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SUPERINTENDENT HALL on
Economies in School Administration

English Curriculum Problems
by J. Paul Leonard

How Much Grammar in High School?
by Gladys G. Gambill

Training the Elementary Student-Teacher in
Curriculum Construction
by Virginia Buchanan

Educational Comment

The Reading Table

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SOME ECONOMIES IN PUBLIC SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

INTRODUCTION.—During this particular period of financial depression the term economy is a popular word. Most any program can gain attention by announcing that it is intended to bring about certain economies. Economy in public school administration, however, means transferring to the rising generation, in the shortest amount of time and in the most efficient manner, the “group culture” and habits and methods of work which are likely to prove useful in the life which they will lead. Time is not, however, the only consideration. If what we teach is unimportant and superficial, no matter how long studied, it is uneconomical. If we permit the progress of the gifted to be retarded by the plodding and average student, it is uneconomical. If we permit a heavy percentage of our students to drop out or withdraw before graduation, it is uneconomical. If we permit or require students to acquire a fund of knowledge, habits, and methods of work which are not useful in their chosen life’s work, it is uneconomical. If we permit an excessive amount of retardation and too many failures, it is uneconomical. If we permit “teaching units” to exist below a justifiable size, it is uneconomical. If we permit an excessive overhead expenditure for education, it is uneconomical. If we permit our schools to remain open 180 days and secure only 110 days of average attendance, it is uneconomical. If we permit our transportation program to be run and managed in such a way as to become excessively costly, it is uneconomical.

Time will not permit me to explain in detail how each of the suggestions just made can be administered in the most economical manner. I desire, however, to select a few of the situations and indicate briefly how certain economies may be realized.

A. The Problem of School Attendance.—

The Virginia school census counts 724,137 children of school age. The attendance records in the public schools show 79,855,869 days attended, or only 110 days per census child. The records show, however, that the schools were kept open an average of 170 days. Hence, we are wasting through non-attendance a considerable amount of school funds. Probably 10% to 15% waste through non-attendance is necessary; but no school division should be satisfied until 85% to 90% of its school population is in the public schools each day the schools are open and, in addition, have 98% to 100% of the children fully accounted for—in private schools, in out-of-state schools, in colleges, in welfare institutions, etc.

The state is now employing a sufficient number of teachers to teach every child of school age in the state—a teacher for each forty-two children. Of course, these teachers are not properly distributed; but there are glaring inequalities in the distribution of teachers in almost every school division. It is estimated that from one-half to two-thirds of the 616 non-legal schools with fewer than twenty pupils in average daily attendance can easily become legal schools if the teachers, school authorities, and patrons work for better attendance. There is not a school division in the state (with the possible exception of Scott County) that should not be able to secure much more education for the
money it spends through increasing attendance. The fact that we enrol only 80% of our school population and give the average child of school age only 110 days schooling in a year is a serious reflection upon the regard with which Virginians hold education, the interest which teachers create in school work, and the efficiency of school officials. We must face the issue, accept the responsibility, and right this deplorable condition.

What can be done?

1. Make good school attendance a condition for:
   a. Keeping a school open. Do not allow a school to run with the full quota of teachers or the full term unless the attendance keeps up. This forces public opinion to assert itself and keep the would-be delinquent in school.
   b. Securing maximum financial benefits. The state can do much in this respect through the distribution of at least half of the state funds on the basis of attendance. Several counties have made attendance a basis for determining the monthly salary of teachers, and report good results.

2. Make the schools so good that the pupils and patrons want to make full use of them. (This will be discussed more fully later.)

3. Make wise use of the compulsory attendance law.

B. The Problem of Retardation and Failure.—Ten years ago the average school child in Virginia counties was retarded two years. Last year the retardation was only one year. This has been commendable progress, but an average retardation of one year costs Virginia about $3,000,000 a year to re-teach pupils who failed to learn the first time they had an opportunity.

What can be done to reduce this waste?

1. Provide adequate and capable supervision of instruction. This measure alone will eliminate about two-thirds of this waste, or make a saving of $2,000,000 at a cost of approximately one-third of this sum, or about $700,000. It should be considered professional malpractice to organize a school system without making provision for classroom supervision. There is probably no other educational practice which is so completely justified by scientific measurement as is supervision in rural schools. Supervision improves the teaching, creates pupil interest, increases attendance, and tones up the work of the school from every angle. It costs only a small fraction of its measured value, and its unmeasured values are thought to be of much greater importance than the measured improvement in learning the three R's and in increased attendance.

2. Furnish free textbooks and teaching materials. These, of the right sort, are comparable, for eliminating waste, to the substitution of scythe for the sickle. In a few cases we might even make the comparison between the scythe and mowing machine. Science has made great progress during the past five years in inventing more effective teaching and learning tools. To ignore them is to continue unnecessary waste of public funds. About two dollars per child should be set aside for teaching and learning tools—textbooks, self-help work books, study guides, etc.

3. Organize health instruction and free clinics. Superintendent Irby, of Rockbridge County, estimates (after careful study of records over a period of years) that the poor physical
condition of his pupils costs the county $12,000 a year. His Five Point pupils make much better records and only a small percentage of them fail and have to be retaught. Rockbridge has an efficient health unit and is above the state average for Five Point pupils. School money spent for health service, according to the Virginia state program, is money well spent and brings increased educational values as well as great human comfort and lengthened life.

C. The Problem of “Teacher Load.”—Virginia employs one teacher for each twenty-eight pupils in average daily attendance. The City of Pittsburgh sees a need for only one teacher to forty-two pupils in average daily attendance. Maryland distributes its state money on the basis of forty pupils in average daily attendance per teacher. Many experiments show that classes of forty-five to fifty-five pupils are as satisfactory as smaller classes. In sixty-four Virginia counties when pupil learning was measured and averaged by size of class, in 1929-30, the first six places went to pupils in classes of thirty-five or more pupils. The evidence tends to indicate that learning takes place more rapidly in classes of thirty-five or more pupils. Sparseness of population will not account for the small class size in Virginia. Poor attendance has its influence, but the real cause is to be found in the schools with two or more teachers and a false conception of “grading” pupils.

What can be done?

1. Assign teachers, on the average, larger classes (thirty to forty pupils) and increase their salaries. Your teachers will be glad to take the extra pupils at one-half the per capita cost.

2. Divide the so-called “grades” if necessary, to adjust the teacher-load. The best half of any grade is more advanced and can do better work than the lowest quarter of the grade above. A little mixing up will tend to force your teachers to remember that they are teaching children instead of grades.

D. The Problem of Transportation.—Virginia is now spending over $1,000,000 a year on transportation and is surely headed toward $5,000,000 or $10,000,000. As a rule, the present costs for transportation are about twice what can be justified by the public service rendered. At present rates, the potential transportation costs in Virginia are $10,000,000 annually, but with proper management a high type of service can be had for half that amount. Much of our present transportation is for the favored few. Only a few counties appear to have an equitable county-wide program of transportation. Over half of the bus routes are let by contract. The data show that those counties owning and operating their own buses get a higher type of service for about twenty-five per cent less money. This is generally true in Virginia and several other states where a careful study has been made. The only just argument in favor of the contract system is that it relieves public officials and employees of their inherent duties. Where county ownership and operation fail, poor management is the cause.

What can be done?

1. Work out a fair and equitable transportation program for the county, so that the service is free to all who need it on the same terms.

2. Work out long routes with one bus serving several schools en route, instead of having several buses making short hauls into one center. Such routing may sometimes enable four buses to give better service than eight
or ten buses running to small centers.

3. Own and operate your own buses.

Summary.—The four economies mentioned are only a few of the possible ones suggested in the introduction. A forty-eight weeks’ school term might more than cut the present cost of education in half, co-operative purchasing of supplies might net the state no insignificant sum, and so on through numerous items, small and large. The educational dollar is probably spent more wisely than any other dollar of public funds, unless Health and Welfare have a just claim; but as efficiency engineers in education, we have barely started. Virginia is the first and only state so far to officially organize to test its own laws, regulations, and standards in a systematic and comprehensive way. We have been buying education “in a poke” long enough. We need to know what we intend to purchase and take a look at it rather than pay out good money for something which is thought to represent something which might be good.

The fundamental principles of economy in education are:

1. Know specifically what school money is supposed to purchase.

2. Pay out the money only on evidence that educational values have been received. These principles are easier stated than practiced, but we can do much more in this respect than we have been doing. The emphasis in education for the next decade or two should be upon how to secure more education for the money we have.

Sidney B. Hall

We think if by tight economy we can manage to arrive at independence, then indeed we will begin to be generous without stay. We sacrifice all nobleness to a little present meanness.—Thoreau.
on solid ground in our educational program.

In the first place, the social and industrial life which the normal child of today enters is in only a few respects like the one his grandfather knew. The demands made upon him are of a different nature, and the training and education he receives must likewise be changed if he is to be able to cope with the experiences of life. However, there abounds on all sides plenty of evidence, scientific and otherwise, to convince the thinking man that the average modern high school and college are more like than unlike those institutions which served his grandparents. In other words, our educational institutions are recognized social laggards and have been unable to orient themselves properly and adapt their instruction and purposes to a changed social order.

In the second place, the principle of public support of education is universally accepted today. Educational institutions are, therefore, business investments and not philanthropies. If they are business investments, they must account creditably for the money spent, and their products must show satisfactory evidence of the worth of this expenditure. It is incumbent upon us as state educational employees to return satisfactory stewardship to the agency that trusts its children and its funds to our care. Some figures are pertinent here. In the eleven southern states reporting to the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools the average number of children graduating from the high schools the last five years was only 15.3% of the total enrolment of those secondary schools. In Virginia alone this figure was 13.4%. When more than six-sevenths of our high school children leave the secondary school without completing it, either because of accumulated social forces operating against them or are forced out because of a lack of peculiar fitness to meet the requirements of the narrow curriculum and selective subject matter, our schools cannot be said to be paying those returns normally expected from a sound business investment. Dr. Briggs\(^1\) states the matter clearly when he says: "It is a paradox of democracy for the state to reach its hands into the pockets of the poor to procure funds for the advancement of those already blessed by nature or by parental heritage, and yet this is exactly what the state is doing." And that, after collecting the money, it forces out a large number of the children of those from whom it collected its funds is made strikingly significant in this statement. The real forcefulness of the issue, however, is not brought to our attention until one of our own flesh and blood finds difficulty or fails in our educational institutions. We have not lost sight of the fact that the numbers in our high schools have increased tremendously, but we seem to be but slightly conscious of the decrease of the selectivity of the personnel and of their needs and contemplated service to humanity.

In the third place, and this issue is closely related to the second one I have just raised, we are confused over the selection of the materials of the curriculum which we shall require the child to study. We are grasping at the straws of doubt because we are uncertain both of the present offerings and of the value of untried materials. We are asking children to gamble their lives away on contingent values. The one dominating force that has determined the content of the high school curriculum from the early academies to our present institutions is the college. It has so phrased its requirements for admission that every child in America who has ever attained all or part of a secondary school education has felt the force of its strength. To the credit of the college let it be said that it has not done this with malicious intent, but only in an attempt to define a college-fit person and to guarantee to itself the quality of student it desires for admission. In claiming a right

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to determine the nature of the student seeking admission to its doors, the college is within its legal and moral bounds; but to do this in such a way as to define the curriculum for every adolescent boy and girl in America, within and without its bounds, is to be untrue to the very principle of academic freedom which it holds sacred. As I see it, the average college is at present laboring under three misapprehensions regarding its entrance requirements:

1. It believes that examining its entrant by asking him to present evidence in the form of an office record of the subjects he has studied is the best means of determining his fitness for a college education. There is more scientific evidence to disprove than to prove this contention. The successful practical experiences of a growing number of colleges is a contradiction of this point of view.

2. It assumes that the study of certain subjects before college entrance is essential to successful pursuit of college courses. Here the college desires both background and discipline. The college student who can, without having worked off his short entrance unit, successfully pass the courses for which that given entrance unit was supposed to have been a pre-requisite is an embarrassment to this theory and a contradiction of its veracity. The shadow of discipline still hovers around the door of the registrar's office. Here again scientific experimentation has accumulated much evidence to show the ineffectiveness of general discipline or of the transfer of general learning.

3. The college assumes that it can specify its entrance requirements as it now does without being unfair to the high-school population or without being inconsistent with democratic ideals of universal education of which it itself is a component part. That it cannot do this can be demonstrated by an examination of the required entrance units and the content of the courses. An excellent example of the effect of the entrance unit requirement in a field outside of English may be illustrated by the condition in plane geometry in the State of Virginia. The State Board of Education does not require plane geometry for high school graduation, yet about 20% of the county boards of education in the state, if an unselected third of them can be said to be representative of all of them, have required plane geometry for graduation from high school because 20 Virginia colleges either demand it for an entrance unit or require it to be taken in college without credit. Similar conditions exist in the languages. The force of the college entrance requirement confronts the freshman and the sophomore.

In Virginia it is practically impossible to specify college entrance requirements as we now do and not require every high-school child outside of our city schools to conform to them or leave high school without graduating. Here again let me present figures from the reports of the high schools in the Southern Association. For the last five years in the eleven states reporting to this association, the number of high-school pupils who entered college was on the average only 7.4% of those enrolled in the high schools. In Virginia alone the percentage was 6.2%. Should our secondary schools be chiefly college preparatory schools if the needs of the 93% of the children from them who do not enter college be the dominant consideration? That high schools are college prep-schools, however, is certified partially by an examination of the figures showing the selectivity of the senior classes and the percentage of students in that group who go to college. Previously in this paper I have shown that in Virginia during the past five years only 15.3% of the students enrolled graduate from high school (a truly
select body); of this number only 46.6% have gone to college. This is the group the college is concerned with—only six children out of every one hundred who enter Virginia high schools. In fairness, may I ask you how many votes should the man in a business corporation be allowed who controls only 6% of the stock?

In the fourth and last place, what subject matter is of most worth to the adolescent child? Spencer raised a question the world has been trying to answer ever since. We do not know the definite answer, but educational philosophy based upon our social changes and these conditions in our high school which I have mentioned is proposing some characteristics of this subject matter.

It believes, first, that subject matter must be selected and arranged in accord with the following generally accepted contributions of modern educational theory: (1) General transfer is not automatic and inevitable. Certain definite principles must be followed to secure desirable transfer. (2) Desirable mental discipline does not come from studying what is merely difficult or unpleasant. The most potent example of our lack of faith in this tenet is that we rarely ever apply it to ourselves. (3) Provision must be made for this large heterogeneous group of children in the secondary schools. The high school must not expect all to master the same materials. (4) Education for social efficiency and for successful group participation in our increasingly complex society is essential. One does not learn to solve his life problems by memorizing the facts of historical significance or by recalling them in sequential order. Neither does one learn to be a worthy contributor to his social group by merely becoming a competent individual thinker. The dominant cry of progressive education as it concerns subject matter is that materials must be presented in a social setting when the need arises. Every course must be of maximum value within itself and must not depend upon future use for its justification. The theory that man must wait for the future to use his learning is not only a deleterious doctrine, but it is inconsistent with the demands of daily life, and contrary to the findings of experimental psychology.

With these foregoing facts and principles in mind, let me propose some basic assumptions regarding the English curriculum for your consideration in determining the content of our high-school course of study for Virginia. Let me make it clear at the outset that the high schools of the state have gone beyond the college entrance requirements as far as the number of high-school units required for graduation is concerned. Nearly all of the colleges in Virginia require three units in English for entrance, whereas the State Board of Education specifies four units for graduation. The difference of opinion between the high school and the college, therefore, is not over the amount of English taken in high school; but the polemical question centers in the nature and the purpose of the English studied. In presenting the aspects of this issue, I shall discuss them under the divisions of reading and expression.

The printed page is the one most important source of the child’s information. Hence he should, first of all, be able to read well all the different kinds of materials which rightfully confront him during his secondary school experiences. Secondly, he should desire to read and should know where to find reading materials which will satisfy his needs and desires during this period. Literature should, therefore, afford him an opportunity to invest his leisure profitably, and the habit of turning to it frequently should be established in the secondary school.

There must be two dominant criteria for the selection of reading material for the high-school child: (1) Are the selections within the range of his comprehension with-
out undue effort, and (2) are the themes of the selections related to the child's experiences and to the paramount interests of adolescent children? From the high-school teacher's point of view, the ultimate objective in presenting any literary selection must be found within that writing itself. These criteria are obviously contrary to the intent of the well-known classifications of literature into short stories, novels, essays, lyrics, epics, and the like. Research can be of very great value to us here. Burke's Conciliation Speech studied for its fine qualities, The Fairy Queen, Sesame and Lilies, and much of Huxley, Lamb, and Ruskin now taught must go from the high-school course. The grade placement of many more well-known selections will also be changed. If the high school sends to the college a pupil who can read well and who loves literature, the level of college freshmen in English will be raised many times; the other alternative is to spend endless hours drilling on uncomprehended phrases to a mass of uninterested children. The results of this sort of training the college professor is now endeavoring to instruct.

In expression there are certain functional centers of speaking and writing. A child does not learn correctness by giving formal oral compositions in school and by making errors in conversation. The high-school English course should, therefore, seek out those functional centers of adolescent expression—conversation, group discussions, recounting experiences, business and social letters, formal and informal notes, etc. These experiences should receive much practice. To express oneself correctly in these situations requires a certain knowledge of form, of language and sentence structure, of spelling, of pronunciation, and the like. The essential facts which function in expression must be selected and taught as functional elements of speech and writing. Correct use, then, takes precedence over formal knowledge. That the necessity for these skills is not equally distributed among all children is common knowledge; the requirements must, therefore, be as flexible as the needs of these children.

To develop an interest in the effective use of the mother tongue is a responsibility of every one engaged in education from the first grade through the university, regardless of the subject he teaches. The medium of expression and a mastery of the technique of reading cut across every subject-matter line. To the child the mind of the English teacher, who seems to be the only one who cares about correct English, seems to be a phenomenon of nature. One step further, the secondary teacher of English must be relieved of the obligation of teaching the grammar of languages in the English course. If the grammar of Latin is essential in the study of Latin, the teacher of Latin is under obligation to present it; it is not the responsibility of the teacher of English to teach it as English grammar.

Let me summarize. We must build a program of secondary-school English which will be of maximum value to the adolescent child at the given years of his maturity. His needs and not the special interests of any group must be the determining force. We must choose those elements of language and literature which function most in the experiences of high-school children. We must provide for changes in requirements to care for the known variations of student capacities, abilities, and interests. We must present our choice of materials fairly, intelligently, and effectively. When these have been intelligently determined and properly taught, there is no good reason why the child should not master them and master them for good. With this training in high school the college must content itself and build upon it whatever program it deems, by intelligent study, to be of most profit to the student. It is for the student of the adolescent child, whether he be
teaching in high school or college, to determine what essentials that child is to study, and it is not for the college to specify arbitrarily. When these essentials are taught effectively and the college has a right to expect the high school to do that, the college may well cease to concern itself with what the student has studied and turn its attention to how skillfully and how easily he has learned. If the college is to be anything more than a continuation of the high school, it may as yet be a prediction to say that the child best prepared for college is the one who is capable of using his knowledge in a social situation to solve the problems of his maturity. He will excel the one who presents himself to the college doors with a head full of facts and a declaration of "I have had)—all in the past tense. I say it may now be a prediction; but it may well become a truism.

J. Paul Leonard

HOW MUCH GRAMMAR IN THE HIGH SCHOOL?

THE subject which I have been asked to speak briefly about is "How Much Grammar in the High School?" Last year one of our little girls wrote a play which she called "Slippery Business"—a title which, I think, might be a suitable designation for the business of teaching grammar. Indeed, so problematic is this business of teaching grammar that I am reminded of Tennyson's little verse, "Flower in the Crannied Wall," which, you remember, concludes:

. . . . if I could understand
What you are, root and all, and all in all,
I should know what God and man is.

After working early and late upon a unit on verb usage our teacher of grammar teaches the unit as carefully as she can and two days after its conclusion hears one of her pupils shout, "He never done it!" At such a time we all feel that if we knew how to develop within three or four weeks language habits which would supercede undesirable ones, we should know "what God and man is."

I have long wished that a group of English teachers from Virginia high schools might sit down with a group of college teachers of English for a lengthy and an informal discussion of our intentions and results, and also for the purpose of articulating a list of specific grammar objectives to be set up for various levels of the high school and for the college freshman. I earnestly hope that such an effort will be made soon.

However, most of us are sufficiently experienced not to be misled by mirages. We realize that when we set up grammar goals for different levels of achievement in the secondary school we have only begun an effort to name our problem. For grammar is a slippery business, and goals definitely tabulated have ways of seeming to disperse before our eyes, or of showing themselves inextricably bound with others. Therefore, in reply to our question, "How Much Grammar in the High School?" I say, first that a set of specific goals is desirable and will aid us greatly in clarifying our problem, but, second, that grammar is a slippery business, that a set of goals can never be the final solution to our problem, and, third, that our goals as well as our technique must become much more experimental.

For a decade or more we have witnessed the slow death of formal and scientific grammar pursued with a passion for scientific exactitude. We feel now that most of our grammar teaching in high school should be done through sufficient practice to inculcate permanent habits. The teacher of functional grammar keeps a set of compositions on file and watches week by week the pupil's demonstration in his writing of grammatical principles learned in the regular grammar class. Lengthy arguments
fired at random into the air no longer illustrate the grammar-teaching situation. The result of this new emphasis upon the usability of grammar we are calling functional grammar.

Now if we assume an experimental attitude toward the problem of how much grammar, our reply is two-fold: (1) Let society through language usage set the desired language goals; and, (2) let the pupil, doing his best, set the goal of amount. I repeat. The question is: How much grammar shall we teach in the high school? and the answer is dual. Let social usage establish the kind and number of goals and let the pupil's powers of learning establish the degree or amount of adaptation.

Perhaps you are wondering what goals I should leave to the college. To the college freshman course I would leave formal grammar, a theoretical interpretation and tying together of habits established earlier in the elementary and the secondary schools. We are not all convinced that it is desirable for everyone to go to college. Certainly large numbers of young people in this state do not go to college. My belief is that the high school grammar course should be designed to provide its graduates with the minimum essentials of language facility in an average social level. The secondary school course must not depend upon the college to do much toward inculcating minimum essentials of the language level used by the mythical "average" man. And it is my belief that if we discard textbooks of formal grammar, grammar taught for logical completeness, and if we adopt an attitude purely experimental, grammar will become a much less slippery business than it is now, and we shall all be surprised by the unanimity of our discoveries.

If we agree to allow social usage to establish our language goals, we must examine social usage. Several important studies bearing upon usage await us. One is Mr. Krapp's Comprehensive Guide to Good English. Fowler's Modern Usage is another, while we can not ignore The American Language, by Mr. Mencken. Of still more significance, though, is "How Much English Grammar?" by Stormzand and O'Shea (Warwick and York Co., Inc., Baltimore, 1924). These two gentlemen, while teaching in the University of Wisconsin, studied the question of grammar objectives in the light of present-day usage. They examined contemporary usage in all types of modern prose from classical essays to light fiction and the daily newspapers, as well as usage in papers done by elementary and high school pupils and university students. From ten thousand sentences of a heterogeneous nature was compiled a list of language constructions used most often. Thus you see that these gentlemen were not concerned with an error count or the securing of a list of "don'ts" but with a count of constructions used most frequently in general discourse. From the findings of this study we may glance at a few recommendations. It appears that the following aspects of grammar are not justified in functional course:

1. Classification of sentences according to meaning.
2. Classification of kinds of adverbial and noun clauses.
3. The various infinitive constructions, especially substantive infinitives.
5. Case construction of nouns.
6. Classification of nouns and pronouns.
7. Subjunctive form of verbs.
8. All non-future uses of "shall" and "will."
9. Comparison of adjectives.
10. Classification of adverbs.

Aspects of grammar found in the light of usage to be of the utmost practical value are:

1. Classification of sentences according to form.
2. Prolonged practice upon the dependent clause in sentence manipulation.
3. Extensive practice upon the participle as a means to control the sentence.
4. Case constructions of pronouns.
5. Transitive verbs with pronoun objects.
6. Transitive verbs instead of intransitive and copulative ones.
7. Emphasis upon voice for acquiring a flexible style.
8. Prolonged attention to the use of the simple present and past tenses with little attention to perfect tenses.
9. Drills upon irregular verb forms in sentences.
10. Voluminous drill work on uses of conjunctions in showing thought relations.

Without minimizing the problem, I wish to call your attention to the fact that this list of language adaptations compiled upon the basis of widespread usage is much shorter and much less formidable than we might have expected it to be. Probably our problem is not as much one of too many goals, but rather one of prolonged and functional attention to a few key habits.

In a discussion of grammar objectives one usually hears much of error counts. All of you know something of the famous Charters error count taken in the sixth and seventh grades of the Kansas City schools. Your attention is called to two conclusions regarding the use of error counts in constructing a list of grammar goals:

I. Mr. Charters found that the validity of an error count is not increased by volume of material. On the other hand, a relatively small amount of work done by your pupils will give an accurate index of the relative importance of various errors for any particular group. A single paper of 150 words from each pupil is sufficient material for each of us to determine dependable conclusions.

II. Error counts are not the intelligent basis for a grammar course because most of the highest ranking errors are errors of carelessness rather than of ignorance. The error count made by Roy Ivan Johnson of 132 high school freshmen shows the highest percentage of error in spelling, the next highest in punctuation, the next highest in careless omission or repetition. Thus a course of study based upon this error count would give three times as much attention to spelling as to sentence structure. An error count supplies a valuable basis for remedial supervision or perhaps one unit on miscellaneous details, but a course of study in grammar based upon error counts alone would be unwise.

Thus far in this discussion of "How Much Grammar Shall the High School Teach?" I have endeavored to indicate my belief that we cannot profitably begin by laying down an arbitrary set of objectives, that the aim of the high school course must be primarily functional grammar, that any list of goals should grow out of a constructive study of language needs similar in its method to the study by Stormzand and O'Shea, and that error counts should not be relied upon to influence in a large way the formulating of such a set of goals. All these problems are related to the administration and the teacher of grammar. There is, however, another angle to the problem, and that is the individual pupil. Let us ask the pupil "How Much Grammar?"

By this I mean that pupils can be trusted to set their own degrees of attainment. Today we are tossed constantly upon the horns of a great educational dilemma. Two conflicting philosophies and psychologies of learning draw us first one way, then the other, in establishing standards of achievement. One school proclaims that there are no half-way stops in learning: that the pupil either masters completely, so that he can use 100% what he has learned, or that he has not learned. Mr. Morrison is our great exponent of the 100% mastery psychology. Again, another group advocates the use of the median and the standard deviation as
set by the pupils themselves. The evaluating of proficiency is not made upon the basis of a 100% absolutism but instead upon the basis of an average attainment set by the pupils and upon the extent to which pupils rise above or fall below this average. If we grammar teachers are to maintain our equilibrium, I believe that we must give up the ideal of absolutism and follow the standard deviation method. Thus considering the individual pupils in answer to the question, "How Much Grammar?" I would say, how much water shall we put into a given vessel? As much as it will hold. Let us give the pupil as much as he can absorb and let us depend upon him to establish his capacity.

Those of us who are fortunate enough to be able to buy standardized tests with national norms or medians can very easily maintain a balance in this matter of allowing the pupils to set their own standards of achievement. We have available today several excellent English tests which we can use from time to time in an effort to compare our results with those of other schools. Such tests as the Columbia University English Test, the Tressler tests, the Pressey tests, and the Iowa Language tests have been compiled by experts and seem usually to test the right thing in the right way. While I believe that in several instances the norms published with these tests are too low for us to accept them as our objective, yet these norms will undoubtedly rise as English teaching is placed upon a more scientific basis and the tests are used more widely. However, if you can not purchase standardized tests occasionally in order to check up on your local situation you can formulate your own test upon your own objectives and by keeping statistics and adding figures after each testing program, gradually evolve a pretty sound set of norms for your own school. Please do not misunderstand my lengthy reference here to tests. I have said above that the teacher of functional grammar realizes that the real test comes in writing a personal letter outside school or in a telephone conversation. But there is always, however much we deplore it, a gap between what the pupil actually learns and what the teacher thinks he learns. I have only suggested that in answering the question of how much grammar we remember the individual pupil. When setting up goals for him to achieve, we can well afford to keep an eye upon his degree of attainment as a standardized test shows it. The only way in which it can be a mistake to evaluate the progress of children on the probability curve is for a majority of children to refuse on a test to do their best—a most unlikely situation.

There remains one other aspect of the grammar course in high school. I have recommended that a secondary school grammar curriculum be primarily functional and constructive, and that it shun the practice of hair-splitting analyses of substantive infinitives and mental gymnastics which used to characterize it when we studied and discussed grammar but did little writing, at the same time too when our rhetoric course consisted mainly of the memorizing of definitions for unity, coherence, emphasis, and case. Is there then no need for scientific grammar in the high school? Should we never teach gerunds, compound tenses, and noun clauses? Such a course is, I believe, highly desirable in the Senior year. Such functional usages as I have described earlier are our goals in the Freshman, Sophomore, and Junior years. A more or less formal study of grammar using such a book as Kittredge and Farley should tie up loose ends and clarify by naming them some of the things which before this time the pupil has done more or less unknowingly. Nor should such a study be intermingled with a literature course. The best results in formal grammar can be achieved when the pupils do intensive studying and drilling for a period of three months during their last year in the secondary school.

Gladys G. Gambill
TRAINING THE ELEMENTARY STUDENT-TEACHER IN CURRICULUM CONSTRUCTION

Introduction—Steps in Curriculum Construction

The leaders in curriculum construction maintain that the curriculum involves all the experiences children have in the process of living or education. If this be true, then all curriculum making should involve four steps:

1. Getting a common basis for thinking in education, such as:
   a. Common principles in education
   b. Common understanding of educational terminology
   c. Common evaluation of educational procedures

2. Setting up goals, purposes, or objectives for education

3. Planning activities to carry out these purposes

4. Actual testing, checking, and revision of results by teaching these plans

I. Getting a Common Basis for Educational Thinking and Setting Up Purposes

The aim of this paper is to explain the method used at the Harrisonburg State Teachers College in giving students experience in these four steps. In our training school we have two groups of elementary students—a large group who are working for the two-year normal professional certificate and a small group who are working for the Bachelor's degree. Naturally, there is a difference in the educational background given these two groups. One prerequisite for student teaching in the two-year curriculum is a course in the Organization of Materials for Teaching. This class comes in the spring quarter of the freshman year and aims to help the student prepare materials for teaching. The first part of the course is a summary of educational philosophy, which has grown out of experiences in reading for courses in education and in observations in the training school during the first two quarters. As a result of this study the students have a common basis for understanding the organization of curriculum materials.

The second part of this course is the actual study and organization of a unit around some center of interest. The student begins at once a collection of various kinds of materials which will aid her in carrying out the work of the grade she is interested in. Methods of filing pictures, clippings, class notes, summaries of readings, pamphlets, and bibliography cards are worked out by the students. The goals for teaching and units of work for each grade are discussed at length and observations in the training school are given. Thus many examples of various kinds of work in the elementary school are studied and evaluated. The class then breaks up into groups or committees according to grade placements for student teaching. Each group works out in detail a unit suited to the grade in which the members are to teach. Usually all the class work is on one topic or center of interest, such as Communication or Transportation. Keeping the class at work on a common problem affords opportunity for definite understanding of the discussions which take place. Occasionally the student will teach this unit in the training school, but usually she does not. It merely serves as a model or guide for her when she makes the one she does teach.

As the work of the unit progresses, the students have conferences with the supervisor of the grade the group is making the unit for, so as to keep in direct touch with the children. Several unit outlines are discussed, but in their actual organization the freshmen all use one outline in order to facilitate the judging of units in class meetings. These outlines are revised each year by the instructors of the course and the
supervisors to fit better our growing conception of activity organization.

Besides making this unit, the group studies many others already prepared by student teachers and members of former Organization classes. Each student also begins an individual unit which she will probably teach in the training school the following year. Time does not permit her to complete this unit in detail, but her interest is aroused so that during the summer she adds to it and to her collection of pictures and other materials. By the time she teaches she has a fairly good collection of these and a rather definite idea of what she is to teach.

The prerequisite for students at senior level is an advanced course in the Organization of Materials. The first part of this course is similar to that for the freshmen except that the seniors are required to read much more widely in the philosophy of education and to make more systematic observations in the training school. Thus a thorough review of philosophy and of the techniques of teaching is secured. By this means their methods for evaluating teaching procedures are more highly developed. Each student makes out a unit which she will teach either in the winter or spring quarter of that year. Throughout this course these students also have conferences with the supervisor and make definite studies of children they will teach. The collection of materials which these students have assembled during their first three years is improved upon and added to. They are also given much practice in making summaries and excerpts and in filing them systematically. The instructor of this course this fall has decided to use for the unit organization Dr. Florence Stratemeyer’s outline found in her book, *Effective Use of Curriculum Materials*. The result of this trial will be useful to the instructors who revise the outline in the spring for the freshman course. Some of the students in this class who have already had student teaching in their sophomore year work in committees with the students who are preparing to teach. They do the same observation work, help organize the unit, and often watch the procedure as the unit is actually worked out in the classroom.

II. Planning and Actual Revision of Materials During Student Teaching

When the two-year students come to the training school, their period of induction is three or four days longer than that of the senior students. During this initiation period the unit or center of interest to be worked out is decided upon by the supervisor, the student teachers, and the children. If the student has begun the pre-plan of the unit chosen, she revises and completes it to meet the needs of the situation. In our present set-up, where we have five students to a supervisor a quarter, each student is responsible for pre-planning a certain phase of the unit. For instance, one student works on music and art, one or two on social studies, one or two on the tool subjects. These phases are assembled on the form chosen; the approach, story of the unit, and new leads are developed by the group in conferences with the supervisor. The phases each student plans are changed with the new unit. For instance, if the student has planned social studies in one unit, she will be responsible for some of the tool subjects in this new organization, with the result that the student gets a wider experience in curriculum making. If the unit decided upon is one that has not been planned at all, the students begin the organization from the very start. They are then given an increased number of hours off to go to the library and materials bureau to look for and to organize materials. The seniors follow the same procedure in planning as do the sophomores, except that usually the seniors have more material assembled for use.

When the unit has been planned in reas-
enable detail, the actual teaching begins. In our situation where we have a modified form of the activity program, each student is responsible for the teaching of the phases she has planned. Sometimes a student needs to get a wider experience in teaching and will then probably teach a phase some one else has planned. When this happens, the student who did the pre-planning will aid the one doing the teaching of this phase.

The work is then further planned in more specific detail each day, usually in the afternoon preceding the teaching of the plan. These plans are checked by the supervisor in time for the student to make all necessary revision before teaching them. Just after the lesson has been taught the student writes a summary or journal of what has taken place in the lesson and forecasts what needs to be done in the next lesson. These journals serve a three-fold purpose: first, they are a basis for judging the value of the lesson; second, they are a basis for the next plan; and third, they constitute a record of the development of the unit. The plan and the journal really make the in-course record. From this in-course record the outcomes, subject-matter outlines, and experiences in the pre-plan may be checked with the things that actually happen. For example—in one Communication unit the student pre-planned to make the newspaper the center of the work, but the children made the telephone the main center when the plan was worked out. These records are kept filed with the pre-plan, so that students may easily see the revisions which were made and the reasons for the changes.

Copies of each unit and its revision are kept by the supervisor and serve as a file of materials in the curriculum of each grade. A copy of the unit is also kept filed in the training school offices or in the materials bureau of the college. This bureau is a work room for all college students, but especially for the student teachers. Here are kept on file subject bibliography cards, pictures, clippings, educational magazines, modern textbooks, and supplementary materials of various kinds.

These units also serve as a basis for the constant revision of the elementary school curriculum. The main purposes of this revision are: first, to give opportunity for the setting of better standards of teaching through the choice of worthwhile units and to care for the overlapping and omissions in the subject-matter content in the curriculum of the various grades. The supervisors discuss freely these curriculum materials and aid and encourage students to assemble materials useful in teaching each grade.

III. Conclusions and Outcomes

When the student goes into her own classroom in the field, she should have the following outcomes from this training:

1. A clear idea of goals or objectives for the elementary school
2. General and specific goals or objectives for each subject
3. Knowledge and use of a few basic educational principles
4. Knowledge of children’s interests and needs
5. Knowledge of the subject matter to be presented or experience to be lived
6. Good files of pictures and other ephemeral materials
7. Two units of work organized around children’s interests
8. Practical experiences in the development of the four steps in curriculum making

These should enable her to adjust herself to the work of teaching in any situation and to build up her own curriculum in the school in which she teaches.

Virginia Buchanan

Those people are strongest who do not in an emergency let their emotions dominate their reason.—Aristide Briand.
EMERGENCY NUTRITION

Experts differ in some details of their views on the feeding of children. But the differences are rather in emphasis than in essentials. Some emphasize more strongly the dominant place of the few most important foods, while others give more emphasis to the doctrine of diversification of the child's diet.

Such differences pale into insignificance when we are faced with the statement on the high authority of Miss Grace Abbott that great numbers of children all over the country are now living in such destitution as cannot but leave them weakened and injured for life.

With needs so urgent, with so many people so near our doors suffering so severely, it is a time for those who have to really share their means with those who have not. Perfunctory giving is better than none; but not sufficient. There is need for perfunctory givers to rise to the plane of generosity, and for those who have already learned to give generously to raise their giving now, during this emergency, into the realm of sacrifice. A little temporary sacrifice on the part of the more fortunate now can well make the difference between a lifetime of weakness and misery and a lifetime of usefulness and self-respecting Americanism for many a child.

Adequate relief and reasonable security will not be permanently denied. People will give as they come to realize the real need.

Meantime what is the relief worker to advise, or the intelligent but destitute mother to do, in such times and places as there simply is not money at hand to feed a child according to even the more economical of adequate standards?

When and while standards can not be maintained, where and how can retrenchment be made in the feeding of the child with least danger of inflicting a lasting injury?

The guiding principle should, I think, be to provide those nutritional essentials of which a shortage tends to permanent injury, and to do this (while necessary) even at the cost of a sacrifice of other features of the dietary which are normally desirable but not absolutely essential. During the acute emergency, all available sources of economical food should be utilized but money need not be spent in diversifying the diet merely for the sake of variety. Let no one be misled by the extravagant phrase "deadly monotony." No deaths are ever caused by monotony of diet if the diet, however simple and cheap, provides the actually necessary nutrients; while shortages of these nutrients do cause all too many deaths, if not directly then by lowering the resistance to disease.

The food problem of the unemployment emergency presents itself primarily in the form of the question, What best to do with an inadequate amount of money?

Advice may, therefore, perhaps best be given in terms of the spending of such money as is at hand. One suggestion which seems to have been widely useful, first formulated, I think, by Miss Lucy Gillett, is:

"Divide the food money into fifths: one fifth, more or less, for vegetables and fruits; one fifth, or more, for milk and cheese; one fifth, or less, for meats, fish and eggs; one fifth, or more, for bread and cereals; one fifth, or less, for fats, sugar and other groceries."

It will be noted that this does not propose invariable division into fifths but indicates the direction which variation may wisely take—one-fifth or more for some groups; one-fifth or less for others.

Miss Gillett tells me that her experience indicates that approximate division of the

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food money into fifths works well at fairly comfortable levels of expenditure; but that in the food budget of the typical low-income family it is necessary to use more than one-fifth, often one-third of the food money, for milk in order to provide the amount of milk that the children of such a family actually need.

When shortage of money forces expenditure for food to an abnormally low level, more than one-fifth (perhaps one-third) should therefore be spent for milk in some form; and the suggestion of one-fifth for fruit and vegetables should if possible be maintained, but with selection probably limited to the cheaper sorts so as to get the most food value for the money; at least one-fifth (of the reduced expenditure) may well go for breadstuffs and cheap forms of cereal since a penny spent here will go farthest to meet the actual pangs of hunger; the greater part of the retrenchment should fall upon the other two-fifths of the above grouping. One can forego flesh, fish and fowl, and sweets, and most of the sweetened and shortened products of the bakery, and most of the miscellaneous foods bought in the grocery, if one gets enough of milk in some form and of some fruit or vegetable to provide the absolutely essential mineral elements and vitamins, and if to these foods enough breadstuff be added to prevent actual weakness from hunger. Almost always the other foods are less economical in meeting these nutritional needs.

Thus if forced below reasonable standards to bare essentials, we may, in the light of our present knowledge of nutrition, most wisely meet the emergency by concentrating our attention upon efforts to provide these three essential groups of foods: (1) milk and its products, (2) fruit and/or vegetables, (3) bread and other cheap sources of calories.

Let retrenchment of expenditure take the form, first, of foregoing the purchase of the foods of other groups, and next of selecting the cheaper or cheapest forms or articles within each of the three groups just mentioned as essential. This may involve some shocks to prejudices and even to what in normal times we rightly regard as standards; but we are dealing here with the question of meeting a dire emergency. From certain standpoints two forms or kinds of milk may seem worlds apart; but any kind of milk is nutritionally more like any other kind of milk than is any other food. A crisp green vegetable or a juicy fruit may seem much preferable to a potato; but with expenditure forced to a sufficiently low level, the cheapest vegetable to be had can carry the nutritional responsibility for the whole group of fruits and vegetables during an emergency period.

If there are times and places of such dire destitution that sacrifices must be made even among the three bare essentials of bread, milk, and some fruit or vegetable, each in the cheapest available form, what then?

Shall obvious hunger and a starved appearance lead to the crowding out of milk by bread because a penny spent for bread goes farther to still the pangs of hunger? To go too far in this direction is to incur the even greater tragedy of the life-long injuries which result from the “hidden hunger” of the mineral and vitamin deficiencies. “Milk builds bone and muscle better than any other food.” And more than this, milk is both the cheapest and the surest protection from the nutritional deficiencies which open the way to diseases and life-long injuries to health, happiness, and working efficiency.

“The dietary should be built around bread and milk.” The lower the level of expenditure, the more one must forego other foods and concentrate effort upon providing these two, supplemented by a little of some inexpensive fruit or vegetable.

This is the teaching of our present knowledge of nutrition reduced to its barest terms for the meeting of a real emergency—an emergency such as we must believe and
resolve shall not last long nor recur often—but during which there may be need for a time and in some places, to face frankly the fact that reasonable standards are temporarily out of reach and that while the tragedy lasts one must guide, with what wisdom one may, the expenditure of inadequate funds for food in such ways that the children affected may be brought through without life-long injuries so that even if body weights are subnormal for a time there may still be a basis of sound bone and lean tissue to permit of complete nutritional rehabilitation with the coming of better days.

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HENRY C. SHERMAN

LIBERTY

Liberty is a hard and difficult lesson to learn. It involves the freedom to make mistakes and errors as well as to make successes. It involves meeting the temptation to do wrong as well as the opportunity to do right. Liberty has its dangers and its limitations, but so far as human history goes no form or type of despotism, whether individual or group or social, can for a moment be put in comparison with it.
—Nicholas Murray Butler.

Under no circumstances can secondary school graduation be accepted by itself as qualifying for admission to college, and the time has now come when the mere possession of a baccalaureate degree is incomplete and unsatisfactory evidence of capacity to make best use of the graduate and professional studies and direction which the university offers.—Report of the President of Columbia University for 1930.

THE PRESIDENT'S COLUMN

The General Assembly, which convenes in January, will have before it many important financial problems, not the least of which will be the problem of reducing expenditures to make up for loss in revenue or else to increase taxation in some form in order to allow expenditures to continue as they have during the past biennium. It is generally conceded that the Governor's budget proposals will contain few provisions for capital expenditures. It is believed, however, that some provision will be made for the State Colleges to continue with approximately the same support they now receive from the state.

Dr. Hall, our newly appointed and very efficient State Superintendent of Public Instruction, has thrown a bombshell into budget considerations by advocating the additional appropriation of $2,000,000 for the public schools in order that the state may pay a reasonable salary to teachers. Whether the source from which this money is to come should be the state or the locality is a moot question, but nobody who knows the situation in Virginia will question the wisdom of Dr. Hall's plan in trying to increase the funds for our public schools. If the state cannot provide the two million dollars when it is asked for at this time, Dr. Hall has, at least, entered into the record in the proper fashion and has placed himself in the strategic position to get this aid whenever the state is able to grant it.

Many people have discussed free tuition or scholarships as measures that should be abolished at the State Colleges. It is my feeling that there should be a very careful investigation of this matter, at least to provide for equalization in such allowances in our State Colleges. It is rather striking that the range of these allowances varies from $440 as the maximum at one state college to $30 per year as a maximum at another.
Virginia ought to feel a great pride in its financial condition when one compares it with the financial condition of many of our southern neighbors. The Tennessee teachers colleges are paying their faculty members only a portion of their salaries for the current year, and in one case I happen to know that they are paying only 25 per cent of the salaries. In Alabama, the teachers college presidents tell me that they have received no appropriation from the state for more than five months. Louisiana, Mississippi, and other Southern States are practically in the midst of as great difficulties as Alabama and Tennessee. When it is recalled therefore that Virginia has not yet failed to meet its obligations and when it is further recalled that the state has very little public debt of any kind, we should feel especially gratified that this condition exists in our state.

To the alumnae who visited Richmond at the Educational Conference, the writer would like to express his great pleasure at having an opportunity to talk to those who have gone out and are representing Harrisonburg so splendidly in the public schools of Virginia.

SAMUEL P. DUKE

WHAT FIFTY SAID
When I was young my teachers were the old.
I gave up fire for form till I was cold.
I suffered like a metal being cast.
I went to school to age to learn the past.

Now I am old my teachers are the young.
What can't be moulded must be cracked and sprung.
I strain at lessons fit to start a suture.
I go to school to youth to learn the future.
—ROBERT FROST.

It is monstrous to suppose that labor is the highest goal of man, and leisure little better than an affliction.—HEYWOOD BROUN.

WHEN TEACHERS EXHIBIT THEIR OWN WORK
What unsuspected talents and interests do teachers have outside of their profession?
Teachers of Newark, N. J., have devoted spare moments to cultural activities outside their actual school work.

An exhibit was held in Newark and teachers were asked to contribute objects which they had made, books or articles they had written, or any other illustration of their activities outside the profession. The bulk of the material they placed on exhibition included “sculpture, oil paintings, period furniture, etchings, textile designs, jewelry made from precious metals, other metal work, pottery, costumes and costume designs, architectural designs, models, photographs, lace and embroidery, hooked rugs, lamps and lamp shades, wall panels and hangings.”

Approximately 300 teachers took part in the entire exhibition of “outside interests and accomplishments.”

TEN RULES FOR THRIFT
The Ten-Point Financial Creed which has been the basis of the National Thrift Week observance since this movement was started some fifteen years ago will again be offered to the people of the nation as the basis for sound procedure on the part of individuals and the family. These Ten Financial Commandments can hardly be improved upon as a practical recommendation, in the opinion of the leaders in the movement.

These “Ten Rules for a Successful and Happy Life” are:
1. Work and Earn
2. Make a Budget
3. Record Expenditures
4. Have a Bank Account
5. Carry Life Insurance
6. Own Your Home
7. Make a Will
8. Invest in Safe Securities
9. Pay Bills Promptly
10. Share With Others
SCHOOL PROGRAMS FOR THRIFT WEEK

Benjamin Franklin, born January 17, 1706, was among his numerous other great capacities the great exponent of thrift. Educators have come to realize the value of year-round encouragement of thrift practice. National Thrift Week marks the beginning and stimulus to another year's continuous effort toward building substantial citizens by the right use of money through thrift habits.

There are many possibilities available for resourceful school teachers to make thrift lessons interesting and valuable to children. Primary boys and girls can be told about Franklin's life, wisdom, and frugality; can draw pictures illustrative of some phase of Franklin's life; can prepare a table project showing a scene from Poor Richard's existence; and can act a play from the story of his paying too much for his whistle.

In the grammar grades, correlations may consist of reading parts of Franklin's "Autobiography"; writing compositions on any of Poor Richard's proverbs; placing a different proverb each day on the blackboard; giving practical problems in arithmetic illustrating accumulation of savings and planning for future; encouraging all to observe Franklin's birthday by making a deposit on Bank Day; giving a simple play featuring Franklin's practices of thrift; and discussing changes in living conditions which have taken place since Franklin's day.

An outline of possible activities for the observance of National Thrift Week by junior high and high schools includes: Monday—ceremony celebrating anniversary of Benjamin Franklin's birthday; Tuesday—National Budget Day—explanations of and practice in making personal budgets; Wednesday—National Make-a-Will Day—explain what a will is and its importance; Thursday—National Life Insurance Day—explain principles and values of life insurance, sick benefits, method of saving; Friday—Own Your Home Day—value of saving for this purpose. "There's no sentiment about a bundle of rent receipts," said Herbert Hoover.

Talks on Thrift might include the following subjects: "What Is Thrift?" "The Habit of Thrift," and "A Budget."

Under the subject, "What Is Thrift?" the principles of economy combined with industry and foresight might be stressed. Thrift is planning and looking forward to the betterment of one's self, spiritually, mentally, physically, morally, and financially. Thrift provides the necessities and some of the luxuries of the present, and lays by regularly a certain amount for the future. Thrift is success. Thrift is living.

"The Habit of Thrift" might be considered from the following points of view. Economy is a habit acquired by practice. Anything we practice over and over builds a habit that makes it more easily done each time we attempt it. As we form the habit of saving we find it easier to practice. The habit of saving can be won by putting aside small sums as well as large. Well established saving habits automatically build a foundation of security and peace of mind.
Talks on "A Budget" might include such thoughts as: A budget directs savings and serves as a constant reminder. A budget shows just how much money is on hand to cover all needs. Many people spend hours, days—even years—planning their lives, but allow money, on which success or failure often depends, to remain a matter of impulse. No person is too young to keep a budget, nor is any income too small to be budgeted.

ELIMINATION OF UNQUALIFIED TEACHERS

Are there too many teachers? Too many people with teachers’ certificates, perhaps, says President George Willard Frasier, Colorado State Teachers College, who ventures a guess in the December Journal of the National Education Association that "if we could replace all uneducated and unsuccessful teachers in the schools of America, there would be no surplus."

The present teacher unemployment calls for the adoption of a new policy of selecting teachers, thinks President Frasier. He condemns the practice of certification without any real professional training, a practice which has been followed for many years in some states. Believing that the present situation offers an opportunity greatly to improve the quality of teaching, he enumerates the following methods, proposed to reduce the number who seek teaching positions to an employable and effective force: limit student admissions to teacher training institutions; eliminate incapable student teachers during the training process; replace the unqualified teachers who now have jobs with those who are trained.

The application of each of these methods has its difficulties, according to President Frasier. It is difficult to limit enrolment on the basis of the number of teachers needed, because the future demand for teachers cannot be predicated accurately. Teachers move from state to state. Changes in economic conditions affect the number of teachers which a state may employ. There is no way to foretell the number of students enrolled who will fail or of those who will choose some other occupation than teaching even after they are trained for it.

The plan to eliminate, during the training process, those who are unfit for teaching is hard to carry out because the criteria developed for measuring the qualifications of teachers are inadequate. No one knows the best combination of skills, ideals, or information which go to make up the highest type of successful teacher.

President Frasier advocates the law of survival as one of the most practical helps in keeping teacher supply consistent with demand. He says, "Thousands of poorly prepared and unsuccessful merchants, farmers, lawyers, and doctors are forced to give up their occupations because they cannot stand the competition of those who are more intelligent or better prepared. Teachers should not be afraid to stand the same test."

HOME ECONOMICS NEEDS DIFFER WITH SIZE OF COMMUNITY, SURVEY SHOWS

The need for training girls in buying food for the family, selecting and buying their own clothes, selecting house furnishings and equipment, and other home making problems, is emphasized in the annual report of the home economics service of the Federal Board for Vocational Education.

A survey of studies in home economics conducted by the Board shows that most of the girls being reached by home economics courses in the sections covered by the studies are buying food for the family and so need help in determining what expenditures for food are best when the income is limited, and that they should be taught the practical and satisfying use of money in selecting different kinds of clothing as well as the selection of home furnishings and equipment. The Board's survey of studies
showed further that the number of activities performed by girls in rural districts are greater than those performed by girls in large communities; in other words, the number of home activities increase with a decrease in the size of the community in which the girl lives.

This situation, the Board’s annual report explains, suggests adaptation of the programs of home economics education in the smaller town and rural communities, to the increased home activities of the girls in the classes. It also suggests the possibilities for more and varied home projects in connection with home economics instruction that will create and intensify interest and enlarge ability in the discharge of home responsibilities already assumed by the girls.

READING MATTER FOR THE BLIND

The movement to provide the blind with Braille reading matter has met with gratifying success during the past year, according to the American Braille Press for War and Civilian Blind. Books, magazines, and music published by the organization have been distributed among libraries and institutions for the blind in eighteen different countries, including more than fifty cities in the United States. Three monthly Braille magazines are published in English.

An important achievement during the past year was the completion of the enormous task of publishing in Braille the well-known French dictionary, Petit Larousse. The Braille transcription is composed of twenty large sized volumes of 200 pages each; the inkprint edition is about half the size of one Braille volume, as shown in a photograph. The Braille dictionary has been sent, free of charge, to public libraries, schools for the blind, and blind scholars throughout the world.

The strong taste for adventure stories on the part of the blind has been recognized in the selection of novels which have been embossed in Braille. The titles include “The Count of Monte Cristo,” by Dumas, in twenty-one volumes; “The Sea Hawk,” by Sabatini, in four volumes; and “The Rover,” by Joseph Conrad, in three volumes. Other authors, however, are Willa Cather, Knut Hamsun, Anatole France, Leon Tolstoi, and Mark Twain.

THE READING TABLE

INTERPRETATIONS OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION.

The first volume in a series of five announced for publication during the next three years contains addresses delivered at the dedication of the School of Education Building, New York University. There are chapters by seventeen able writers, each endeavoring to show the impossibility of separating physical and mental activities.

The introduction contains chapters on An Interpretation of Physical Education by Jay B. Nash, and on The Oneness of Mind and Body by L. Vosburg Lyons. The remainder of the book is divided into sections on life as bio-physical mechanism, life as a bio-chemical mechanism, health as an interpretation of the living organism, character, leisure time, art as an expression of the fullness of life, physical and health education as a profession, and the administration of health and physical education.

Students and teachers of health and physical education will find this volume of great help in analyzing objectives and in viewing the relationship of physical to other activities.

Physicians and educators have combined in the second volume to present the various types of tests, examinations, and procedures which are necessary to determine the condition of an individual and to establish a basis for educational guidance with particular emphasis on the types of examinations the physical educator can make and with attention to the administration of these examinations. A. L. J.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION.

Administrators, whether in the field of physical education or in the field of general education, will find this book most useful both from the standpoint of a summing up of procedure as used in various places, and also from the standpoint of objectives scientifically discussed, and suggested procedure for accomplishing these objectives clearly given. This is a valuable addition to the field of education, as well as a nice piece of bookmaking. It is written by an author of comprehensive and successful experience.

There are five divisions of the content. The introductory Part One contains chapters giving the relationship of physical education to general education, difficulties in the path of unified administration, and a master plan for centralizing administrative authority. Part Two deals with the se-
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THE VIRGINIA TEACHER

lecting of objectives for physical education, Part Three with organization, including place, time, and classification for both activities and children. Part Four covers, in eight chapters, routine and

This index should be accessible to all teachers actively interested in dramatic production. Teachers in search of programs for special days or occasions will find a listing of plays under the days or subjects for which the plays are appropriate. Plays are also listed according to number of characters required, under 5, 10 to 20, or over 20.

BOOKS RECEIVED


OUR CONTRIBUTORS

SIDNEY B. HALL is Superintendent of Public Instruction for the State of Virginia. Dr. Hall delivered his address on "Some Economies in Public School Administration" before the recent Educational Conference in Richmond Thanksgiving week.

J. PAUL LEONARD is professor of education in the College of William and Mary. He is author of the recently published Leonard Diagnostic Tests in Punctuation and Capitalization. (World Book Company.)

GLADYS G. GAMBILL is head of the English department in the Newport News High School. Miss Gambill's paper was read before the recent meeting of the English Section of the Virginia Education Association.

VIRGINIA BUCHANAN is Assistant Director of Training in the State Teachers College at Harrisonburg.

SAMUEL P. DUKE is president of the State Teachers College at Harrisonburg.
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