliest ambition was to follow the sea as a profession, but he was dissuaded from doing so by his mother, and instead of visiting strange places by ship and perhaps becoming an officer of the British navy, he turned his eyes westward and undertook to make a survey of the enormous estates of Lord Fairfax.

His acquaintance with Lord Fairfax came about through his visits to his oldest brother, Lawrence, at Mount Vernon, which was near Belvoir, the seat of the Fairfax family in America. Lawrence had served as an officer of one of the Colonial regiments which had taken part in the unsuccessful expedition against Cartagena on the Spanish Main. On his return home, he named his estate on Hunting Creek and the Potomac River "Mount Vernon" in honor of the British admiral who had commanded the naval and military forces.

Lawrence took great interest in George's education by employing Mr. Van Bran as his fencing master and by prescribing a course of study in the technique of arms and other military subjects.

Lawrence Washington had married the daughter of William Fairfax, the agent of the Fairfax estate, and George became a frequent visitor at Belvoir, where he came to know Lord Fairfax, the head of that distinguished family.

At Mount Vernon and at Belvoir George had many opportunities for association with the leading families of Virginia and likewise appears to have endured many heartaches and many disappointments in his youthful love affairs with the charming maidens whom he met there and at Fredericksburg. Among his papers which have come down to posterity are a number of sonnets to fair ladies, which, although valuable historically, do not possess literary merit.

He and Lord Fairfax became fast friends, and from that accomplished gentlemen, familiar with courts and camps, George gained a knowledge of men and manners which no school can give. They hunted and rode together, and George's expert horsemanship, his good sportsmanship, and his genial disposition made him an agreeable companion to the nobleman of sixty.

George impressed greatly every one with whom he was associated. He unfailingly exhibited a high and unwavering courage, hard common sense, and, above all, unusual strength of will and force of character.
It is not surprising, therefore, that Lord Fairfax should have entrusted to him the important mission of surveying and mapping the vast Fairfax estates.

This was the beginning of George Washington's great career, and fortunate indeed was it for the American colonies that this boy of sixteen should have been given this opportunity to fit himself for the military service of his native land and to widen his vision of the future possibilities of the growth of the colonies to the westward. Thus even in early youth, he not only became a potential empire-builder, but also by his battling with nature in its wildest form, by overcoming the obstacles which confronted him, by practicing painstaking efforts to achieve accuracy, and by constant exposure to the elements, hardship, and danger, he so toughened his physical fiber, so developed the quality of his mind, and so strengthened his naturally strong will that he became splendidly equipped to take up the rôle of leadership, first in the minor field of the French-Indian War, and afterwards in the vastly greater field of the American Revolution.

That his three years' work as a surveyor was well done is demonstrated by the facts that his surveys were regarded as authoritative by his contemporaries, and that their accuracy stands unquestioned to this day.

As I understand it, my task ends here with the entry of the youth at the age of nineteen into the arena where his life's battles were fought; and I will therefore conclude my remarks with an expression of my belief that he was neither a dull nor priggish youth, but was a manly, upstanding boy and young man, full of the joy of living and very human; and that beneath his agreeable and pleasing manner there slumbered a fierce temper and fiery passions which even in youth he held under stern control by the exercise of his unyielding will.

Truly the youth was father to the man, and even now, it is not difficult to understand that he was, in reality, throughout his conspicuous career, "First in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen."

John A. Lejeune

THE RESEARCH RACKET

A GREAT many teachers, both in school and college, develop a sort of inferiority complex because they are not personally engaged in what passes under the name of "research." It may be worth while for those of us who still believe that teaching is an honorable and self-respecting profession to demand a definition of the overused term "research." It it is meant that only those whose minds constantly react to a given mass of material can hope to teach it effectively, we can only reply that this is a truism; that no person of active brain who teaches can refrain from constantly examining and reflecting upon his subject matter; but if it is insinuated that he ought also to publish monographs on the subject, we ought to answer that the publishing of monographs need not necessarily invigorate teaching. There has grown up in our American colleges, particularly under the influence of wealthy research foundations, what can only be called a "research racket," designed to stimulate the accumulation and publication of facts regardless of the researcher's capacity to interpret them. More and more the various disciplines taught in our educational system come under this influence. In my own discipline, history, such shibboleths as "scientific method" are bandied about without the least clear conception of what they actually mean—for example, to a scientist. We teachers should decline to be beaten over the head with empty terminology. If, for example, "scientific method" in historical research means a clear understanding of one's material and intelligence and truth in working upon them, we ought to answer that we already knew those traits were
necessary to the historian long before “sci-
entific method” began to get too much pub-
licity. The best weapon the teacher has
against the smoke screen of half compre-
hended research terminologies is a good
laugh and the determination to go on using
his brain—if God gave him one—as effect-
vively as possible in guiding the newcomer
into unfamiliar territory.

Stringfellow Barr

BIOLOGICAL TECHNIQUE IN
THE HIGH SCHOOL

I

N TEACHING biology in the high
school one of the first considera-
tions of a good teacher should be not only
to “put across her subject matter,” but also
to create in her laboratory periods enthusi-
asim and willingness among the pupils to
learn, see, and know things. Each biology
teacher should be trained in certain tech-
iques to be an effective teacher. When a
student from college goes into a small high
school where there is very little equipment,
she will find it necessary to improvise and
substitute equipment. A few of the less
technical methods which may be used in the
high school laboratory are given below.

In the study of plants the “pocket gar-
den” is a simple but effective teaching de-
vice. It provides ready material for the
study of seedlings, roots, and root hairs. It
may be prepared as follows: Clean thor-
oughly two pieces of glass about 4x4 inches.
Cut blotting paper to fit the glass plates.
Place the blotting paper on one of the glass
plates and place a few radish seeds on the
blotting paper near one end. Cover with
the second piece of glass and bind together
with rubber bands protected from the sharp
edges of the glass by strips of paper.
Place the “garden” in a vertical position in
a glass of water, taking care that the water
should not be allowed to dry out. The
seeds will germinate in a few days and a
good growth of root hair should be obtained
on the young roots.

Sections of plant tissue may be made with
a fair degree of success by using new safety
razor blades. These blades work well at
first and may be discarded when they be-
come dull. A razor with a blade which is
only slightly hollow ground may also be
used, but must be sharpened frequently. A
limited amount of slide-making is possible
in the high school laboratory, and it may be
carried on with very limited equipment.
Several methods may be used. Woody
stems may be sectioned directly and the
sections may be killed in 95 per cent alcohol.
Fleshy stems, young stems, soft roots,
leaves, etc., will section better if hardened
in 95 per cent alcohol for 18-24 hours be-
fore sectioning. The pieces of material
placed in the alcohol should not be more
than half an inch long.

Glycerine-jelly method. This method is
suitable for mounts of material which may
be mounted entire, such as small moss
plants. Thoroughly clean the material and
place it in a ten per cent solution of glycer-
ine. Leave the container open to the air,
but protect the solution from dust by cover-
ing lightly with a paper. When the solu-
tion has evaporated until it is the consist-
ency of pure glycerine, mount the material
on slides with glycerine jelly. Sections of
soft plant tissues may be treated similarly
after they have been stained.

Balsam mounts. Section material and
kill in 95 per cent alcohol (if not previous-
ly killed). Wash with water and cover with
an aqueous solution of safranin and leave
for 24 hours. Wash sections in water un-
til the water is clear. Destain in a watch-
glass of fifty per cent alcohol to which one
drop of HCl has been added until the
phloem and cortex are a very faint pink.
Transfer the material to 95 per cent alcohol
for five minutes, then transfer to light green
which is made up in 95 per cent alcohol.

This paper grew out of the author’s course in
Biological Technique. Credit is due to three stu-
dents, Misses Margaret Beck, Catherine Grimm,
and Olive Roberson, for their assistance.
Destain in 95 per cent alcohol, then transfer to xyol, carrying over as little alcohol as possible. It may be worth while to drain the sections on filter paper before placing them in the xyol. Mount in balsam. If the air is too humid the sections may contain water when they leave the alcohol. If the sections are persistently cloudy in the xyol it may be necessary to use 100 per cent alcohol. This may be obtained by placing anhydrous copper sulphate in 95 per cent alcohol and leaving it for several days. The copper sulphate may be dehydrated in an evaporating dish over a flame and so used over again.

**Macerated wood mounts.** Split pieces of pine or oak board and boil in water until free from air. Cool before cutting. Slice off thin pieces and place them in a mixture of equal parts of ten per cent nitric acid and ten per cent chromic which have been mixed just previous to their use. Allow the acids to act for 48 hours. Wash in water and stain over night in aqueous safranin. Dehydrate in alcohol and clear in xyol. Just before mounting in balsam tease the woody elements apart on the slide.

Methods for making permanent mounts of animal tissues are in general too complicated for the high school laboratory. Time permitting, the following methods may be used:

Epithelial cells from the lining of the mouth may be prepared for study by smearing some saliva on a slide, allowing it to dry in the air, staining for five minutes in Loeffler's Alkaline Methylene Blue, washing off the stain in water, drying completely and mounting in balsam.

Blood may easily be prepared for study by staining by Wright's method. Prepare a film of blood by placing a small drop on a clean slide and spreading it very thin by drawing the edge of another slide across it. Dry the film in the air and fix by passing the slide a few times through a gas flame. Stain with Wright's stain according to directions. The stain, which may be purchased in solution form, should be fresh.

Muscle tissue of any kind—that from a crayfish or the wing muscles of insects is excellent material—may be prepared in the following manner: kill the animal; remove a small piece of muscle; kill by placing in Bouin's fluid for two or three hours; wash in 50-70 per cent alcohol until all trace of picric acid is removed. This stains the alcohol yellow, so its absence from the washing fluid is easily noted. This process may take several days or even weeks if the piece of tissue is large. Tease out thoroughly. Place washed tissue in water for a few minutes to remove alcohol. Stain in haematoxylin. Dehydrate with graded alcohols counterstaining with eosin in 95 per cent alcohol. Clear in synthetic oil of wintergreen, follow with xyol, and mount in balsam.

Spreads of mesentery or any fibrous connective tissue may be made by spreading tissue carefully on the slide and proceeding as with the preparation of the muscle tissue.

*Methods in Plant Histology, by C. J. Chamberlain (U. of Chicago Press), and Animal Micrology, by M. F. Guyer (U. of Chicago Press), will be found very useful for reference.*

**THIS HAPPENED IN DETROIT**

Teacher: "We have a very fine set of slides today called "The Evolution of the Book."

Tearful Girl: "Please, Miss D——, may I go out in the hall until the lesson is over? My mother wouldn't want me to listen to anything about evolution, because it is against my religion.

Friend: "Do you think the great outstanding poem of the century has yet been written?"

Poet: "It has not only been written, but it has been rejected!"—Christian Science Monitor.
CASE STUDIES OF INDIVIDUAL CHILDREN

A Technique in Training Student Teachers to See Children as Individuals

THE teacher who sees her class group as individuals is aided in many ways. She has a point of contact in the selection and organization of materials; she can economize in the building of skills; she can utilize present interests and at the same time build permanent ones. Moreover, she can so shape her program for group living that behavior likely to result in desirable personality traits is encouraged.

But the very complexity of the situation tends to cause the student teacher to see her group en masse. She has so many other things to keep in mind; the educational principles underlying her work, the activities being carried on, the materials used, her own evolving control of techniques and subject matter. And unless the school has a systematic participation course, the children being almost entirely new to her, all look and act alike, so that definite provision to force her to see individual traits and capacities is imperative.

The student teacher may learn to recognize and respect individual differences and yet fail to evaluate behavior traits in the light of their significance in personality development; if so, she is quite a typical member of the profession which she is entering. E. C. Wickman, in the recent Commonwealth study, after a careful preliminary investigation, listed fifty behavior problems occurring in children. He then submitted the list to large groups of teachers and to thirty mental hygienists "who were actively and solely engaged in the study and treatment of behavior disorders of children." In each case he asked that the behavior problems be rated as to seriousness.

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There was not only no agreement between the ratings from the two groups; there was even a slight tendency toward negative correlation — .22 between the mental hygienists and the experimental group of teachers and — .11 between the mental hygienists and the control group of teachers. On the other hand, the correlation between the various groups of teachers was high, that between the experimental and control group being .895. Certain items selected from Wickman’s tables comparing the ratings of the 511 teachers in the control group with those of the mental hygienists illustrate the difference. (In these tables a score of 4.5 indicates a problem “of only slight consequence,” a score of 12.5 one which “makes for considerable difficulty,” and a score of 20.5 one which is “an extremely grave problem”).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Problem</th>
<th>Avg. Score of Teachers</th>
<th>Avg. Score of Mental Hygienists</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Destroying school materials</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impertinence, defiance</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disobedience</td>
<td>14.1</td>
<td>6.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disorderliness in class</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fearfulness</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>14.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suspiciousness</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>16.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unsocialness</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>17.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sensitiveness</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>13.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Among other things Wickman concludes that (1) teachers consider behavior a serious problem in terms of the effect it has upon their own personality, (2) they view the active attacking types of behavior unfavorably and overlook the seriousness of withdrawing and dependent types, and (3) they direct the treatment of behavior disorders toward the symptoms of maladjustment instead of toward the underlying causes.

As a result of his investigations Wickman suggests, among other things that, (1)
The teachers be given a more general knowledge of what constitutes normal child behavior, (2) teachers obtain a dynamic picture of the social and experimental backgrounds of children, (3) teachers be instructed in the methods of treating behavior problems, (4) teachers be given some practice in such methods of treatment, and (5) that some attention be paid to the emotional and social adjustments of teachers themselves. Such a program calls for a set-up of a full time clinician and a corps of visiting teachers, a set-up which we at Harrisonburg do not have. But Wickman's findings have so colored our thinking that it has seemed wise to thus summarize them here.

Certain methods of training student teachers to recognize and care for individual differences are in rather general use. (1) Student teachers are usually guided in the use of school records, such as general record cards, test results, diaries of units, and case studies. (2) Training schools rather uniformly include exercises in observing individuals and groups as a part of the induction period in student teaching. (3) Courses in child psychology, educational psychology, and tests and measurements are a regular part of the teacher-training curriculum. (4) Student teachers are often given guidance and participation in visiting homes. (5) Making case records of individual children is increasingly being used not only as a means of understanding the particular child, but also as a definite technique in acquiring skill in seeing individual differences. We are attempting the use of all these methods at Harrisonburg, but space forbids more than the above citation here; the remainder of this paper deals with the plan for individual case studies at Harrisonburg.

Our present scheme for case studies is an evolution. First, we had each student teacher study two children, handing in one systematic report on each child at the close of the teaching term, it being felt that this much time was needed to assimilate the information from the school records, to secure the data about the social background, and to make continuous observations. But thus postponing the interpretation until the close of the term resulted in final reports which were full of unchecked half truths and unwarranted conclusions. The papers were not only of slight worth for the school files; the experience itself was of questionable educational value for the student teacher. Moreover, such techniques in studying individuals as the student teacher did acquire usually came too late in the teaching term to be of service in studying the other children in the group.

During the winter quarter of 1930 in a course in the psychology of elementary school subjects, the writer used a series of preliminary reports as a training for a more comprehensive summary report. The students were investigating problem cases in reading; as they gave each reading test, they submitted a report. These partial reports were immediately checked and returned so that the suggestions made could be carried out during the ensuing week; the summary report used the partial ones as one source of data.

In the 1930 summer school the partial report scheme was used in the case studies made by student teachers. The first section included all the objective data the student teacher could gather. This was followed by a weekly informal summary of the student's observations. Unfortunately there was not time for a general report at the close of the term.

Profiting from our former experiences, we are now handling the case studies as follows: (1) only one child is being studied since we feel that studying two children takes too much time away from the student teacher's observation of the entire group; (2) the case study consists of a series of informal short reports and one summary study near the close of the term.

The child study is initiated in a group conference at the beginning of the quarter.
Bases for selecting the children are set up; usually children who are in some way a problem and for whom there are no reports on file are chosen. The students are also given some general directions for beginning the work. They are told to observe such things as the child’s health, his attitudes, his part in the group life, his interests, his work habits, his abilities in school subjects, his special capacities. Supplementary sources of data suggested to them include the school files, test records, and visits to the homes. In writing the reports they are counselled: (1) to make references to previous reports rather than to repeat statements—the reports are arranged in a folder in reverse order; (2) to avoid sweeping statements and unwarranted conclusions; (3) to use the direct terse style characteristic of such writing.

The school files are open to student teachers, but there is no schedule for their use in the short reports; rather when a student teacher continues to overlook some important source of data her attention is called to it. Such a plan enables a student teacher to adapt her report to what she sees naturally rather than try to see what she is supposed to write on; she can thus write of the child’s health after the nurse’s round of inspection, of his social adjustment following a hike or picnic, of his social background following a visit to his home. For in connection with each case study, the student teacher makes a minimum of one visit to the child’s home. Guidance for this is given in informal talks with her supervisor and in a group conference. Since her supervisor accompanies her, there is a definite check upon her interpretation of the data secured from the visit.

We are finding these short informal reports an added means of co-ordination with the sophomore course in tests and measurements. Before the first testing was completed, students reported reading ability in very indefinite terms, such as “good,” “poor,” “average,” “in the poorest group.” When the Gates tests had been given, some student teachers immediately used the figures from the tests to support their statements, but others continued to make less objective comments such as “Poor in reading for details but good in reading for general meaning.” Such students were counselled to make use of the test data in their next reports. In the meantime the instructors in the course taught the class how to use such data in diagnosing individual difficulties in reading. Since these instructors had attempted to ward off faulty statements about I. Q.’s, the reports have been singularly free from such errors; students who have made inaccurate statements have been referred to the professors for reteaching. In the directions given for final reports, the students were told that all data lending itself to such treatment must be tabulated, and were advised to take any difficulties occurring in such tabulations into their courses in tests and measurements.

We are finding these reports very helpful in our study of the student teacher herself since they mirror her attitude toward children’s behavior and toward life. Several quite mature teachers in the summer school felt that they had completed their observations when they reported a child as lazy, indifferent, inattentive. They were rather amazed at the suggestion that they search for the causes in order to attempt some intelligent remedial work. For it had never occurred to them that their responsibility went deeper than labelling the miscreant; “He won’t study,” is such a customary excuse in the profession.

Such interpretations cannot be expected of student teachers unless definite guidance is given. For it requires a working contact with the current literature in child psychology. Since we at Harrisonburg have no psychology course paralleling either sophomore or senior student teaching, we have been forced to use a less direct co-ordination with the junior courses in mental hygiene and in child psychology. Early in the
fall of 1930 the problems occurring in the sophomore informal reports were listed. Typical problems referred to children who bluff, who are inattentive, who are afraid, who do not try, who stay by themselves, who talk too much, who are nervous. The instructor in mental hygiene then had her class go through their reading list and make page references for these topics. These are gradually being placed on cards and put on file in the library.

At the present we have set up three levels of achievement in the informal reports: (1) accurate reporting of significant facts, (2) interpretation based on the student teacher's present knowledge with stress on remedial work, and (3) interpretation involving the use of literature in the field with very definite suggestions for remedial work. The seniors have been told that any student reaching the third level will be excused from further reports—she will, however, continue to make observations in connection with the diary record which she writes for her supervisor. We will use this plan with the sophomores next quarter since we hope that typewritten directions now being prepared for the students will short-circuit the process of learning to write the reports.

The informal report goes first to the supervisor; when she approves it, it is handed to the director of training, who reads and returns it immediately. Problems arising in the report are discussed informally with the supervisor; some time is given to such problems in each weekly conference with the director of training. In addition to the conference initiating the reports an entire conference period is given over to the final report. In this conference an outline is suggested to the students, but they are free to modify this as they choose. This outline is as follows:

Case Study of ......................

Part One: The Data
I. The social background

II. Health and physical condition
III. School progress
IV. Personality traits

Part Two: Summary of the Data
Part Three: Interpretation
Part Four: Recommendations

The informal reports will be submitted with the final paper so that the reader can check back at will. These will then be returned to the students; the summary reports will be filed since the marginal comments of supervisor (and of director of training) should bring them to a reasonable level of accuracy.

We have no objective results of the plan to offer for discussion; for the first time we all feel that we are making some real progress with the problem. We believe that the increased co-ordination with the course in tests and measurements has worked to the advantage of both, that the students have seen relationships more than before. We feel that we can see an increasing tendency on the part of student teachers and staff to regard behavior traits as symptoms and to search for underlying causes. We also think we see a tendency to evaluate child behavior more in terms of its effect upon personality than upon the student teacher's peace of mind. The student teachers themselves say that the techniques used in observing one child are helping them to understand the group better.

Among the many problems connected with the scheme, two stand out. There is danger that the student teacher will pay too much attention to her case study, thereby defeating the very purpose of the work, but we are making a concerted effort to prevent this. There is also danger that in acquiring insight into behavior problems the student teacher will acquire a spurious idea of freedom, that in learning to understand so-called "bad" behavior she will learn also to tolerate it to a greater extent than is good for the group or for the child himself. For it requires considerable maturity...
to see children's behavior in a disinterested professional manner and yet hold them firmly to the very best that is in them. We are attempting to forestall this in conferences and to give guidance when it occurs. Moreover, this difficulty is not peculiar to the child study scheme; it is inherent in any progressive plan for training teachers. And if it is protested that a "little learning" is particularly dangerous in the field of mental hygiene, it may be replied that these readings do not come simply as a result of the case studies. For an introduction to this literature is fast becoming a necessary part of any well planned scheme of student teaching. Therefore this series of partial reports revealing the student teacher's developing attitude may not so much cause a problem as correct one. For they do offer an opportunity to guide her into a balanced philosophy of education and of life.

Katherine M. Anthony

CREED OF MODERN LIFE

"I believe in God as the Creator."

"I believe in the spirit and mind of man."

"I believe firmly in obeying all the laws of the country in which I happen to be, no matter how I despise them."

"I believe that a brain standard is far more important than a gold standard."

"I believe in the home, and that men should use it more and women less."

"I believe in the Ten Commandments with a far greater intensity than I do in our ten million laws of today."

"I believe that criminals are fools and not heroes."

"I believe all men to be nobler than they are thought to be by others, and all women far less mercenary; that a hard life harms no one, but that a soft life kills; that courage restores life and is greater than wealth."

C. R. W. Nevinson

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF SCHOOL LIBRARIANS IN THE SOUTH

IN 1927 the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States adopted standards for the libraries of the high schools in this region, which have come to be known familiarly as "the Southern Standards." The emphasis which these standards placed upon properly trained librarians resulted in the springing up, almost over night, of a large number of courses purporting to prepare students for school library work. In December, 1929, the Policy Committee of the Southeastern Library Association, asked the Board of Education for Librarianship of the American Library Association to survey the library training conditions and facilities of the region, "in order that there may be a complete program for the training of librarians for the various types of library positions that are developing in the South, and in order that all ventures in library training may be so directed and organized that they will contribute to the whole program." This study was made by Miss Sarah C. N. Bogle, of the Headquarters staff of the A. L. A., assisted by Miss Tommie Dora Barker, Regional Field Agent of the A. L. A. in the South, in March and April, 1930, and their findings were summarized in a mimeographed report in August, 1930.1

Almost simultaneously the Joint Library Committee of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools requested the Division of Surveys and Field Studies, of the George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, to make a survey of library conditions in the high schools in the territory of the Southern Association. The request was granted, and the Divisions of

This paper was read before the School Libraries Section of the American Library Association, meeting in New Haven, on June 26, 1931.

1A Study of the Library School Situation in the Southern States. To be printed at a later date.
Surveys conducted the study with the advice and counsel of the Joint Library committee, and the results appear in a printed report by Dr. Doak S. Campbell, December, 1930. The findings of these two surveys of major importance to the school library field are so closely related that they may be considered together.

The purpose of the investigation of conditions in libraries made by Dr. Campbell is stated thus:

1. To determine the status of the libraries in the high schools that are accredited by the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States, with specific reference to the new library standards, and

2. To point out for further investigation and study such problems as may be revealed by this study.

An information blank based on the standards was sent to all member schools, in March, 1930. (It is indicative of the cooperative spirit of this Association that of the 1105 schools receiving the blank, 922, or 83.4 per cent responded.) The tabulated answers appear in the report, arranged, first by standard, No. 1 Books; No. 2 Librarian, etc., then by state, and finally are summarized for the region as a whole. Our concern is with Standard No. 2, the Librarian.

The Provisions of this standard are as follows:

1. Enrolment of 100 or less students—Teacher-librarian with at least six semester hours in Library Science. Excused from certain number of hours of teaching and thus allotted definite time for library work, with regular hours in the library. Sufficient student help trained by the teacher-librarian to keep the library open all day, but open only under supervision.

2. Enrolment of 100 to 200 students—Half-time librarian with a one-year course of 24-30 semester hours in an accredited library school, or half-time with college graduation including twelve semester hours in Library Science.

3. Enrolment of 200 to 500 students—Full-time librarian with same qualifications and educational background as teachers, including 24-30 semester hours in an approved library school. One or two year's teaching experience is very desirable.

4. Enrolment of 500 to 1,000 students—Same as above, with sufficient help and some experience in teaching or library especially desirable.

5. Enrolment of 1,000 or more students—Full-time librarian with college graduation and at least 24-30 semester hours in an approved library school. Teaching and library experience especially desirable—a good contact with children already established. For every 1,000, or major fraction thereof, enrolment, there shall be an additional full-time trained librarian.

Of the 922 schools returning the information, fifty-four, or 5.9 per cent report that they meet the standard for librarian as to training and time devoted to the library in all respects; 344, or 37.3 per cent meet them in one or more respects; while 524 or 56.8 per cent meet none of the requirements. There is a wide range in the amount of training these librarians and teacher-librarians have, the average being approximately four semester hours. The problem of adequate training for the librarians involves a number of considerations. Among these is the selection of approved library schools and the development of appropriate curricula for them. For this reason the Joint Library Committee of the Association was asked to work out a list of approved schools. Dr. Campbell says, “In order to provide a basis for determining the possible number of schools necessary for the training of librarians for Southern high schools, an inquiry was directed to the

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higher institutions in the states which offered courses in library science requesting them to give the number of students enrolled in such courses during the regular session, 1929-30, and the summer session, 1930. Replies from thirty-seven of these institutions in the eleven states show that they enrolled 1,764 students during the specified time.

"A second inquiry was sent to a selected list of fifteen library schools to ascertain the number of students enrolled in courses in library science and the amount of credit these students had at the close of the summer session, 1930 . . . Of the 844 persons enrolled in this selected list of library schools during the summer session 1930, 27.8 per cent were taking their first course, and had less than six semester hours of credit. Fifty and seven-tenths per cent had as many as six hours, but not as many as twelve, and could qualify only in schools of less than 100 students. Nine and five-tenths per cent had twelve semester hours, while 2.6 per cent had a one-year course of 24-30 semester hours not including college graduation. Three and two-tenths per cent had 24-30 hours including graduation, while 6.2 per cent had a full year of library science in addition to college graduation. In other words, the output of a single summer session was two and one-half times the total number of positions available in the group of schools enrolling 100 students or less. One hundred and two persons qualified for 381 possible positions in the schools of 100 to 200 students. Twenty-seven persons qualified for 472 positions in the schools of 200-500 and 500 to 1,000 students. Fifty-two persons qualified for sixty positions in schools of 1000 or over." It is evident that the over supply is in group one and possibly four, that is, the smallest and largest schools. It is also probable that many of those who took their first courses in 1930 will earn additional credit in 1931, making them eligible for the next group, for which at present there seems to be a shortage of librarians. The report continues, "Be this as it may, it is significant that there were enrolled in fifteen of the approved library schools in the 1930 summer session 844 persons, whereas there are only 1,105 accredited schools in which there are possible positions. This would seem to indicate that there are already more library schools than this area requires."

In order to discourage the further establishment of library courses in institutions not qualified to give them adequately, and to strengthen the existing schools, the Southern Association at its 1930 meeting in Atlanta adopted definite standards for such courses and institutions. Under the heads, Organization and Administration, Teaching Staff, Equipment, Financial Status, Requirement for Admission, and Suggested Curriculum, it sets forth the requirements to be met by any institution wishing to give courses in library science which will be acceptable to the Association. These Standards appear in the 1930 Proceedings of the Southern Association and in Dr. Campbell's report.

The study of the general library school situation in the southern states made by Miss Bogle with Miss Barker's assistance, which was based on visits to educational institutions, departments of education, leading librarians and educators, supplemented by data gathered at A. L. A. headquarters, led them to say, "Those in touch with the library situation in the South are aware of the ferment there in recent years in all lines of library activity. That the development of a library program in this region should be paralleling the remarkable advance in other fields, educational, social, and economic, is just cause for satisfaction to those who believe that libraries are an essential part of the pattern of our social order. To librarians in the South satisfaction has been mingled with an element of concern because of the very rapidity of library progress. They desire that the foundation shall be adequate to the superstructure. While
library service, like every other, must develop in harmony with general principles, each region has specific needs which must be met if service is to be satisfactory. With the elimination of time and space no one region can live to itself alone. Due to the relation of supply and demand, librarians are migratory, and that which is done by and for libraries in one region, such as the South, inevitably has a vital effect on other regions and on the library profession as a whole. Therefore the concern felt by librarians in the South is shared by others in all parts of the country for possible effects on their own situations.” The report is prefaced with the following recommendations:

“That the summer courses and other short courses for school librarians or teacher-librarians, established to fill the immediate demand for librarians in high schools which must meet the standards of the Southern Association, should not be allowed to grow into permanent library schools if the result is to be unnecessary duplication of training within the state. It is entirely possible that after the present demands are met one, or at most two, training agencies in each state will be more economical and more efficient than a large number.”

The facts and conclusions thus far stated in this summary are quoted from the two studies mentioned in the beginning. May I venture a personal statement in closing? Not only in the South, but elsewhere as well, due to the zeal of many institutions in offering almost any course if it promises to draw students, without sufficient consideration of the cost of establishment or of proper maintenance; and to the present tendency of schools and colleges, not excluding library schools, to accept increasingly large enrolments without regard to the existing or probable demand for graduates, we are faced with an over-production of so-called librarians, who, in many cases, have not been much more than exposed to library courses, and who have neither the personal qualifications nor the thorough preparation for their work which we like to think have always been distinguishing marks of this profession.

As the immediate demand probably will be met after the 1931 summer session, it is to be hoped that the establishment of more schools can be successfully discouraged unless a careful study proves the need for them, and a willingness is demonstrated by the school administrators to build the curriculum on sound lines; that existing schools will exercise more care in selecting students of marked capacity, and in limiting enrolments; and that, in the future, they will direct their efforts toward the production of librarians of the highest quality attainable. Such a program is imperative if boys and girls are to obtain a rich and vital experience through the library in the school.

Helen M. Harris.

CHARACTER

Character is a by-product. . . . It comes as a consequence of a life devoted to the nearest duty, and the place in which character would be cultivated, if it be a place of study, is a place where study is the object and character is the result.

—Woodrow Wilson.

BOOKS

Books are the open avenue down which, like kings coming to be crowned, great ideas and inspirations move to the abbey of man’s soul. There are some people still left who understand perfectly what Fenelon meant when he said, “If the crowns of all the kingdoms of the empire were laid down at my feet in exchange for my books and my love of reading, I would spurn them all.”

—Ernest Dressel North.

Clear thinking is needed in the competitions of life, and it is peculiarly the province of modern education to make us seekers after the truth.—Hubert Work.
POLIOMYELITIS
(Infantile Paralysis)

THE essential nature of infantile paralysis has been determined within the twenty-year period during which the disease, escaping from its endemic home in Norway and Sweden, has made its epidemic progress over the world. Only the tropics, and even they not wholly, have been spared its ravages.

It is probably just because infantile paralysis had never before prevailed in a world-wide epidemic that we are witnessing the periodical outbreaks which are so tragic in their consequences. On the whole, the outbreaks have been larger and more severe in North America than elsewhere and for reasons, as will appear, which are bound up with the nature of the disease.

Infantile paralysis is a disease long known to physicians, although its infectious and communicable nature was established only about forty years ago during an epidemic in Stockholm. Hence it is known to be a disease of micronic origin. The microbe or microorganism which induces infantile paralysis is so minute that it is not certain that it has ever been seen under the microscope. Because of its minuteness, it can pass through filters of earthenware which hold back, and prevent from passing, ordinary microorganisms, such as the bacteria.

The microbe of infantile paralysis differs in another way from the usual bacteria. While bacteria are easily made to grow outside the body, the microbe can be made to multiply in this way only under special conditions. These conditions are provided by growing and multiplying tissue cells taken from warm-blooded animals and propagated in tissue cultures. When the invisible microbe of infantile paralysis is cultivated with tissue cells, both increase together, the microbe probably within the cells.

There are many other kinds of invisible microbes which produce diseases of plants and the lower and higher animals. The microbe of infantile paralysis belongs to this class of ultraminitive living bodies. All these ultramicroscopic disease-producing microbes share the peculiarity that in order to be made to multiply outside the animal or plant which they attack as parasites, and in which they cause disease, they must be cultivated with living and growing tissue cells.

Certain pathologists have expressed skepticism about the microbe of infantile paralysis because of its invisibility and the difficulty of making it increase outside the body. This would be equivalent, let us say, to denying the existence of atoms because they also are beyond visibility and can not be made to increase at all by any means known to us at present. Now, physicists and chemists are not doubtful about the atom because of certain known properties concerning it. These properties enable physicists and chemists to experiment with the atom and to learn a vast number of things concerning its nature through the experiments. They are in no essential way hindered from acquiring this knowledge because of the minute size of the atom. In a very similar way pathologists have dealt and are dealing successfully with the invisible microbes of disease and prominently among them the microbe of infantile paralysis. A vast amount of new knowledge of infantile paralysis has been obtained by experiment since the microbe was discovered in 1910 simultaneously at the Rockefeller Institute in New York and the Pasteur Institute in Paris.

The control of any communicable disease is greatly promoted by the discovery of the mode of infection or the way in which the microbe enters and leaves the affected body. The epidemic in Stockholm and its environs in 1905 led to the recognition that infantile paralysis was passed from person to person. But just how this passage took
place could be conjectured but not definitely determined at the time.

With the discovery by Dr. Landsteiner in 1909 of the communicability of infantile paralysis to monkeys the way was suddenly opened to the detection of this essential fact and many other important facts regarding the disease which have since been brought to light. The first step forward consisted in the discovery at the Rockefeller Institute that the microbe of infantile paralysis escapes from the body in the secretions of the nose and throat. It is not as widely appreciated as it should be that a way for the disease-producing microbe to escape alive and undamaged from the body is just as essential for the spread of the disease as a way of effectively entering a healthy individual in whom disease is to be produced. Hence the detection of the manner and place of exit of the microbe may afford the clue as to its means of entrance. And this is actually what happened in the instance of poliomyelitis. Finding that the microbe escapes by way of the nose and throat led almost immediately to the discovery that it was able also to enter the healthy monkey and induce paralysis through these organs. This knowledge led in its turn to the detection of the microbe in the secretions of the nose and mouth of children suffering from infantile paralysis and also in these secretions of persons—parents especially—who have been in intimate contact with the sick children.

At the present time it is the firm belief of most pathologists that the microbe of infantile paralysis is carried from person to person, from the infected to the uninfected, through the secretions of the nose and throat. The public health measures designed to reduce the spread of the disease are based on this belief. All this does not mean that there may not be still other ways of communicating the disease yet to be discovered. It is known, for instance, that the microbe of infantile paralysis can be spread by milk. Two small, isolated outbreaks of the milk-borne disease have been detected in New York State within a few years. These epidemics differ from the usual ones in their restricted extent and almost explosive character. The cases tend all to arise in rapid succession, after which there is complete or nearly complete cessation. A few days or a week or two witness the entire progress of these outbreaks.

One attack of infantile paralysis, no matter how slight, usually affords protection for life. Associated with this state of immunity, and responsible in part, if not wholly, for it, is the presence in the blood of a substance which, when inoculated into monkeys, is capable of preventing the microbe from producing the disease. The serum of the blood, or its fluid portion separated from the corpuscles, is equally effective, and it is capable, not only of rendering the microbe inactive when the two are mixed in advance, but, also, as was discovered at the Rockefeller Institute in 1910, of preventing the onset of paralysis in monkeys when the microbe is first introduced and the serum from recovered human beings or monkeys is injected 24 to 48 hours later.

This observation is the experimental foundation for the convalescent serum treatment of infantile paralysis which, first applied in man by Professor Netter of Paris in 1911, has now come to be widely employed. The extent to which the serum treatment is effective has still to be determined with accuracy. It is now known not to be of value when paralysis has already occurred. On the other hand, it is believed that the earlier the serum is administered after symptoms appear the better the results obtained.

Not only are the protective and curative properties present in the blood of persons who have recovered from obvious attacks of infantile paralysis; they are present also, in some amount, in the blood of many adult persons who have never suffered from the disease. This is not peculiar only to in-
infantile paralysis. Many affections of microbic origin exist in two forms: one in which disease is frankly present; the other in which individuals exposed to the microbe harbor it for a time during which no symptoms of disease occur, but immunity to the microbe is secured. This is true of such common microbic diseases as diphtheria and scarlet fever, which may be cited as examples of a larger class. That the blood serum of normal adults renders the microbe of infantile paralysis inactive was noted by Anderson and Frost, of the U. S. Public Health Service, in 1911. Subsequent studies on a larger scale, carried out by the Harvard Poliomyelitis Commission under Dr. Aycock, have shown that this sort of unperceived immunization is taking place widely today in the United States. It is to this protective process, perhaps, that we have to look finally for the eradication of poliomyelitis from this country. It is probable that the reason northern America has suffered disproportionately from the disease in the past 20 years is that the general population, not having been exposed over a term of years as have many of the European populations, lacks the immunity conferred by the unperceived carriage just described of the microbe of infantile paralysis.

We gain a strengthened impression of this kind of protective mechanism at work in the dark by studying the age frequency of the disease and comparing the frequency with the ages at which the blood protection is demonstrable. In childhood, up to the tenth year, there is little protection discernible; this is the period of greatest frequency of the disease. From ten years on the protection rises and the frequency of the disease diminishes. In adults the protection reaches maximum and the cases minimum figures. The proportion of protected adults increases with the opportunity for exposure to the microbe; hence it is higher in urban than in rural communities. The ages of the children who are now suffering most in the New York epidemic conform to this rule.

Indeed, with minor exceptions, the victims of the present epidemic have been born since 1916; far more children under rather than over ten years of age have been stricken.

The employment of convalescent serum for the treatment of early cases of infantile paralysis was begun in 1911. In 1916 Zingher, of the Department of Health of New York City, employed the serum of normal adults for treatment. The logic of this procedure is apparent from what has been stated concerning the antimicrobial powers of the blood of many adults. Probably the concentration of the curative substances is greater in convalescent serum, but this need not always be the case. In the absence of supplies of convalescent serum, normal adult serum may be employed for treatment. It is advisable to combine the serum of a number of individuals, rather than to rely on that of a single person, in order to increase the probability of administering an effective dose.

The convalescent serum has been shown experimentally not only to exert curative (therapeutic) properties but to possess preventive powers as well. Definite observations on this point, having as object a possible application to protective serum injection, were made at the Rockefeller Institute in 1928. At this time attention was directed to the employment of convalescent serum for prevention in an emergency. Fortunately, the case frequency of infantile paralysis is not high, so that resort to this measure will not often become necessary. Moreover, so far as convalescent serum is concerned, in an emergency the available supplies will be required for the treatment of declared cases. On the other hand, abundant supplies of normal adult blood are always procurable. In view of the high proportion of adult city dwellers who are immune, the blood serum of parents or other suitable persons can readily be administered to younger children who are exposed to infection. No assurance of abso-
lute protection can, of course, be given, but, by analogy with measles, benefit may be hoped for or even expected. Time and experience alone will make it possible to ascertain the value of this procedure.

The obvious effect of an attack of infantile paralysis is paralysis of the muscles. The microbe does not act on the muscles directly but indirectly through nerve cells presiding over the muscular movements and located in the spinal cord chiefly. These cells are acted on directly by the microbe and injured; sometimes the injury is so severe that the cells are destroyed outright; sometimes the injury is severe enough to interrupt function for a time only. In the one case the muscular paralysis is permanent; in the other restoration of function occurs. The microbe acts also on the cells and tissues about the nerve cells; the disturbance thus produced affects indirectly the function of the nerve cells. When these indirect effects disappear, with recovery from the disease, renewal of function of the nerve cells and muscles takes place. Time is often required for the complete reversal of the general cell, and tissue disturbances during which restoration of muscular power slowly returns. There is a great diversity in the extent and location of the injurious effects of the microbe, and there is very great variation in the intensity of the action exerted so that muscular paralysis, when present, may be slight or extensive, fleeting or permanent. The extent of the paralysis at the beginning of the attack is no accurate measure of its endurance. Recovery from paralysis on a wide scale is not only possible but often takes place.

Recapitulation

The microbe of infantile paralysis is known to belong to the class of invisible, filter-passing microorganisms to which the name of viruses is applied.

This virus has been found in the secretions of the nose and throat of persons ill of infantile paralysis and of well persons in intimate contact with the sick.

When the virus is applied to the nose and throat of monkeys it passes along the connecting nerve fibers to the brain and spinal cord and induces paralysis similar to that occurring in the human disease.

That communication of the disease from person to person is brought about by personal contact and the transfer of the secretions of the nose and throat of the sick to the well has been established by observation of human epidemics and by experiments on monkeys. Whether or not any other common manner of communication of the disease to man exists is not known. Present public health measures of control of infantile paralysis are based on this mode of personal infection.

An attack of infantile paralysis is protective for life, irrespective of the intensity of the attack.

Persons who have had infantile paralysis possess in their blood certain protective or healing substances which can be used effectively to treat persons sick of the disease, and perhaps to prevent the disease in other and exposed children. It is the fluid portion of the blood that is employed in this way under the name of convalescent serum.

Since many normal adults develop immunity to infantile paralysis as a result of exposure to the virus under circumstances not leading to obvious disease, their blood serum also carries, at times, the protective and healing substances. The serum of these adult persons, which is abundantly available, may sometimes be substituted for the serum of convalescents, which is necessarily limited in quantity.

There are strong reasons for believing that a gradual immunization of the population of the United States is taking place as a result of the epidemics of infantile paralysis which have prevailed in different parts of the country since the large Swedish-Norwegian outbreak of 1905.

The virus of infantile paralysis acts upon the nervous system and especially upon the nerve cells of the spinal cord which control
muscular movements. The muscles themselves are not directly affected. Since the virus injures the nerve cells and adjacent tissues with varying degrees of intensity, the effects on the muscles range from very slight to severe paralysis. Even when the paralysis is severe, restoration of motion takes place in part or even wholly as the injurious consequences of the disease subside.

Although the name—infantile paralysis—carries the implication of actual loss of motion by muscles, yet many cases of the disease never show paralysis at all. Indeed, there are reasons for believing that the cases of the non-paralytic disease exceed greatly in number those in which actual paralysis occurs.

Infantile paralysis is mainly but not wholly a disease of childhood. Adults are affected but infrequently. Now that we have learned that young children have rarely and older children and adults have often become immunized through unperceived or subclinical effects of exposure, we can better understand the peculiarities of age and place susceptibilities.

Simon Flexner

RADIO AND EDUCATION

FROM the Biennial Survey of Education in the United States (1928-1930) published by the U. S. Office of Education, it appears that the number of broadcasting stations owned and operated by schools, colleges, and universities, states, municipalities, or their agencies, has decreased during the past five years. In 1926 there were 105 such stations; in 1927, 104; in 1928, 98; in 1929, 78; and in 1930, 65. The remaining stations of this kind are the only ones whose programs are not subject to commercial censorship.

Printed programs from these stations on file in the Office of Education show that they are broadcasting material of educational value and of interest to radio listeners who seek education rather than amusement.

These are the stations which the National Committee on Education by Radio is attempting to protect against commercial efforts to secure these channels. It is obvious that unless the states and institutions owning and operating these stations succeed in maintaining and developing their work the radio channels allocated to them will pass into the hands of the commercial broadcasters.

The educational stations shown in the list of the Federal Radio Commission issued February 2, 1931, follow. It will be noted that Emory and Henry College operates the only educational station in Virginia. The list:

WAPI—Birmingham, Ala.—Alabama Polytechnic Institute, University of Alabama, and Alabama College.
WBAA—West Lafayette, Ind.—Purdue University.
WCAC—Storrs, Conn.—Connecticut Agricultural College.
WCAD—Canton, N. Y.—St. Lawrence University.
WCAJ—Lincoln, Neb.—Nebraska Wesleyan University.
WCAL—Northfield, Minn.—St. Olaf College.
WCAM—Camden, N. J.—City of Camden.
WCAT—Rapid City, S. D.—South Dakota State School of Mines.
WCAX—Burlington, Vt.—University of Vermont.
WCOA—Pensacola, Fla.—City of Pensacola, Fla.
WEAI—Ithaca, N. Y.—Cornell University.
WEAO—Columbus, Ohio—Ohio State University.
WEHC—Emory, Va.—Emory and Henry College.
WEW—St. Louis, Mo.—St. Louis University.
WGSt—Atlanta, Ga.—Georgia School of Technology.
WHA—Madison, Wis.—University of Wisconsin.
BOOKS FOR CHILDREN

Pres ident Hoover's Rapidan River School in Virginia has been presented with a collection of children's books, the gift of the American Library Association.

Fifty-eight book titles often asked for by rural and mountain children were selected by a committee of the school librarians section of the association. Members of the committee were: Euphemia K. Corwin, librarian of Berea College, Kentucky; Edith Johnson, librarian of the Berry Schools, Mt. Berry, Georgia; Virginia Harnsberger, late librarian of State Teachers College, Harrisonburg, Virginia, and Mildred P. Harrington, of the Graduate Library School, University of Chicago.

The list includes such well-known titles as *Alice in Wonderland*, *Hans Brinker and the Silver Skates*, *Just So Stories*, *Little Black Sambo*, *Pinocchio*, *Robinson Crusoe*, *Story of Dr. Dolittle*, *Treasure Island*, *Wild Animals I Have Known*, and editions of the *Arabian Nights* and *Mother Goose*.

Other titles which complete the collection are *All About Pets*, by Margery Bianco; *Around the World with the Children*, by F. G. Carpenter; *Book of Legends*, by Horace Scudder; *Boy Collector's Handbook*, by A. H. Verrill; *Boy's Life of Roosevelt*, by Hermann Hagedorn; *Burgess Animal Book*, and *Burgess Flower Book*, by T. W. Burgess; *Careless Jane*, by Katherine Pyle; *Child's Garden of Verses*, by R. L. Stevenson; *Children's History of the World*, by V. M. Hillyer; *Daniel Boone, Wilderness Scout*, by S. E. White; *Dutch Twins*, by L. F. Perkins; *Eskimo Stories*,
by M. E. S. Smith; Everyday Manners for Boys and Girls, South Philadelphia High School; Fables, by Æsop; Fairy Ring, by K. D. Wiggin and N. A. Smith; Fairy Tales, by H. C. Andersen; Fifty Famous Stories Retold, by James Baldwin; Golden Numbers, by K. D. Wiggin and N. A. Smith; Heidi, by Johanna Spyri; Hoosier Schoolmaster, by Edward Eggleston; Household Stories, by Grimm Brothers; Housekeeping for Little Girls, by O. H. Foster; Japanese Twins, by L. F. Perkins; Lisbeth Longfrock, by Hans Aanrud; Little Folks' Handy Book, by Lina Beard; Little Lame Prince, by D. M. M. Craik; Little Men and Little Women, by L. M. Alcott; Lonesomest Doll, by A. F. Brown; Magic Forest, by S. E. White; Nursery Tales from Many Lands, by E. L. and A. M. Skinner; Older Children's Bible, by A. Quiller-Couch; Overall Boys, by E. O. Grover; Page, Esquire and Knight, by Marion Lansing; Peggy in Her Blue Frock, by E. O. White; Rebecca of Sunnybrook Farm, by K. D. Wiggin; Secret Garden, by F. H. Burnett; Seven Little Sisters, by Jane Andrews; Story of My Life, by Helen Keller; Sunbonnet Babies' Primer, by E. O. Grover; Suppose We Do Something Else, by Imogen Clark; Toby Tyler, by J. O. Kelner; Two Little Confederates, by T. N. Page; Viking Tales, by Jennie Hall; What Happened to Inger Johanne, by Dikken Zwilgmyer; When Mother Lets Us Garden, by Frances Duncan.

There are many dangers threatening the life of a new idea, and opposition is by no means the worst of them. In fact, opposition often acts as a fulcrum to a lever.

—DOROTHY CANFIELD FISHER.

He is an eloquent man who can treat humble subjects with delicacy, lofty things impressively, and moderate things temperately.—CICERO.

THE PRESIDENT'S COLUMN

MANY communities have shown great interest in the proposal of the State Board of Education that the Legislature of Virginia appropriate two million dollars additional for the support of the elementary and secondary schools of the Commonwealth in order that the state may take over practically the entire burden of paying teachers' salaries and leave to the communities simply the provision and maintenance of school buildings and equipment. Coupled with this proposal is the suggestion that local taxation for the support of the public schools will be substantially reduced. This venture has a very charming ring to it, but there are in the background some factors that deserve very serious thought: First of all, from what source will come the two million dollars additional revenue? Whenever a state spends more money, the people must pay the bill, whether they pay it in a direct or an indirect fashion. The second question that comes to mind is what will be the effect upon local interest in and control of education when the financial support becomes primarily a matter of state government rather than of local government. We dislike very much to see the local interest in the public schools impaired and we are rather of the opinion that those states that have the best public school systems are the states in which the public schools are supported primarily by local support and are managed more directly by the mandate of the local voters' edict. By all means let us insist that local support of the schools be not diminished if the state appropriates the $2,000,000 additional or else we are simply "robbing Peter to pay Paul."

All teachers of the state will be interested to learn of the undertaking of the State Department of Education in the revision program of studies for both the elementary and secondary schools. This job is primarily in the hands of Mr. D. W. Peters,
the Director of Elementary and Secondary Education for the State Department. Mr. Peters has a very ambitious plan for this work that challenges our interest and imagination. The plan is to enlist, in active participation in this revision, a very large number of teachers, principals, superintendents, and college instructors all over Virginia. The various State Colleges have offered the services of their faculty members to conduct courses in Curriculum Revision that will gather together large numbers of teachers and study the various problems involved in this large program in the light of the most advanced information that we have on these subjects. It is planned, at the same time, that the colleges will grant definite credit for this work which will be taken as extension work. The college at Harrisonburg has tentatively planned to give such courses in Winchester, Front Royal, Woodstock, Luray, Staunton, Waynesboro, and Harrisonburg.

Former students of the college will be interested to learn that the general economic conditions prevailing throughout the state have not served to curtail, to any appreciable extent, the enrollment, and that the college has registered for the fall term 750 students, which probably is as large or larger than any woman's college in Virginia.

A very definite campaign is being undertaken at the college to enlist the alumnae in the support of an organization that will contribute to the mutual welfare of the alumnae and the college. A large number of former students have offered their services to enroll the alumnae in their county or city. The local committee could use at least fifty more alumnae who have not already volunteered their services. Each alumna who reads this comment is urged to send in her name to the President of the college as a volunteer for this work.

Samuel P. Duke

RUSSIAN TOURS

A series of tours of Russia is being arranged for the summer of 1932 by Mrs. Lindsay Patterson, author and newspaper woman, who is now in Russia studying travel conditions and arranging itineraries, and Roy H. Mackay, who has been conducting Russian tours for the past several years.

A special tour for those who wish to make a study of political, social, and economic conditions in Russia and their international significance, will be given under the personal direction of Dr. John Barrett, authority on international relations, former United States Minister to Siam, Argentina, Panama and Colombia, and one time (1907-1920) Director General of the Pan American Union at Washington. University credit may be secured for the completion of this trip.

Those who propose to go to Russia during the coming summer are urged to submit a brief summary of their plans early in the year so that individuals of similar interests may be grouped in small parties to follow itineraries of their own choosing.

Communications should be addressed to Roy H. Mackay, New York University, Washington Square, New York City.

The goals of teaching are now set in terms of useful habits which pupils need for the higher achievements of intellectual and social life. There is no contentment with formal knowledge and formal skill in childish arts. Training is for the larger purposes of life. The matter can be formulated as follows: The modern school assumes that the pupil is ultimately to be introduced to all of the intellectual arts and to all of the practical skills which he is fitted by natural ability to take on. The goal of education is thus set in terms of a complete and broad education.

—Charles H. Judd.
EDUCATIONAL COMMENT

TWENTY "UNKNOWNs" OF SCHOOL FINANCE IN THE UNITED STATES

The Federal Office of Education has drafted twenty "unknowns" of school finance in the United States which will be delved into by the National Survey of School Finance recently launched.

Although the four-year, nation-wide study of public elementary and secondary school expenditure may not answer all of the questions suggested by the twenty "unknowns," it is expected to throw light on most of the major problems of education costs which generally confront taxpayers and educators.

Twenty "unknowns" of American school finance are:

The Cost of Public Education
1. Why has expenditure for education increased so markedly?
2. Where will present tendencies lead?
3. How much public expenditure is really needed?
4. What can we afford to spend for education?

Returns for Money Spent
5. Why do expenditures vary so widely from place to place?

6. What advantages are obtained by communities spending exceptionally large amounts for education?
7. What disadvantages are suffered by communities spending exceptionally small amounts for education?

The Tax Burden for Public Education
8. Under present financing systems, how is the tax burden for education distributed?
9. What changes in taxation and in state and Federal aid would bring about a more defensible distribution of burden?

The Elimination of Backward Areas in American Education
10. Why do they exist?
11. What will it cost to eliminate them?

Efficient Expenditure for Educational Funds
12. How can we secure greater value for what we spend?
13. How can we effect economies?
14. To what degree, if any, are we wasting money through the overeducation of some boys and girls?
15. What is the extent of waste suffered through failure to give some individuals sufficient education to develop their real potentialities?

Public Education During Business Depression
16. How should education be dealt with during business depressions?

The Use of Indebtedness
17. What place is indebtedness now taking in educational finance?
18. What place should it take?

Public Enlightenment on Educational Finance
19. How can the public be continually informed on the pertinent questions of educational finance?

The Economic Status of the Teacher
20. What are the conditions that should determine salaries of teachers?
INFORMATION ON INDIVIDUAL HEIGHT-WEIGHT RECORD

To meet the demand for a form by means of which a record of a child's growth in height and weight may be kept through his school years, the Office of Education, U. S. Department of the Interior, has devised a blank for keeping such a record, in graphic form, three times a year or less often. In addition to the height and weight records, notation can be made regarding illnesses, change of habits, injuries or other incidents in the child's history which might be expected to cause, or which seem to account for changes in his growth.

The lines representing roughly the usual rate of growth of children are omitted from the full-sized form because of the obsession that all children must be alike and that any divergence of the record of an individual child from the average means that there is something wrong with this child. As a matter of fact no two children are alike and no two children can be made to follow one pattern of growth. The child should be compared with himself and not with the average child.

The cost of the record forms is one and one-half cents each, whether in small or large lots. They may be obtained from the U. S. Office of Education in Washington, D. C.

WHAT WE DO NOT KNOW ABOUT CHILD HEALTH

"No two children are alike," says Dr. James F. Rogers, Federal Office of Education specialist in health education. "We have been trying," he points out, "to have children all weigh alike, all drink the same number of glasses (size fortunately not specified) of water, all drink the same number of pints of milk, all sleep the same number of hours, all stand and sit alike, all take the same exercises for the same number of minutes, etc.

"Most of our educational work is found-ed on supposition rather than fact, and this accounts for the rather sudden and violent changes in our ideas concerning the teachings of hygiene and physical education which have taken place from time to time," Dr. Rogers says. "We who are engaged in preserving and promoting the physical welfare of the child are ignorant of a great many things and should keep in mind that we are quite likely to go very much astray in many of our theories and practices."

TEN COLLEGE "DON'TS"

The following "don'ts" regarding college were issued for the benefit of parents by Dean Milton E. Loomis, of New York University:

1. Don't encourage or insist upon a college education for your children merely as a matter of social prestige or as a result of social pressure.

2. Don't encourage attendance upon a particular college merely because it is a choice of your children's chums.

3. Don't insist upon or take blindly for granted your own college as logical choice.

4. Don't insist upon college education merely because you had it.

5. Don't insist upon a college near at hand merely to maintain contact and supervision.

6. Don't encourage (if possible, prevent) a college merely to promote athletic interests.

7. Don't encourage college merely as an avenue to membership in a fraternity or a sorority.

8. Don't treat your son or daughter as a total loss merely because he or she did not go to college.

9. Don't discourage college merely for financial reasons.

—Journal of the NEA.
SPECIALIST IN EDUCATIONAL TESTS AND MEASUREMENTS APPOINTED

Dr. David Segal, Long Beach, Calif., has been appointed to the position of specialist in educational tests and measurements in the Federal Office of Education research and investigation division.

It will be the duty of the new education specialist to conduct studies concerned with the construction and evaluation of tests and measures of pupil progress, efficiency of teaching, and adequacy of the school program; to administer measurement programs, interpret results, make administrative adjustments and curriculum changes based on results of testing programs, and to cooperate with bureaus of research in city school systems, other research agencies, and individuals in making studies in this field. Dr. Segal will also organize and conduct an information service for school officials and others interested in problems of tests and measurements; advise and assist school officials in surveys or studies of school systems, and assist in such surveys conducted by the Office of Education.

The Modern Language Association of America will hold its forty-eighth meeting on December 28, 29, and 30, at the University of Wisconsin at Madison.

Superintendent Sidney B. Hall spoke on equalization funds in Virginia at the meeting of the National Council of State Superintendents and Commissioners of Education, held in Washington, D. C., December 7 and 8.

Highland Springs High School, Henrico County, Virginia, has an experimental building for boys in home building, including landscaping the home grounds, accounting and budgeting personal accounts, furnishing a boy's room, making conveniences for the home, etiquette, and the like.

THE READING TABLE


Simply written and profusely illustrated, this book is excellent for use as a text in a high school course in botany. It would serve admirably as a reference book for both students and teacher in a general biology course, while some parts might be used to advantage in a college course. The illustrations should be given special mention. With few exceptions they are original drawings and photographs by the author and his assistants.

M. Dorisse Howe


This author takes a different departure from most authors, in that he begins his discussion from the point of motivation—the importance of arousing desire to read upon the part of the child. There is the story motive—"surprise and plot for both sexes"—in which the child is helped to a realization "that books open up an immense world of fascinating experience"; the play motive, in which manipulation of materials, the challenge, the puzzle, "acting out" stories, creating stories—all play a part in helping the beginner to want to read; the mastery motive, bringing with it the feeling of power, or ability; the utility motive; and others. He calls to mind the fact that when a child enters school, his apperceptive background includes, as a rule, at least 2,000 words; therefore, in learning to read he goes from the auditory to the visual image.

In dealing with these and other psychological factors and processes and with methods, testing programs, and special deficiencies, Mr. Dolch has utilized much of the scientific material in the field in such manner as to make it accessible to the average teacher. The book makes for easy reading and should, therefore, be a valuable guide for her.

B. J. L.


These two books finish a delightful series. In the sixth, the material comes under the following heads: Men and Women of Action; World Neighbors; The World's Work; Open Country; The Land We Live In; Leaves From Famous Stories. The contents of the seventh read thus: The World of Nature; Old Stories That Live; Modern Stories; With People Who Do Things; Adventures in History; Know Your Country. Even Penrod and Lindbergh live in the latter book! From these selections every child will find something to enjoy and interest because each is teeming with life and color. This is true of the poetry as well as of the prose.

B. J. L.

Well named, these books provide practical reading material for illiterate adults—material which comes within the everyday experiences of these individuals. For instance, we find in Book I short, easy sentences and pictures dealing with signs, such as Stop signs, Help Wanted signs, etc. as well as with other experiences. Adult activities give added incentive to learn, for, even though one be illiterate, one does not enjoy learning to read through phrases and sentences adapted to the six-year-old. Book I also introduces material in the form of letters to friends, etc. The contents of Book II are more in the form of letters to friends, etc. The contents of Book II are more in the form of narratives and involve the idea of good citizenship along with everyday activities. Tests are found at intervals which enable adequate check-up. Book III is in process of preparation. There is a teacher’s edition to accompany each, at $1.00 per copy. These books are also recommended for badly retarded 12-to-16-year-old boys and girls.

The books are well named, too, for the reason that the authors have produced them out of their own rich experiences in teaching adults and are therefore qualified to meet their needs. They are particularly significant because of the dearth of reading material suitable for teaching illiterate adults, and should be greatly welcomed by those teachers so engaged.

B. J. L.


What fun it is getting introduced to geography through such a beautiful and delightful book! This is the first of a new series of geographical readers for the third and fourth grades. The publishers state that the underlying idea is that of world friendship and interdependence. This volume presents the two little Eskimo friends in the title, through a whole year of thrilling adventures, thereby introducing the reader to the dress, habits, customs, and industries of these people of our Northland. Read it. You will like it.

B. J. L.


How happy the child into whose hands falls this little reader for first grade children! Cinder’s story develops through seven chapters, just like a grown-up book. The situations are real; the words used are, for the greater part, found in the Gates List for Primary Grades; the numerous illustrations will delight every child who sees them.


In this group of charming stories, Miss Olcott helps us to see French child life through the activities and adventures of Jean and Fanchon. There are vivid, colorful descriptions of the simple, homely tasks of everyday life; there are the joy and laughter of carnival time, of festivals; there are interesting excursions through the perfume factory, the silk factory; and through it all runs the thread of native customs and costumes. The material is of about fourth-grade level and should prove of real interest to children of this level.

B. J. L.


We are facing the enormous job of musical reconstruction, say the authors, emphasizing the need of all the help that scientific psychology can give.

Part I deals with the foundations of musical education. The musical nature of the child and the processes of learning are discussed. Appreciation in its broadest sense is indicated as the necessary central aim.

Part II lists the factors in musical-mindedness and tells how they may be developed in school music. Mastery of the score through phrase-wise study is shown as the strongest factor in the development of musical skill.

Part III sets forth the problems of executant music.

Part IV discusses the standard test, musical materials and their evaluation, and sums up with the statement that “To teach America the achievement of loving music wisely is the ultimate aim of school music.”

This book will be particularly helpful to the teacher of school music.

E. T. Shaeffer


This edition of a work not hitherto published in any edition in the United States is offered as interesting reading for the second year of high school Spanish or the second term of college. Very few of the texts read in the first years of Spanish are in any sense contemporary. One of the merits of Notas de un Estudiante is that it is of the present day and appeals therefore very powerfully to the American student.

This book is a diary of the author’s adventures in the United States as a student in several universities. The relation of his contacts with fellow students, the daily occurrences of classroom, laboratory, and student life, the amusing incidents, all touch closely upon the interests of American students. Furthermore, our American institutions, seen through the eyes of a Spanish-American, provide sidelights on the differences between Spanish civilization and our own.

In addition, the easy, everyday vocabulary makes this volume one which the student can read with pleasure and with sufficient rapidity to enjoy as he would enjoy a story in English. The conversation has a colloquial flavor that brings home to the student the realization that after all Spanish is not just to be read but to be spoken. Many parts lend themselves to dramatization, and therefore suggestions are made in the exercises following each chapter for work of this sort.

J. A. S.
LECTURAS FÁCILES. By Lawrence A. Wilkins and Max A. Luria. New York: Silver, Burdett and Company. 1931. Pp. 266. $1.44.

For fifteen years Lecturas Fáciles has been widely used in the Spanish classes of schools and colleges. The educational principles upon which this book is based have been amply tested and their worth and suitability fully proved. The outstanding features of this book may be summed up as follows: interesting material in stories and articles; correct, idiomatic Spanish easily comprehended by students who are in the important transition stage between mastery of fundamentals and the reading of pure literature; effective, "doable" exercises; and useful appendices.

The first part of the book, Sección de cuentos europeos, has been entirely reset. Drawings illustrative of the stories have been inserted, and the texts have been considerably simplified and graded in difficulty in the light of the recent studies and investigations carried on under the direction of the Modern Foreign Language Study. The new exercises are devised to test easily the attainment of facile and comprehending reading ability, not only ascertaining the degree of comprehension but also building and extending vocabulary.

The second part, Sección panamericana, has been altered where necessary to bring informational material up to date.

Lecturas Fáciles is meant for use in the second and third term study in high school and in the second semester of Spanish in college.


That this play is a very suitable means of holding the interest of a class in Spanish is generally conceded, for its humorous situations, its characters, and its action, furnish a much needed stimulus during the early stages of the reading adjustment.

The editors have supplied notes, new-type exercises, and vocabularies. The exercises are designed to aid the rapid development of comprehension and reading ability. The notes are placed at the bottom of the page to assist the student in learning to read with satisfactory rapidity. The text is brightened with attractive drawings which picture the characters of the play and reproduce details of costumes and settings.


For the high school this is nearly the perfect text, and because of its wealth of selective material it is equally adapted to freshman college classes. This book contains an ideal selection of subject matter which is both accurate and teachable. The author knows his subject and how to present it. The material is ample to allow selection.

This book is organized on the unit basis. Twenty units are subdivided into one hundred and forty-one problems. The illustrations are well chosen and the experiments are numerous and excellent. In my opinion, this is the best book in its field.

NEWS OF THE COLLEGE AND ITS ALUMNAE

The opening of the college session, on September 21, brought many old girls back for the purpose of introducing their younger sisters or nieces or high school pupils or other freshmen in whom they are interested.

Mrs. Lilla (Gerow) Diehl was installing a niece, and Lucile Early (Mrs. Albert Fray) once again stood in line on registration day so as to see two of her pupils through and to get them settled in their courses of study.

No alumna has yet brought hither her own girl, to be enrolled as Alma Mater's first grand-daughter, but many have been declared prospective students, even from very tender years. Of this list of probabilities, Alma (Ross) Harper's baby was number one. The total count now would be an interesting problem in higher mathematics. For instance, Althea (Cox) Pace is the proud mother of seven children, her eldest daughter being in high school. The household of Ellen Bowman (Mrs. L. H. Fowler, of Denbigh, Virginia) is not so crowded. Her girl is about eight years older than the boy, L. H. junior.

Of course great numbers of the former students—like Kathleen Watson, of Charleston, West Virginia—send their pupils to Harrisonburg, although prevented from accompanying these during the busy opening weeks of their own schools. At least we shall look for such alumnae at commencement four years hence, when these freshmen take their degrees.

One who sent up a niece this fall was Mrs. F. H. Drewry, of Boykins, who was a score of years ago Willye White of tennis fame on the campus.

Evelyn Groton is enjoying the novelty of teaching on the island of Tangier, Virginia. The unique thing about this experience is that there are no automobiles or horses to be seen. But she does not miss them, for
she has only to walk a little way to the shore and take a boat instead. Evelyn Wilson, who is with Miller and Rhoads, in Richmond, could doubtless tell a very different story.

It was most fitting that Rosa Hopkins and her husband, Mr. Epperley Agee, should come to Harrisonburg and Massanetta on their bridal trip.

Miss Azile Schwarz, who graduated last year, is teaching the sixth grade in Chatham, Va.

Miss Elizabeth Dishman, who graduated last year, is teaching now at Gainesboro.

Miss Norma Wilson, of Big Stone Gap, is teaching at Overton, Va.

Miss Margaret Kelly, of Big Stone Gap, is teaching at East Stone Gap, Va.

Miss Virginia Gilliam, editor-in-chief of last year’s Schoolma’am, is now teaching at Carson, Va.

Miss Emma Mantiply, a graduate of '29, is now teaching at Maple Run School in Amherst County, Va.

Miss Louise Myers is now teaching in New Castle, Va.

Miss Helen Caldwell is now teaching in Barbours Creek, Va.

Miss Virginia Jordan Stark, a graduate of '31, is teaching in an elementary school in Norfolk, Va.

Miss Florence Stephenson, a graduate of '31, is teaching in Wakefield, Va.

Miss Mary Lowman, who graduated in 1931, is spending the winter at her home in Pulaski, Va.

Miss Mae Brown, who graduated in 1931, is teaching 330 pupils in Washington and Lee High School. She was a guest on campus the week-end of September 26.

Miss Evelyn Groton, 1933, is teaching on Tangier Island, Va., where there are neither automobiles nor horses. But then there is no place to go!

Miss Evelyn Wilson is with Miller and Rhoads in Richmond, Va.

Miss Mary Watt is teaching in Franklin, Va.

Miss Anna Keyser is county demonstrator in Louisa County, Va.

Marriages recently reported are the following:

Miss Alice Bartlett was married last Easter to Mr. Lawrence Edmonds.

Miss Margaret Birsch was married in February to Mr. Leon Hall, of Norfolk, Va.

Miss Velma Barker was married to Mr. Percy Jennings Searce, in Richmond on September 26.

Miss Catherine Fagan was married October 17 to Mr. Glad Birsch, of Norfolk, Va.

Miss Lillian Derry was married to Mr. Ralph Brown last June, in Norfolk.

Miss Bernice Wilkins was married last August at her home in Portsmouth to Lieutenant Francis Marion McAllister. He is now situated at Camp Rapidan.

Miss Helen Knight became the bride of Harry Berry and at the same time Miss Julia Becton was married to Mr. James Rodgers, in Bluntville, Tenn., on September 7.

Miss Katherine N. C. Harris is now Mrs. Geo. B. Evans, and her address in the spring was 122 East 64th Street, New York City.

Miss Ida Pinner was married August 1 in Suffolk to Mr. Hugh Leffler, a professor in the State College at Raleigh, N. C.

On October 9, Miss Frances Clarke was married to Mr. William Heffinger. Their residence is at Hanland Circle, Danville, Va.

VOCATIONAL JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS?

"The notion that junior high schools can profitably offer genuine preparation for any vocation is fantastic. Already the more progressive junior high schools have ceased pretending to taxpayers that their offerings are in any significant sense vocational."—DR. DAVID SNEEDEN, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY.
DIRECTORY OF STUDENT OFFICERS

FALL QUARTER, 1931-32

STUDENT GOVERNMENT ASSOCIATION

Harriet Ulrich, Norfolk, president; Kitty Bowen, Mechums River, vice-president; Catherine Markham, Portsmouth, secretary-treasurer; Julia Duke, Harrisonburg, editor of Handbook.

Y. W. C. A.

Pauline Efford, Farnham, president; Louise Harwell, Petersburg, vice-president; Bessie Grinnan, Smithfield, secretary; Emma Jane Shultz, Staunton, treasurer.

ATHLETIC ASSOCIATION

Martha Warren, Lynchburg, president; Ercelle Reade, Peters burg, vice-president; Emilyn Peterson, Lake City, Florida, business manager.

PUBLICATIONS

The Schoohna'am—Margaret Moore, Norfolk, editor-in-chief; Catherine Bard, Norfolk, business manager.

The Breeze—Catherine Howell, Low Moor, editor-in-chief; Janet M. Lowrie, Pinar del Rio, Cuba, business manager.

SOCITIES

Kappa Delta Pi—Julia Duke, Harrisonburg, president; Florence Dickerson, South Boston, vice-president; Edna Motley, Chatham, secretary-treasurer; Martha Boaz, Stuart, recording secretary and historian; Margaret Beck, Winchester, reporter.

Stratford Dramatic Club—Florence Dickerson, South Boston, president; Linda Sanders, White Stone, vice-president; Madaline Newbill, Harrisonburg, secretary; Mary Cloe, Charleston, W. Va., treasurer; Prudence Spooner, Franklin, business manager.

Lanier Literary Society—Virginia Hallet Cheriton, president; Mary Coyner, Waynesboro, vice-president; Virginia Strongman, Raleigh, N. C., secretary-treasurer; Pauline Carmines, Hampton, chairman of program committee; Eva Holland, Eastville, critic; Helen Wick, Charleston, W. Va., sergeant-at-arms.

Lee Literary Society—Dorothy Rhodes, president; Mary Hyde, Winchester, vice-president; Ruth Watt, Charleston, W. Va., secretary; Mildred Simpson, Norfolk, treasurer; Frances Neblett, Victoria, sergeant-at-arms; Ercelle Reade, Petersburg, critic.

Page Literary Society—Emma Jane Shultz, Staunton, president; Gladys Farrar, Rustburg, vice-president; Polly Perryman, Winston-Salem, N. C., secretary; Elizabeth Warren, Lynchburg, treasurer; Laura Melchor, Winston-Salem, N. C., chairman program committee; Laura Melchor, business manager; Elizabeth Townsend, Mangquin, sergeant-at-arms.

Alpha Literary Society—Frances Ralston, Mt. Clinton, president; Elizabeth Warren, Lynchburg, treasurer.

Acopian Music Club—Garnet Hamrick, Winchester, president; Louise Hoskin, Roanoke, vice-president; Eleanor Moore, Gastonia, N. C., treasurer; Helen Wick, Charleston, W. Va., chairman program committee.

Choral Club—Polly Perryman, Winston-Salem, president; Mary Cloe, Charleston, W. Va., vice-president; Mildred Simpson, Norfolk, secretary-treasurer.

Glee Club—Bessie Grinnan, Smithfield, president; Sally Face, Hampton, vice-president; Evelyn Watkins, Norfolk, secretary; Margaret Beck, Winchester, business manager; Garnet Hamrick, Winchester, assistant business manager; Ruth Watt, Charleston, W. Va., librarian.

Blue-stone Orchestra—Priscilla Harman, Dayton, president; Catherine Twyford, Wardstown, vice-president; Laura Melchor, Winston-Salem, N. C., secretary-treasurer.

Frances Sale Club—Elizabeth Rhoades, Culpeper, president; Virginia Richards, Winchester, vice-president; Catherine Twyford, Wardstown, secretary-treasurer; Gertrude Blake, Kilmarock, sergeant-at-arms.

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