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THE VIRGINIA TEACHER

April, 1935

THE A. B. DEGREE AND THE STATE TEACHERS COLLEGES
Robert M. Hughes

THREE HUNDRED YEARS OF AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOLS
William R. Smitsby

MUSIC IN THE PRIMARY GRADES
Anne Browne

Published at the
STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE
of HARRISONBURG, VA.

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THE A. B. DEGREE AND THE STATE TEACHERS COLLEGES

THE present State Board of Education was appointed January 30, 1930, and held its organization meeting February 6, 1930. Unlike its predecessor, it was not, and is not now, composed entirely of educators. Two of us (Miss Rose McDonald and Mr. Joseph H. Sanders) are officially connected with public school work, two others (Governor Trinkle and myself) have at various times had some experience with it, and the other three (Messrs. Bohannon, Daniel, and Shackleford) have had a college education. I may claim, without being accused of undue conceit, that it is a board of average intelligence.

When we first met, the five-year contracts with the textbook publishers had but five months to run. It was impossible to select new books in that time, so the board decided to continue the contracts in force for a year. The question of new contracts took up a great deal of time and study. In addition, urgent financial problems confronted us, many of them novel.

Before we came into office the General Assembly had abolished the Board of Visitors for the four State Teachers Colleges, and devolved that duty on us. That also put us up against many financial questions which, so far from diminishing, have greatly increased with the construction of new buildings. While we all realized the importance of the college curricula, we could not for some time give it the thought and study that it required. It first came formally before us at the meeting of October 27, 1932, when the presidents of the colleges brought up "the advisability of broadening the curricula of the colleges in order that the teacher-training institutions may attract as students not only those preparing specifically for teaching, but as well those who may be interested in other phases of education." Since then the matter has been closely studied by special committees, and has been the special order at several meetings. Both the literary and financial phases have had our earnest investigation. We are not gifted with flashes of inspiration, such as those which coruscate around the editorial chairs like the lightning around the throne of Olympian Jove, but we have given it our best thought and study. We may be mistaken—we are not infallible—but under such circumstances the presumptions are in our favor.

The Legal History

In order to understand the question, we must consider its legal history.

The poverty of the Commonwealth long prevented any attempt to provide trained teachers for the public schools. The first step in that direction was the establishment at Farmville on March 7, 1884, of a "State Female Normal School," which was a normal school pure and simple, for those women who desired to teach in the public schools. This was followed by the act of March 5, 1888, by which the General Assembly made an appropriation to revive the College of William and Mary (which had been compelled to suspend on account of its losses in the Civil War) on condition that it should establish "in connection with the collegiate course" a system of normal instruction and training for the purpose of educating and training white male teachers for the public schools. This was a step forward as establishing a normal department in connection with a collegiate course,
and not merely creating a normal school. This was emphasized by the act of March 7, 1906, under which the college was taken over by the State, and which provided that the college should establish "in connection with the collegiate course, which shall be maintained," a normal department.

By the act of March 14, 1908, female normal schools were established at Harrisonburg and Fredericksburg, followed by the act of March 10, 1910, establishing one at Radford. The act of March 27, 1914, provided that these and the Farmville school "shall be called State Normal Schools for Women . . . and shall have power to grant certificates of graduation." This was followed by the act of March 2, 1916, which authorized their governing board "to grant certificates of graduation and to confer appropriate degrees in education." And this was followed by the act of February 13, 1924, which abolished their characterization of normal schools, and expressly required that they should be called "State Teachers Colleges."

This recital shows that, if there has been any "Hatching New Colleges" (as one editorial is headed), our board is not responsible for it. The nest eggs of the four institutions were laid by the General Assembly itself from 1884 to 1910. And they were "hatched" by the legislative incubator as far back as 1924. I am ignorant of any right of our board to unhatch them, or to throw them away as bad eggs, unfit to hatch. If there is anything extravagant or unwise in having so many as four, the responsibility is on the General Assembly to abolish or consolidate in whole or in part. When our board came into office, it found them as a fait accompli; and our sole problem was to decide what to do with them.

**Personal Viewpoint**

I must now ask pardon for making extensive use hereafter of the first person singular. It is necessary, because I am giving my own reasons for approving the action taken. I do not profess to speak for my associates. They will see this article for the first time when it is in print.

My guiding star throughout the discussion (extending over a period of two years and a half) has been a reluctance to authorize the degree until I was satisfied that it was to be an A. B. in scholarship not inferior to that of a standard institution of higher learning.

I think that the review of the legislation above shows that the policy of the General Assembly in reference to these institutions has been one of gradual expansion and not of arrested development. They are first called normal schools and allowed to give nothing but "certificates of graduation." They are next, while still normal schools, authorized to give also "appropriate degrees in education." And then they are called colleges. The intention must have been to make them colleges in fact as well as in name. I can not think that it was the legislative intent to set up a lot of diploma mills. I prefer to believe that they were influenced by the results at William and Mary. When it was revived, the normal training was a department in a college giving the old cultural course leading to an A. L. For the first few years it gave a special degree in the normal department called Licentiate of Instruction. Many young men of narrow means came there intending to take that degree and go at once to teaching. But they acquired a taste for learning while taking that course, and remained to take the full A. B. degree, thus filling the schools with teachers who had learned not only how to teach, but what to teach. That is exactly what we have done with these four colleges, and that is what I believe the General Assembly expected us to do. This is confirmed by the fact that on March 7, 1930 (only a month after our organization), it passed a joint resolution authorizing us to expand the curricula of these colleges by making such changes along
certain vocational lines "as will best serve the needs and demands of the women of the State."

At one of our meetings, Dr. Jarman, of Farmville, expressed and pressed the view that a teacher should have, if anything, a better preparation than one taking a cultural degree as evidence of a good education. I agree with him. In the rural districts especially a teacher influences an entire community. As rural schools necessarily have a small teacher staff, its members must often teach many subjects, instead of handling only a few as is the case in the city schools. Such teachers in rural communities are leaders not only in the schoolroom, but in all public questions.

Confusion of Minds

There is much confusion in the mind of many as to what is included in normal instruction. The preliminary training of a teacher for the first two or probably two and a half years covers the same course as that leading to the regular A. B. degree. The instruction in methods does not begin until towards the end. It is like the scaffold of a building, which is not erected till the foundations are laid and the wall has reached a certain height. Hence, if we wish a high standard of scholarship for the teachers who are to train our children, it must be more economical for the teacher training schools to carry their students a step further, thus utilizing the equipment and plant to its fullest extent, than to turn them out with mere normal training and send them elsewhere if they wish further preparation.

My friends, the four presidents, may not agree with me in what I shall now say, but I have said it in their presence, and I now repeat, that I have never thought the preparation they now give a sufficient one for teaching, certainly as far as the secondary schools are concerned. I think their present B. S. degree, on which we base authority to teach, is too weak. It requires neither mathematics nor any foreign language, ancient or modern, and might be strengthened in other subjects. On the other hand, we require in the core curriculum for our degree nine session hours in foreign language (one ancient and one modern), and three session hours in mathematics, besides six session hours in history.

A noticeable feature of our degree is the requirement of an ancient language, which practically means Latin, as but few take Greek. I have been an earnest advocate of this from the beginning of the discussion. When I was at college I was told that two-fifths of the words in an English dictionary came from the Latin. The proportion is probably less now, owing to the growth of technical terms, but it is still great. I can not see how English can be taught properly without a knowledge of Latin, and the same is true of the Romance languages. The teachers even in the primary country schools are constantly consulted by parents on subjects of general culture. If they can not translate "E Pluribus Unum" and "Sic Semper Tyrannis," or show a parent how to solve a simple equation in algebra, their influence is impaired.

Courses Above Average

I have made a study of every cultural college in Virginia, male or female, public or private, from their catalogs (except Lynchburg and Bridgewater, whose catalogs were not accessible); and I venture the assertion that the A. B. course mapped out by us is above the average, and will result in better teachers for our public schools. Dr. Combs, of Fredericksburg, in a paper submitted to us on the subject, well said:

"If any one more than another needs to possess culture, it is the teacher, in order that she may be able to pass it on to others. We demand for those in charge of the mental, physical, and moral development of our children, and who are responsible for their welfare during the most plastic years
of their lives, not only skill, but broad culture, sound scholarship, and a clear insight into human nature."

The effect of our action upon the other colleges must now be considered. I can not see that it will affect them seriously. If there is any competition between them and the teachers colleges, the latter, by giving an easier degree heretofore, have underbid them. Under our degree this is changed. In fact, as to some of them, conditions are reversed, and they must strengthen their degree to make it equal ours. As to the women's colleges, their appeal now is largely, not to Virginians, but to outsiders. Their recent catalogs (possibly not their very last) show that Randolph-Macon Woman's College had Virginians 215, outsiders 349. Sweetbriar had Virginians 64, outsiders 344. Mary Baldwin had Virginians 104, outsiders 154. Hollins had Virginians 88, outsiders 151. Chatham had Virginians 22, outsiders 103. At the State teachers' colleges the percentage of outsiders is small, being greatest at Fredericksburg. There is no reason to suppose that the percentage will materially change. The reason for it is the difference in cost, and that is not apt to change.

The argument most stressed by those who disapprove our action is the fear that it will involve increased appropriations, and that this will bring hosts of lobbyists down upon the General Assembly at every session.

The public opinion of the Commonwealth is apparently that women should have equal opportunities with men in educational facilities. Our action solves this problem. Women now have five colleges where they can get a scholarly general education whether they intend to teach or not; namely, William and Mary (co-educational) and the four teachers' colleges (for women only). They can then enter the University for graduate work, and professional work. And under the joint resolution of March 7, 1930, those colleges are already authorized, by act of our board, to add vocational courses. So there is ample provision right now for such courses "as will best serve the needs—if not the demands—of the women of the State."

As to the lobbying danger, any other scheme is liable to the same objection. The General Assembly has provided two safeguards against it. Under section 944 of the Code, the budgets for these colleges are in the hands of our board, not in the hands of the colleges themselves. And do not forget the budget director, who stands like the angel with a flaming sword at the gate of the financial paradise. If I may change my figure of speech, his working tools in actual practice seem to be not a yardstick and scissors, but a footstick and shears.

Answers Editorials

One of the editorials which condemn our action dubs these colleges "academic quad-ruptlets," and suggests that the logical and economical plan would be to make one of them a big sister dressed sufficiently fine to play with a big brother, and make the other three Cinderellas. Or to use plain English, the suggestion is to expand one of them into a college co-ordinate with the University, and make the others simply training colleges for teachers. This in the first place ignores the importance of giving teachers ample cultural instruction, in addition to mere teacher training. And it would be necessarily more economical to utilize them, even if their appropriations were increased 50 per cent, than to found what would be practically a new institution and equip it physically and intellectually to such an extent as to give all the instruction now given at the University. It would duplicate the teachers' colleges if it had a department of education, and the University if it had professional courses. It would be bound to have these unless it was located at the University. It would hamper the attempt of the University to secure the necessary appropriations. Every time the big brother was given a new coat, the big sister would expect a new dress.
Personally, I have always been opposed to a co-ordinate college on other grounds than that of expense, unless it was located at the University. This would make the University co-educational in all but the name; and the sentiment of the University alumni has always been opposed to that. If not located at the University, the latter would be held responsible for all the former’s shortcomings. The University would be bound to leave matters of discipline to the local authorities, subject only to slight supervision. If, for instance, the co-ordinate branch was located at Fredericksburg, and some of the students took a joy ride to Washington and landed up in the police court, the papers would be right apt to call them university students. In matters of scholarship also its control would be largely supervisory. The distance apart would permit only a limited use of the University faculty; and yet the co-ordinate college would expect the University president to sign the diplomas and the University seal to be affixed to them.

The class of girls who attend the teachers’ colleges is mainly an earnest hard-working class of narrow means, to whom our action gives an opportunity of a general education not limited to preparation for teaching. Those who would attend a co-ordinate college are mainly able to live in higher style than their Cinderella sisters. Many of the latter could not afford a co-ordinate college and yet do not want teacher training. Our action gives them the chance. It gives the women of the State the same educational opportunities as the men, and that at reasonable cost.

I disclaim any intention of apologizing for my action. I have tried to render patriotic service to my native State in several ways. As I review my work, I can now, in the evening of my life, think of nothing which gives me more satisfaction than my labors on the State Board of Education.

ROBERT M. HUGHES

THREE HUNDRED YEARS OF AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOLS

It is a far cry from the provisions for public secondary education as offered in the first American high school in Boston in 1635 to the present nation-wide system of public secondary education. The first permanent settlements in America had hardly gotten under way at Jamestown and Plymouth before serious efforts were inaugurated to provide educational opportunities for the boys and girls of the settlers and for the instruction of the Indians. The first serious attempt to establish a secondary school in America was made in Virginia when plans were laid in the year 1621 for the establishment of the “East Indie Schoole” at “Charles Cittie,” Virginia. According to the plans this school was designed as a secondary institution to prepare youth for admission to the University “intended to be built” at Henricopolis. This school, however, was never established due to the great Indian Massacre of 1622 which prevented any successful educational efforts in Virginia until the founding of the Symms free school in 1644. The first successful secondary school in America, founded in Boston in 1635, was called the Boston Latin School. Here Ezekiel Cheever taught for thirty years and became the outstanding educational leader of the colonial period. The movement for secondary education, begun in Boston, soon spread throughout the colonies and by the close of the colonial period all of the thirteen colonies had made some provision for the education of their youth in such schools as the Latin grammar schools, the colonial grammar schools, the

In the preparation of this article the writer wishes to acknowledge the assistance of Dr. C. H. Phippins.

Presented before teachers of District C. Virginia Education Association, meeting at the Westhampton High School on March 15.
parochial schools, the old field schools, and schools for indigent children. This movement for secondary education was stimulated in large measure by the Massachusetts laws of 1642 and 1647. The law of 1642 provided that all children be taught to read; the law of 1647 established the right of the state to require communities to establish and operate schools.

The type of secondary school which characterized the colonial government of New England had its prototype in the grammar schools of England. It was the type of secondary school best known to the fathers of Plymouth Rock who transplanted it in all essential features to the American shores. The ideals and attitudes of the Puritans were to be fostered and developed through this type of institution which, as a feeder to the colonial college, would assist in rendering complete a program of training consonant with those aims in life cherished by the settlers of the New England Colony. These people, in quest of religious freedom, seeking refuge in a foreign land, brought with them the heritage of their fathers which embraced the Calvinistic conception of an educational system positing a cooperative relationship between church and state. To them, education of the socially elite was fundamental to the welfare of both church and state and this philosophy necessitated that the burden of education be shared equally by both of these institutions. The leadership demanded by both church and state could be recruited only from the highly educated classes. It was this attitude towards the role of education in society—a close alliance between church and state—which brought about the early establishment of secondary schools under the control and partial support of the New England town.

In the middle colonies the parochial school idea was dominant. The underlying educational philosophy called for a system of schools to serve primarily the needs of the church. Accordingly, education was considered as a church function and there developed a system of schools encouraged and maintained by the church. It was this dominant educational attitude that prolonged the battle to eliminate the element of sectarianism from the schools and thus delayed the development of state educational systems free from denominational influences.

The Southern colonies were settled largely by the land-owning class or large plantation holders, and consequently the environmental setting was not conducive to the development of free public school systems. However, the fundamental reason for the retarded development of school systems in the South is to be found in the attitude of the people. The "no business of the state" attitude in matters pertaining to education prevailed and the individual parent assumed full responsibility for the education of his children. However, this section was not unmindful of its obligation to the poor and orphans and entered upon its statutes such laws as were deemed necessary to protect and train those who by reason of their indigence or the neglect of parents, could not help themselves. The charity conception of state educational responsibility was an inheritance from England; the Cavalier bore it with him across the seas to Virginia and it became a very vital part of the life of the colonial planters. These people were willing to contribute to the support and education of the poor and indigent, but, since they regarded education as a private and not as a public concern, were reluctant to tax themselves for free public education. This individualistic attitude was a part of their philosophy of life and the charity conception became so deeply imbedded in their thinking as to withstand any attempts on the part of a few to provide by means of taxation free schools for all. As a result of this fundamental philosophy, the battle to make the schools entirely free and
equally open to all was considerably prolonged and the coming of state systems based on the theory of state responsibility for education was delayed in the South.

The principal educational institution of the colonial period was the Latin grammar school—a school transplanted from England and representing the dominant educational theories of the Continent. It was controlled by the privileged classes and designed to serve the needs of a social aristocracy. It was brought to America as the child and servant of the church; it wore the cloak of classical learning; and it was designed to encourage the growth of Christian doctrine. The Latin grammar school was a tuition school and in the modern sense it cannot be said to have been free, but it was public in that it was controlled and partially supported by the town. In schools of this type were found the great teachers of the colonial period. Boys were admitted at the age of seven or eight and prepared for college by the age of fifteen or sixteen. The purpose of its program, preparation for college, was rigidly adhered to, and its curriculum, little modified during the 150 years of its existence, was confined in large measure to the study of Latin and Greek. It was never a popular institution although it flourished in all the colonies and attained its greatest development in New England. It made no provisions for the education of the masses and fostered class distinctions in the colonies—a fact which is largely responsible for the development of the colonial grammar school, and later, the American academy. Few Latin grammar schools survived the American Revolution out of which grew the demand for a more democratic secondary school. Due to its exclusive nature, its narrow curriculum, and its outworn educational philosophy, the Latin grammar school, by the close of the eighteenth century, was replaced by the American academy.

The colonial grammar school was a modification of the Latin grammar school—a school made necessary by the practical and commercial needs of the middle classes. This school supplemented the work of the true Latin school and set as its goal preparation for life as well as preparation for college. Training was provided for the various occupational fields. It not only filled a gap in colonial secondary education occasioned by the narrow curriculum of the Latin grammar schools, but in a real sense may be considered as the forerunner of the academy.

The parochial schools were established in the middle colonies, particularly in New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and New York. They were church-controlled, the teachers were usually clergymen, and they were usually co-educational. The curriculum was elementary rather than secondary, emphasis being placed primarily on reading, writing, arithmetic, and religion. The schools were in the hands of religious sects and each parochial group did as it pleased, unhampered by state legislation.

The old-field schools which flourished principally in the Southern colonies were privately controlled. They were established at convenient centers by the people of a neighborhood to provide educational advantages for boys and girls whose parents could not afford to employ private tutors. This type of school represented a co-operative effort on the part of parents anxious to provide educational opportunities for their children. Instruction was both elementary and secondary. The teachers employed by the patrons of the school were often highly educated men, and it was customary for them to "board around" among the patrons of the school. This type of school flourished until well into the middle of the nineteenth century, and provided educational opportunities not only for the masses, but often for those who were anxious to enter college.

Free schools for the children of the poor
were early established in the Southern colonies where indifference to general education generally prevailed. In such colonies tutorial and private schools were maintained for those who could afford them, and free and charity schools were provided for the children of indigent parents. These schools for indigent pupils, which were largely elementary in character, reflected the English charity school idea. During the seventeenth century there were several free schools founded by means of bequests from benevolent persons, and in some cases the resources still exist in some form to perpetuate the names of those "deserving to be chronicled." The charity schools were usually established in cities and supported by the benevolent people of the city. The charity school at Alexandria, Virginia, endowed by George Washington, was established, for the support and education of poor children, especially those whose fathers had died in defense of their country. In 1933, it was proposed to make this school a national shrine to our faith in free education.

The American Revolution brought to an end the Latin grammar school, and to some extent the other types of secondary institutions which flourished during the colonial period. The political, economic, and social development which followed the American Revolution made necessary a broader and richer educational program consonant with the needs of the new middle class. The rapid commercial and industrial developments in America made necessary a different secondary school.

The American academy came into being to serve the needs of the new democracy born of the Revolution. It was an institution designed to provide educational opportunities for the children of all classes so that a trained citizenry capable of self-government might be possible. The academy, an institution representing a protest against the narrow curriculum of the Latin grammar school, was a child of the Revolutionary spirit. The chief function of the Academy was to give a training necessitated by the new commercial and industrial developments and its program included courses in surveying, navigation, modern languages, and similar practical subjects.

The first American academy, Franklin's academy in Philadelphia, was founded in 1751. This school "represented the transition which took place in the Latin schools toward a more practical curriculum." Unlike the old Latin grammar school the curriculum of which was almost entirely classical and the purpose of which had been to prepare boys for admission to the colonial colleges, the academy provided instruction in a number of new studies adapted to the needs and demands of a new social order as well as instruction in the subjects of Latin and Greek. Its aim was to prepare for life as well as for college. It was open alike to boys and girls and did much to stimulate and encourage the development of the education of women in America.

The Academy was a success from its very beginning and its development was very rapid. The academy movement soon spread throughout the states of the new Republic and by the middle of the nineteenth century had become the dominant secondary school in America. Almost every American community of any size and prominence had its academy where instruction was offered in almost every academic and industrial field. There were academies for young men, academies for young women, often called seminaries, and co-educational academies. Many of these academies provided dormitory facilities, and drew their students from a wide territory. Many of the early academies later became colleges and several of them are still in existence. In 1800 there were 42 academies all located in New England—the old home of the Latin Grammar school. The academy, as a type of institution for secondary education, became so
popular that by 1830 there were something like one thousand such schools in the United States. By the middle of the nineteenth century there were more than six thousand, located in 38 states, with 200,000 pupils and more than 12,000 teachers. The student life of the academy was varied and stimulating. Provision was made for various types of student activities such as debating and literary societies. Many of these schools developed an *esprit de corps* with fine traditions and a wholesome atmosphere of culture. The academy had a profound influence upon the development of education in America. It served to stimulate interest in the education of women; it fostered the growth of many colleges; and it emphasized the need for the training of teachers. It established the fact that the secondary school has a finishing function as well as a preparatory function, that preparation for life is as important as preparation for college.

The academy, confined almost entirely to the territory east of the Mississippi, was a private institution under the control and supervision of a board of trustees. It was usually chartered and given legislative sanction by the state, and was often a semipublic institution through grants to it by the state. It was built upon the curriculum of the elementary school instead of running parallel to it as was the case with the Latin grammar school, although the curriculum of the early academy “began nowhere in particular and ended nowhere in particular.” It made no demands for funds through local taxation. Although it started out as an institution free from the control and domination of the college, by 1850 it had become to all intents and purposes a college preparatory institution. Since the academy was a tuition school, it was destined to become a transition institution, a forerunner of the public high school. It exists today as an important American institution for experimental secondary education, for the education of youth not suited to the program of the public high school, and for the education of those who feel the need for an exclusive type of training.

There are now approximately 2700 tuition academies enrolling slightly more than 300,000 students. Nearly three-fourths of these schools are denominational. Most of the 700 non-sectarian academies are located in large centers of population; many of them have been established for experimental purposes.

Just as the academy came into existence because of the failure of the Latin grammar school to enrich and popularize its curriculum in terms of the needs and demands of the new Republic, so the public high school arose not only because the academy continued to remain a tuition school and had in large measure abandoned its finishing function, but also because of the increasing public sentiment and conviction that secondary education should be in the hands of the state. The Latin grammar school contributed the idea of state or local control of secondary education; the academy contributed the idea of an enriched curriculum embracing the so-called extra-curricular activities. The public high school is a natural descendant of both of these institutions since it was established under state control with a curriculum designed to meet the needs of the expanding Republic.

Boston deserves the honor not only of establishing the first Latin grammar school, but also the first public high school.

The establishment of this first high school in 1821, the English High School, merits consideration since its founding was typical of the origin of many of the early high schools. It originated at a time when Boston felt the need of secondary school opportunities for those who were not going to college. At that time Boston provided free elementary school facilities up to the age of fourteen and secondary school opportunities by means of the Latin Grammar
school beginning with age twelve. In addition, there were private academies offering a variety of subjects. Since these academies were not an organized part of the town school system, the people felt that the public school system should be extended upward. The committee appointed to investigate the situation made a comprehensive report recommending a reorganization of the system then in vogue. They criticized the length of time devoted to the elementary branches, (7 years) and recommended a shortening of the period to five years and the establishment of a new type of school the curriculum of which would begin with the child of twelve years. According to the report of this committee, such an enlargement of the system would not only make possible a saving of time, but also the acquisition of those “early habits of industry and application which are so essential in leading to a future life of virtue and usefulness.” The introduction of a different type of work at the age of twelve would be more extensive than that offered in the “English Grammar Schools,” and more in keeping with the changing interests of the child at adolescence. The seven-year elementary school “was not sufficiently extensive nor otherwise calculated to bring the powers of the mind into operation nor to qualify a youth to fill usefully and respectably many of those stations, both public and private, in which he may be placed.” A century later we find similar arguments advanced for the establishment of junior high schools.

The recommendations of the committee prevailed and thus the first public high school came into existence. It was, however, a school for boys. The passing of a strict entrance examination was necessary for admission. The program of studies extended over three years and a University trained faculty was employed. This school, under public control and support, was tuition free.

The Boston school for girls was established in 1826, and at once became a flourishing institution. On account of inadequate resources, it was closed two years later. The Central High School of Chicago, established in 1856, was the first co-educational high school in America.

When the first public high school was established, the academy was a dominant institution and its friends did not wish to see it replaced by this new “people's college,” as the high school was called. The struggle to establish and maintain public high schools was a real one and it was not until 1865 that the academy had ceased to be a serious competitor of the high school in Massachusetts. By 1840 there were only about fifty public high schools in America. After 1850 the public high school grew rapidly in favor and importance, and by 1890 it had become the dominant secondary institution in the United States. The Massachusetts law of 1827 which established the high school movement in Massachusetts gave impetus to the development of these schools in the United States. After it had been established through the Kalamazoo Case of 1872 that the state had a legal right to use public funds for high school support, the chief barrier to the development of public high schools was removed. By 1890 the high school was accepted as an integral part of the state common school system supported through state funds derived from taxation.

Public high schools were established without question in the new states of the West which accepted from their formation the principal of public support for both elementary and secondary education. The battle for free state schools under proper state supervision and control, embracing both elementary and secondary training, which had been fought and won by 1890 in the Eastern and Central states was unnecessary in the states west of the Mississippi which based
their school legislation on what the states east of the Mississippi had earlier fought out. Thus it came about that the only important secondary school of the Western states was the public high school, in which territory it found its best opportunity for development and expansion. Many of the new movements for the downward and upward extension of public secondary education as evidenced in the junior high school and junior college organizations found ready advocates among the educators of this section.

After 1840 the public high school began to offer the college preparatory curriculum, and by 1890, college preparation seemed to be its principal function. The demands of the increasing number of institutions of higher learning for a larger number of students adequately prepared for college accentuated the importance of the fitting function of the high school. The diversity of college entrance requirements brought into the high school curriculum a wide array of subjects which made necessary differentiated offerings. As a result, the high school program was expanded in scope to meet the needs of college entrance, a fact which brought about an increasing lack of uniformity and standardization in the curriculum of the high school. By 1890, due to the insistent demands of the college, the high school had become almost entirely a college preparatory institution. Whatever non-college courses for students not college bound were offered as a result of public needs and social pressure, they were provided as a mere gesture toward commercial and vocational training.

The year 1890 marks the beginning of a new era in secondary education. At this time the American public school system was fully established and the public high school had been definitely accepted as the chief agent of secondary education. The economic, social, and political changes since 1890 have been responsible for the enlarged and reorganized programs of the high school. They are also responsible for the concept of universal secondary education and for the definition of secondary education in terms of the life needs of boys and girls between the ages of twelve and eighteen years. Since 1890 the high school enrollment has doubled every decade until now 23,000 high schools with a quarter of a million teachers and administrators are giving instruction to nearly 6,000,000 boys and girls.

With the address of President Eliot before the meeting of the National Education Association in 1888 a new note was sounded in educational progress. It was an earnest plea for a fundamental reorganization of our entire school system and it marked the beginning of the extension of the secondary school downward and upward to include the last two years of the eight-year elementary school and the first two years of the traditional four-year liberal arts college.

The address of President Eliot prompted the appointment of the famous "Committee of Ten," which made its report in 1892 and which constituted a landmark in the history of secondary education. Following the leadership of its chairman, President Eliot, this committee recommended that the length of the elementary school period be shortened and that secondary school work be introduced into the seventh and eighth grades. The committee was of the opinion that the early introduction of high school subjects would not only avoid the needless repetition of monotonous drill work in the seventh and eighth grades of the elementary school, but would serve to broaden early the experiences of children and thereby enrich their school life. The recommendations of the committee were not only influential in initiating the movement for the reorganization of secondary education but served a real purpose in bringing greater uniformity and standardization throughout the high schools of the United States.
The question of the reorganization of our public school system continued to engage the attention of various educational groups. Subsequent committees and university conferences devoted a great deal of attention to the problem. The Committee on College Entrance Requirements, appointed two years after the Committee of Ten had made its report, was of the opinion "that the most far-reaching reforms in secondary education must begin in the seventh and eighth grades of our schools." This group of representatives of the colleges and secondary schools recommended very urgently the introduction of subjects formerly taught in high school into the upper grades of the eight-year elementary school. Dr. John Dewey argued that six years was ample time to devote to the tools of learning, and President Harper of the University of Chicago in 1902 submitted a tentative plan in which he suggested that the period of elementary education be shortened, that the period of secondary education be administered so as to include a part of the eight-year elementary school and the first two years of the traditional college. The Committee on Six-Year Courses, reporting in 1907, 1908, and 1909, recommended a Six-Six plan for elementary and secondary school organization. The Committees on "Economy of Time" and on the "Reorganization of Secondary Education" approved the six-year elementary school and the Junior-Senior divisions of secondary education, and by the close of the first decade of the present century the reorganization of our school system was under way. Junior high schools were established in Berkeley, California, and Columbus, Ohio, in 1909, and by 1922 there were nearly 1500 schools of the junior and junior-senior types.

Somewhat less pronounced, but no less significant has been the growth of the municipal junior college as an upward extension of secondary education. The development of the junior college as an integral part of the secondary school program bids fair to continue in spite of the many limitations under which it now moves forward. Public education up to the age of twenty is now being advocated as a means of relieving unemployment. In 1918 the seven cardinal objectives of secondary education formulated by the National Education Association gave both to teachers and the general public a new and broader conception of the purposes of the modern secondary school and were influential in the movement for the reorganization of secondary education.

The secondary school curriculum, influenced greatly by the psychological developments since 1905 and complicated by the needs and demands of the heterogeneous enrolment, has become the chief problem of the modern secondary school. The program for secondary education formulated by the "Committee of Ten" represented the first step in the evolution of the modern high school curriculum. Since then the curriculum of the high school has engaged the attention of educators. It has been the special concern of committees, research workers, experimental schools, school administrators and teachers, and students of Education. Curriculum programs, based upon scientific study and investigation, have been formulated and made available for schools anxious to provide better educational opportunities for their pupils. Almost all of the high schools of America have felt the need for curriculum construction and for curriculum revision and many of them have developed a program of studies suited in some measure to the needs of modern youth and the demands of the social order. The curriculum has come to signify a way of life for the pupil.

The high school has developed an extra curriculum to care for the out of school life of boys and girls, a guidance program to assist the pupil through counsel to make wise choices, adjustments, and interpreta-
tions in connection with critical situations in his life, and a system of pupil accounting to secure all pertinent information concerning the school progress of pupils.

The American high school, the most important social institution in American life, has become a highly complex school ministering to the needs of a large and heterogeneous group of boys and girls. Its essential features are a competent teaching staff, an enriched functional curriculum, a functional administrative and supervisory program, worthwhile instructional materials, an effective guidance program, an adequate system of school records, co-operative community relationships, and an ample school plant.

Our modern extended secondary school is an institution of which only America can boast. It now enrolls approximately 65 per cent of the population of secondary school age. Its pupil population now represents every segment of the social order.

The public high schools of today are vastly different from those of a few decades ago. Perhaps the most significant of all developments in secondary school theory is that of the recognition of individual differences in pupils. During the second decade of the present century various plans for teaching the individual rather than the group came into vogue—the Dalton, Winnetka, Morrison, Miller, and Unit plans. They have all gone through the necessary experimental stages, and perhaps the most significant fact concerning all these various modifications in classroom procedure is that all of them are attempting to do the same things in the same way. The clarity with which the principles of learning and teaching have been formulated have made it possible for the advocates and sponsors of each of these plans to find a common ground upon which to base their teaching efforts. An analytical study of the various plans will show that the principles and techniques common to one are common to all; the characteristics of one are the characteristics of all. The trend with reference to the individualization of instruction is decidedly towards some form of the unit assignment, representing a complete reorganization of subject matter in terms of broad and significant aspects of the environment centering around the life interests of children, and developed according to the principles of learning and teaching.

At its beginning the public high school had as its function preparation for active life. It soon, however, due to the establishment of state normal schools and universities, accepted preparation for college as its principal task.

Unlike its predecessors, the high school became a sequential school in that it continued the formal training of the elementary school and prepared its students for college. One of its first problems was articulation between these two units. Occupying a central position between the elementary school and the college, the public high school has ever been concerned with its curriculum and its methods of instruction so as to make it possible to give the proper kind of instruction to those who come up from the elementary school and at the same time provide the necessary training for those anxious to enter college at the close of the high school period. This problem of articulation has never been solved and is still a live issue. Out of it has grown two well defined movements—the downward extension of the high school to include the last two years of the elementary school and the upward extension of the high school to include the first two years of the college. The first of these movements resulted in the 6-3-3 plan of organization, or modification of this plan, such as the 6-6 plan, 6-2-4 plan for twelve grade school systems and the 6-2-3 plan and the 5-3-3 plan for eleven grade systems. The 6-3-3 plan has become the most frequent type of organization, consisting of a six year elementary school; a three year
junior high school, and a three year senior high school. The second of these movements resulted in the recognition of the junior college as the upper level of the secondary school, that is, that the secondary school period is an eight year period divided into three parts—the junior high schools, the senior high school, and the junior college. This movement is known as the 6-3-3-2 plan. In recent years it has been suggested that this plan be changed into a 6-4-4 plan,—a plan that divides the eight years of secondary education into two divisions of four years each. Secondary education is now regarded as training for individuals from twelve to twenty. Such a program of secondary education, if generally adopted, would not admit youth into industry until after the “teen” age.

The chief problem of public secondary education is the curriculum. It must meet both adolescent needs and the needs of the increasing complexity of modern life, and it must provide the richest possible experience suited to young people between the ages of twelve and twenty years.

The high school is the product of American social life designed as an institution of society to meet the life needs of all normal adolescents between the approximate ages of twelve and twenty years. Beginning with the last decade of the last century, the high school entered upon an era of growth and progress unparalleled in the history of any social institution. It is now regarded as the “people’s college” in which the sons and daughters of all the people, rich and poor, may have an equal opportunity for educational development. A high school education is the birthright of every American child, and the continued support of this institution during the greatest of depressions when “pruning knives grew into swords” bears testimony to the unchallenged faith of the American people in their system of public education. During the three hundred years of its existence the American high school has kept pace with the development of this country, reflecting its ideals and endeavoring to anticipate its needs. It has won its way into popular favor by the sheer merit of its work and is now regarded as one of the most precious possessions of the American people. Its past achievements and its present programs for improvement are an earnest of what it will mean to the future life of America.

William R. Smithey

MUSIC IN THE PRIMARY GRADES

WHEN I first glanced at the program for this afternoon and saw that of the four school studies to be discussed, music came last, I was very forcibly reminded that this is the position that music has long held in the school curriculum. As compared with the subjects of reading, writing, and arithmetic, music is considered non-essential and can be done without. This accounts for the fact that music is usually one of the first subjects to be cut out of the curriculum in an economy program.

But things are improving. One of the most promising developments within the new curriculum is the opportunity for training in the field of the creative and recreative arts, the provision for individual differences and freedom of expression. And a new standard is being set up. We are asking not only “What is a study worth in the work of life?” but also “What is a study worth to the enjoyment of life?”

There is no doubt but that music is for life’s enjoyment, and this end should be the aim of school music. There are two general avenues of approach: first, through a developing appreciation, and second, through skill in performance. And this brings us to the

Read before a meeting of the Primary Section of District J, Virginia Education Association, held at Charlottesville, March 16, 1935.
fundamental problem in teaching music. How can we cultivate a love for the subject and at the same time accomplish the drill necessary for skill? Two main lines of procedure are recommended: first, singing tending mainly toward knowledge and skill; and second, listening tending mainly toward taste and judgment.

Now as to methods and materials: experience has taught us that there are very few children who can really never learn to sing. Not more than one or two out of a hundred are incurable monotones. I know that some of them sound very incurable at first, and you can hardly tell what they are trying to sing. And it may be wise not to attempt to name the song, for you might make the mistake that the teacher made when the little boy in the art class brought his drawing up to her and said: "I don't think this is very good, do you?" The teacher looked at the drawing and replied, "Why, yes, Henry, I think that is a perfectly splendid brown dog." "Dog?" said Henry. "I meant it for a horse." Most monotones can be cured if the right teacher is found early in the child's music experience. The defect is more often of the ear than of the voice. Some helpful methods are to get the whole class to singing on a high tone; then sing with the monotone "sliding" his tone up to that of the others where he will usually stop. Or have the child try matching tones or imitating calls. Just recently I have been working with a monotone in one of my classes and I had him imitate the whistle of a train—first as it sounded very close at hand, and then as it gets fainter and fainter in the distance—and I have found it very effective. This curing of monotones is one of the principal aims to be accomplished in the primary grades, and the teacher should realize that the importance of tone-quality overshadows all other elements in the school music.

The next step that we shall consider deals with the selection of songs. The child's power to sing by rote or imitation makes it possible to introduce to him some of the most beautiful melodies. Of course we shall give him childish rhythms and ditties, but we shall not limit him to these. We should include those songs the singing of which will be a pleasure all his life, and acquaintance with which will form the basis of his musical taste and experience. The argument that the child does not understand what he sings about has less meaning if the song is one that lives from generation to generation. Of course, it may be necessary to explain some of the words and meaning. A little child, for instance, in singing "Swanee River" was saying, "Still longing for the old temptation" instead of "plantation." But ludicrous mistakes also occur in the very simplest of children's stories. A little child in retelling the old favorite "Little Black Sambo" came to the point where the tiger says "Now I'm the grandest tiger in the jungle," and she very loudly exclaimed "Now I'm the grandest tiger in the junk- pile." Surely some explanation may be necessary; but do not ruin a song by over-explaining.

In teaching rote-songs there are several things to consider. First, the seating: a good plan is to place the best singers in the rear seats, the monotones in front, and the average singers in between the two groups. The teacher sings the song through several times, so that the class may get it as an entirety. She then tells the story, or discusses and explains anything necessary about the song or words. There has been wide difference of opinion as to whether the teacher should sing with the children from the first or whether she should sing the song phrase by phrase, then stanza by stanza, letting the children imitate her. Both methods have been successfully used, though the latter may be preferable. It is usually best to have a class working upon several partly-learned songs rather than learn a song by long, continuous practice. Learning con-
continues to take place between practices and pupils learn best when they do not tire of any selection.

All singing in the primary grades should be done in soft, relaxed tones. The little child's voice is high and not strong. Only light, head tones should be used, the best range being from E-flat first line to F fifth line.

Every primary school also needs a good, well-tuned piano for accompaniments, and accompaniments should usually be played just as written without any added frills or notes. A primary child on hearing a teacher try to jazz the accompaniment exclaimed, "There, she's done messed it all up."

Of course a good victrola with from 20 to 25 records of good music is necessary for the "listening" lessons. To the question "How do you know that pupils are doing anything but sitting in a listening lesson?" it may be said that even sitting is preferable to the excessive number of stories told about some selections. There should be few remarks and no long explanations. Music is a language that begins where the spoken word ends. Also the general schoolroom situation must be right for appreciation. Walking about or closing windows disturbs. Neither can a teacher say "Now we have an appreciation lesson; sit still and appreciate, or you will stay after school."

If we were able to analyze appreciation, just what in addition to "sitting" should we find? The pupils may be enjoying the various shades of tones, they may be responding with visual images or associations, or they may exhibit motor reaction, such as tapping, swaying or beating time, for rhythm plays a large part in the music of primary grades. Pupils who are not rhythm-conscious often develop the rhythm sense rapidly in tapping exercises, dance steps, and strongly accented selections, which they hear and sing. Words often clear up rhythm better than counting. Marching also helps. Toy orchestras have their greatest value in developing rhythm and regularity with the ability to keep together. I haven't time to go into the subject of the orchestra except to say that the children thoroughly enjoy it and I have found it very worth-while. The instruments are rather expensive. Fortunately we were able to buy ours, but very satisfactory ones can be made very cheaply.

It has been impossible to even attempt to cover this subject in such limited time. But in conclusion may I say that whatever the music of the future in our country will be lies largely in your hands. You will mold the next generation of music makers. Out of the past and the present you will shape the songs of your times.

A very apt illustration of this has happened in my own grade. Soon after the children entered for the new term I gave them the opportunity to sing their favorite songs. One little fellow on the front seat arose and sang very lustily, "If I had wings like an angel, To the cold prison bars would I fly, etc." Now, when called upon for his favorite, he responds with the lovely melody of Nevin's "Mighty Lak a Rose." Noting such a change, we can more fully understand what Fletcher meant when he said "Let me write the songs of a nation, and let who will make its laws."

Anne Browne

What those of us who are born into this confused age of machines, advertising, new wants, and universal suffrage have to do is to try to bring some order out of the chaos of moral values, and in an irretrievably altered world to reassert the philosophy of the Old South and to bring the new democracies to see the values of the good life are other than material.

—James Truslow Adams.

You must have either intelligence or spiritual faith to stand up against life. When you have both, you can be a conqueror.

—Hugh Walfole.
EDUCATIONAL COMMENT

STUDY TOURS ABROAD

The International Institute of Teachers College announces a series of Educational Study Tours in England, France, Germany, Mexico, Russia and the Orient for the summer of 1935. These tours are conducted with the co-operation of the various official educational authorities in the countries visited.

In the summer of 1935 there are several alternatives offered: three general education or study courses to England, France, and Germany, respectively; two special tours to Germany, one for people interested primarily in mathematics education and a residence study group in the city of Berlin; a special music education course, the itinerary of which covers England, Germany, Austria and France; a field course in Mexico; a field course in home economics education in the Orient; and finally a curriculum field course in England, Germany and Russia.

University credit equivalent to that obtained by residence in an American summer session will be granted to participants who satisfactorily complete the course and meet the requirements for credit.

LOSING 100 YEARS

If your great-great-grandfather went to school in 1776, his instruction was limited to six subjects. When your great-grandfather was ready for his education in 1825, the number had risen to eleven. It was eighteen in your grand-father’s time.

Steadily the curriculum was enriched and standards of instruction lifted, until in 1920, the number of subjects in elementary schools ranged from twenty in some states to thirty-one in others.

Even more impressive was the record in the high schools. You remember how earnestly the women’s clubs worked and agitated to introduce cultural and vocational training, and to bring the life of the young people more nearly into conformity with the world outside. One by one, highly skilled teachers were added in music and drawing, in home economics and manual training, in health education, in psychology and sociology, in the understanding and appreciation of the arts. The number of subjects from which high-school students might choose ranged from fifty to well over a hundred.

Now we are threatened with the loss of what has been so painfully achieved. Teachers’ salaries have been slashed and schools shut up; and, equally disastrous, the newer cultural subjects are being swept ruthlessly out of the curriculum everywhere.

To starve our schools is the worst of all economics. Professor John Dewey has pointed out recently that the cost of keeping a boy in the classroom is less than a hundred dollars a year, while the cost of keeping a man in jail is more than three hundred dollars. But the danger lies deeper. Few of our children will go to jail, while all of them, if the New Deal succeeds, will have more leisure. We are sacrificing the very courses that should guard a leisured man or
woman from becoming a mere loafer, courses that lead to the enjoyment of books and music and art and good conversation, to the practice of useful hobbies, to contentment at home.

Education is more important than any of the so-called economic problems. If we lose billions, we shall some day recover the loss. But woe to the United States if the future historian writes: "In a few months of depression the nation impoverished its future by casting away the educational gains of a hundred years."—Bruce Barton, in The Red Book.

WHAT IS A LIBERAL EDUCATION?

That man, I think, has had a liberal education who has been so trained in youth that his body is the ready servant of his will, and does with ease and pleasure all the work that, as a mechanism, it is capable of; whose intellect is a clear, cold, logic engine, with all its parts of equal strength, and in smooth working order; ready, like a steam engine, to be turned to any kind of work, and spin the gossamers as well as forge the anchors of the mind; whose mind is stored with a knowledge of the great and fundamental truths of nature and of the laws of her operations; one who, no stunted ascetic, is full of life and fire, but whose passions are trained to come to heel by a vigorous will, the servant of a tender conscience; who has learned to love all beauty, whether of nature or of art, to hate all vileness, and to respect others as himself.—Thomas H. Huxley.

THE READING TABLE


Source material effectively organized for the use of the student and teacher of economics, containing three hundred and fifty news and feature articles from the New York Times, January, 1933 to August, 1934 and from Current History and The Annalist of the same period. A few charts depicting significant economic trends are included.


Setting forth the developments of the depression and the efforts to bring about economic recovery, the volume has more than temporary value; it constitutes a fairly thorough economic history of the five trying years since 1929.

O. F. F.


The subject matter is effectively related to the great problems of finance, relief, and industrial recovery of the Roosevelt administration. This revision of a splendid textbook gives the reader a sound understanding of his economic environment and enables him intelligently to interpret economic trends and tendencies.

Good organization, accuracy of material, and soundness of theory combined with the employment of interesting and easily understood language and a wealth of well-chosen illustrative material, are features that especially commend this textbook. More than a third of the whole volume is given over to illustrations, cartoons, charts, diagrams, questions and problems for discussion, and references for further reading.

Everyday Economics is adaptable for use in beginning courses in high school economics either one or two semesters in length.
In my estimation it is definitely the best tool for the teaching of high school economics that has been published to date. Moreover, general readers will find this book a simple and dependable means for acquiring a better understanding of the economic world they live in.

**O. F. F.**


_Le Francais Vivant_ is indeed very much alive, and holds the interest throughout. Beginning with the simplest French possible, abundantly illustrated on almost every page, the book offers a gentle ascent to a vocabulary not so easy. Though there can be no royal road to learning, the hill of difficulty has here been well graded.

Part I is verily a First Reader, with its short sentences—childlike but far from commonplace—about girl and boy and dog and cat and even the familiar Little Red Hen. But soon we meet, in a form greatly simplified, Mr. Seguin's Goat, the Twelve Months, and the like, besides well-known folk-songs.

Part II consists of a dozen guignol plays. Amid the present-day interest in the marionettes of Tony Sarg and others, it is fitting to feature this puppet show which is so dear to the hearts of the children of Paris and of Lyons.

**E. P. C.**

_American Reading Instruction._ By Nila B. Smith. Silver, Burdett & Company. 1934. 274 pp. $1.96.

For the student who was taught to read by the A-B-C method and who, in her teacher-training courses, now learns that reading vocabulary grows out of speaking vocabulary and experiences of the child, this book is valuable. It traces the development of the reading instruction, showing what was taught, why it was taught, and the methods used. It gives the student a sympathetic understanding of the changes which have taken place in teaching reading and helps her see clearly the problems involved in present-day teaching.

**M. L. S.**

**NEWS OF THE COLLEGE**

Dr. Bessie Carter Randolph, president of Hollins College, was the principal speaker at the ceremonies marking the installation of Student Government officers on Wednesday, March 27. Dr. Randolph, who was dean of women at the college here during several summer sessions, spoke on the responsibilities of world citizenship.

Frances Wells, Suffolk, incoming president, was installed by Henrietta Manson, Lottsburg, retiring president. Other incoming officers who will serve till the beginning of the spring quarter next session, are Charleva Crichton, Hampton, vice-president; Annie Cox, Baywood, secretary-treasurer; Catherine Cartee, Hagerstown, Md., recorder of points; Elizabeth Bywaters, Opequon, editor of the Handbook. Virginia Cox, Woodlawn, editor of _The Breeze_, and Lois Meeks, Baltimore, business manager of _The Breeze_, also take office with the beginning of the spring quarter.

Students returned Wednesday night, April 3, from the spring holidays which lasted from Friday noon, March 29, to Wednesday, 10 p.m., April 3. Classes were resumed Thursday morning at 8 o'clock. This holiday took the place of the usual vacation given at Easter.

Henrietta Manson, retiring student government president, and Frances Wells, newly-installed president, attended the convention of the Southern Intercollegiate Association of Student Government presidents held at the State College for Women, Tallahassee, March 28-30. Both report a most profitable and enjoyable trip.

Directed by Dr. D. W. Peters and Miss
Ruth Henderson of the State Board of Instruction, a district meeting of the State Curriculum Committee was held recently. Superintendents and supervisors from the city of Harrisonburg, Rockingham, Frederick, Highland, and Shenandoah counties were in attendance.

Nancy Turner, of Norfolk, has been chosen by the student body as its princess for the Apple Blossom Festival to be held in Winchester, May 2 and 3.

Twenty paintings by Virginia artists exhibited last quarter in the art room have been donated to the college. There are a number of black and white woodblock prints by Charles Smith, Waynesboro; about five lithographs of historical buildings in Richmond and Williamsburg by Theodore White, one of the best lithographers in Virginia; four etchings of state industries by Carson Davenport, of Danville; several woodblock prints by John Butler, of Hume. Most of them will be hung in the dormitory parlors.

Helen Madjeski, Elizabeth City, N. J., has been elected president of the Curie Science Club to serve through next year. Other officers elected were Katherine Gay, Clifton Forge, chairman of the program committee; Ruth Manning, Assawoman, vice-president; Goldie Cohen, Scottsville, secretary; Gertrude Ashenfelter, Edinburg, treasurer.

Anne Wood, Richmond, was elected recently president of Alpha Literary Society for next year. Eleanor Taylor, Ridgeley, Md., was elected secretary.

Mary Page Barnes, Amelia, has been chosen president of the Lee Literary Society for the spring quarter. Others elected were Frances Jolly, Holland, vice-president; Eugenia Trainum, Meltons, chairman of the program committee; Mary B. Cox, Independence, secretary; Nancy Turner, Norfolk, treasurer; Polly Stephenson, Norfolk, sergeant-at-arms, Margaret Ann Fisher, Petersburg, critic.

The Harrisonburg College Glee Club, accompanied by Miss Edna Shaeffer, director, left April 4 for a three-day tour. Programs were presented in Richmond and Norfolk.

The Davidson College Glee Club and Salon Orchestra, a leading concert organization of the South, appeared in Wilson Hall March 21. This entertainment was sponsored by the local College Glee Club.

ALUMNAE NEWS

ALUMNAE HOME-COMING

The Home-coming in March was splendidly attended, 316 alumnae registering on Friday and Saturday. Others, who came for some special part of the program, failed to register in Alumnae Hall. The number registering last year was 179.

The new vice-president and new treasurer are Virginia Starke, '31, of Norfolk and Margaret Proctor Ralston, '20, of New Hope. The retiring officers are Virginia Buchanan, '26, of Harrisonburg, and Sarah Milnes, '28, of McGaheysville. Shirley Miller, '31, Edinburg, and Rachel F. Weems, '17, Harrisonburg, president and secretary, respectively, do not complete their two-year terms until March, 1936.

Reports from the various chapters showed that practically every one is working toward a loan fellowship.

Alumnae speakers were Clotilde Rodes, Portsmouth; Frieda Johnson, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn.; Eva Massey, Boyce; and Anne Trott, Ft. Defiance. These talks, in abbreviated form, will be published in the May issue of the Virginia Teacher.

REGISTER OF HOME-COMING

ALUMNAE, MARCH, 1935

1912: Eva Massey, Boyce; Mary Sadler Pollard, Scottsville; Vada Whitesel, Harrisonburg.
1913: Elizabeth Kelly Davis, Waynesboro.
1914: Florence Keezell Simms, Penn Laird.
1915: Mary Bosserman, Harrisonburg; Frances
R. Cole, Chester; Agnes S. Dingley, Harrisonburg; Freida Johnson, George Peabody College, Nashville, Tenn.; Velma Moescher, Roanoke; Bessie Swartz, Mt. Jackson; Tenney Cline Wolfrey, Harrisonburg.

1916: Eleanor Marable, St. Barnabas Mission, Elkton; Mrs. W. O. Thomas (Ethel Scarborough), Harrisonburg.

1917: Emma E. Byrd, Harrisonburg; Mrs. Hazel Cole Davis, Harrisonburg; Rachel Weems, H. T. C.

1918: Mrs. C. C. Rush (Flossie Grant), McGaheysville.

1919: Virginia Zirkle Brock, Harrisonburg; Rosalie Brock Byrd, Harrisonburg; Helen Hopkins Hoover, Timberville; Elizabeth Nicol Metcal, 4302 Leland St., Chevy Chase, Md.; Mary H. Nash, University.

1920: Tita Bland Mottley, Roanoke; Margaret Proctor Ralston, New Hope; Mary Seebert Starr, Bridgewater.

1921: Mary Thrasher, Bridgewater; Margaret Lewis Wise, Harrisonburg.

1922: Christine Long, Harrisonburg; Margaret Mackey, Harrisonburg.

1923: Mrs. Bowden Hundley (Cornelia Hart), Portsmouth; Kathryn McNell, Harrisonburg; Nelle Moon, Harrisonburg; Alberta Rodes Shelton, Norfolk; Frances Shert, Harrisonburg.

1924: Anna Forsberg Barnes, Virginia Beach; Helen M. Carter, Staunton; Mrs. Edith C. Garber, Harrisonburg; Emily Hogge, Yorktown; Clotilde Rodes, Greenwood; Ruth Swartz, Mt. Jackson; Mary Lippard Thompson, Charlottesville.

1925: Kerah Carter Ellis, Staunton; Virginia C. Kincaid, Amherst; Laura Lee Lambert, Baltimore, Md.; Mary Elizabeth Rubush Long, Harrisonburg.

1926: Sallie H. Blosser, H. T. C.; Ruth Paul Browning, Richmond; Virginia Buchanan, H. T. C.; Courtney Garland Kyhn, 3904 Seminary Ave., Richmond; Mrs. Franklin Landis (Hazel Branch), Harrisonburg; Janie McGehee, Weyers Cave; Virginia Ransone, Norfolk; Georgie Shrum, Bridgewater; Sadie Williams, Clarendon; Charlotte Wilson, Hampton; Ruth Zuber, Harrisonburg; Doris Woodward, Charlottesville.

1927: Elizabeth Ellmore, Herndon; Mrs. Paul G. Kline, Dayton; Irene Long McClung, Fairfield; Lucille McGlaughlin, Harrisonburg; Elizabeth Mason, Harrisonburg; Frances Beidler Monseer, Harrisonburg; Louise Schlosser, Gordonsville; Mamie Omohundro Switzer, Harrisonburg; Alta Wenger, Harrisonburg.

1928: Edith Agner, Covington; Mrs. Elizabeth Terrie Alexander, 216 30th St., Norfolk; Mary T. Armentrout, McGaheysville; Margaret P. Bird, Harrisonburg; Sylvia Blose, Harrisonburg; Lucy Taylor Cole, Waynesboro; Mary Worsham Dovel, Harrisonburg; Isla B. Eastham, Staunton; Lucy Faulkner, Harrisonburg; Virginia R. Fristoe, Harrisonburg; Margaret Birsch Hale, 710 W. 36th St., Norfolk; Anne Way Herrington, 9908 Granby St., Norfolk; Virginia Hoover, Harrisonburg; Elizabeth Malone, Roanoke; Sarah C. Milnes, McGaheysville; Inez Morgan, Harrisonburg; Mary Yager Payne, Madison; Cameron Phillips, Harrisonburg; Elsie Leake Ralston, Harrisonburg; Virginia Hughes Rogers, Greenwood; Margaret Chandler Shreve, Harrisonburg; E. Genevieve Warwick, Bridgewater.

1929: Charlotte H. Byers, Harrisonburg; Sarah T. Dunn, Free Union; Mary Greene, New Hope; Charlotte Hagan, Clarendon; Mrs. Paul M. Haldeman (Marguerite Goodman), Winchester; Virginia Hamilton, Parnassus; Pearl Hart, 1859 Columbia Rd., Washington, D. C.; Constance Henry, Harrisonburg; Ethel Shoemaker Hering, Harrisonburg; Ruby Hubbard, Callands; Margaret Roberts Johnson, South Norfolk; Sallie Chew Leslie, Staunton; Eleanor Mecartney, Middletown; "Libby" Miller, Sperryville; "Cotton" Heizer Miller, Sperryville; Mary Mullins, Roanoke; Elizabeth King Nunn, 202 Jamestown Rd., Williamsburg; Kathryn Pace, Hampton; Anne Ragan, Holland; Frances Rand, Amelia; Mrs. R. G. Rea (Mildred Goodwin), Nelly's Ford; Odelle Bean Rosenberger, Richmond; Lelia Shipp Sibbaugh, Winchester; Helen Sutherland, University; Eugenia Beazley Terrell, Williamsburg; Viola E. Ward, Mechum River; Evelyn Wolfe, Harrisonburg; Janet Beidler Yancey, Harrisonburg.

1930: Ernestine Lambert Allport, 120 Masonic View Ave., Alexandria; Artie Andes, Ft. Defiance; Williene Barner, 304 St. Andrew St., Petersburg; Ruth L. Bowman, Harrisonburg; Edna Brown, Purcellville; Lillian Derry Brown, South Norfolk; Gladden Hook Chew, Staunton; Mildred Coffman, Edinburg; Elizabeth L. Davis, Gordonsville; Gertrude Drinker, R. 6, Richmond; Irene Garrison, Harrisonburg; Rose F. Hogge, Winston-Salem; Elizabeth Hopkins, Harrisonburg; Helen Lee, Norfolk; Elizabeth Coyner Lipscomb, Waynesboro; Ruth Lee Maloy, Harrisonburg; Anna Laura Mauck, Harrisonburg; Othelda Mitchell, Norfolk; Edythe B. Monahan, 66 Gilpin St., Alexandria; Nancy Sublett Nelson, Harrisonburg; Idah Payne, Harrisonburg; Alice Hawes Pollard, Aylett; Ruby Pryor, 1800 Eye St., N. W., Washington, D. C.; Elsie Quisenberry.
Rockville; Mary Bettie Rodes, Greenwood; Ruby Stewart, Harrisonburg; Frances Sutherland, North Garden; Mildred Allport Thompson, 120 Masonic View Ave., Alexandria; Virginia Eubank Wine, Harrisonburg; Anna D. Withrow, Goshen; Lena Wolfe, Clarendon; Nettie T. Yowell, Boyce.

1931: Edith Andes, Ft. Defiance; Rebecca Beverage, Amherst; Jennie Lind Cather, Winchester; Nellie Cowan, Norfolk; Mrs. S. M. Dingleline, Staunton; Elizabeth Downey, Edinburg; Virginia T. Drew, Richmond; Madeline English, Harrisonburg; Anne Garthright, Richmond; Virginia R. Gilliam, Prince George; Evelyn Wilson Gutter, Richmond; Dorothy J. Harley, Round Hill; Emily C. Harrison, Route 81, Richmond; Delphine Hurst, Norfolk; Maxine Karnes, Shenandoah; Martha Keller, Fishers Hill; Shirley Miller, Edinburg; Elizabeth Plank, Waynesboro; Martha Rohr, Gordonsville; Anne Trott, Ft. Defiance; Lois Van Pelt, Sharps; Barbara N. Via, Barboursville; Margaret West, Norfolk; Margaret Woodroof, Petersburg.

1932: Thelma Adams, Red Oak; Eleanor Baker, Lynchburg; Martha Boaz, Stuart; Lawrence D. Bowers, Hinton; Virginia Brockett, Madison; Virginia Coffman, Edinburg; Georgia Collins, 2032 Belmont Rd., Washington, D. C.; Mildred Dawson, Esmont; Julia Duke, Harrisonburg; Julia Fansler, Mt. Jackson; SeNora Francis, Branchville; Kitty Funk, Middletown; Sarah Frances Gayle, Portsmouth; Jae Johnston, Harrisonburg; Anna Lee Jones, Getz; Pearlie Keister, Staunton; Arlene Lauck, Front Royal; Gladys Leech, Lexington; Thelma W. Leech, Lexington; Louise McComb, Stuart's Draft; Sallie McCormick, Millboro Springs; Mrs. John G. Miller (Catherine Crimm); New Market; Dot Rhodes, Middletown; Linda Sanders, White Stone; Anne R. Sanford, Tucker Hill; Anna Lyons Sullivan, Harrisonburg; Peggy Sutherland, North Garden; Mary V. Swartz, Louisa; Louise Tate, Saxe; Louise Taylor, Whaleyville; May R. Thurston, Buena Vista; Marian Torrence, Concord Depot; Elizabeth Townsend, Amherst; Martha Warren, Lynchburg; Lena E. Will, Timberville.

1933: Lillian Alexander, Covington; Catherine H. Bard, Norfolk; Clarice Beard, Harrisonburg; Marjorie Lutz Bird, Mt. Jackson; Roy Black, Harrisonburg; Bernice Bowden, Stony Point; Katey Wray Brown, H. T. C.; Dorothy Burkett, Mt. Jackson; Betty Bush, Waynesboro; Margaret Campbell, Richmond; Chris Childs, Orange; Betty Marie Coffey, Mint Spring; Lucy Coyer, Waynesboro; Mary Coyer, Waynesboro; Luci V. Crafton, Waynesboro; Julia W. Evans, Mt. Jackson; Margaret Gambill, Covington; Margaret K. Hannah, Cass, W. Va.; Trene Heltzel, Lynwood; Louise Hockman, Lebanon Church; Lucy Hubbard, White Stone; Kathryn Keller, Fishers Hill; Margaret Lackey, Lexington; Hope Landes, Bridgewater; Ruth Miller, Harrisonburg; Elizabeth Shuttera Shannon, Mt. Jackson; Katherine Steele, Portsmouth; Kitty Taylor, Stuart; Bernice Thacker, Afton; Ruth H. Wenger, Harrisonburg; Kathryn Wilson, Harrisonburg; Mrs. Roy H. Wright, Edom; Dorothy Wright, Woodstock; Mary Bragg Young, Petersburg.

1934: Pauline Armstrong, Staunton; Catherine Bauserman, Woodstock; Alma Ruth Beazley, Gloucester Point; Ruth Behrens, Timberville; Virginia Beverage, Harrisonburg; Virginia Hankla Bolick, Luray; Elizabeth Burner, McGaheysville; Nancy Byers, Harrisonburg; Peggy Mears Byers, Harrisonburg; Margaret Clark, Stuart; Margaret Clemmer, Lexington; Alice J. Corne, Harrisonburg; Anne Davies, Clarendon; Courtney Dickinson, Roanoke; Margaret Dorset, R. 10, Richmond; Virginia Dorset, Washington, D. C.; Virginia Earman, Keezletown; Sally Face, Hampton; Gladys Farrar, Winchester; Pauline Farrar, Palmyra; Estelle Fauls, 1413 Jackson St., South Norfolk; Lillian Filpoo, Madison; Katherine Glenn, Covington; Martha Goodwin, Nelly's Ford; Mary V. Grogan, Spencer; Elizabeth Hawpe, Greenville; Margaret Herd, Richmond; Hilda Hisey, Edinburg; Louise Howerton, Alberta; Margaret James, White Stone; Alice M. Kay, Waynesboro; Hazel Koontz, Elkton; Lillian Lambert, Bridgeville; Frances LaNeave, Crewe; Louise Leigh, Portsmouth; Sarah Lemmon, Glenburnie; Elizabeth McGuffin, Warm Springs; Catherine Martinez, New Market; Ann Moore, Portsmouth; Myra Phipps, Bristol; Jessie Reynolds, Cullards; Rachel Rogers, Round Hill; Janie Shaver, Harrisonburg; Mary Shaver, Harrisonburg; Mildred Simpson, Norfolk; Mary E. Smith, Baltimore, Md.; Peggy Smith, Norfolk; Mary R. Spitzer, Hamilton; Louise Stickley, New Market; Frances Sweeney, Evington; Margaret Tate, Saxe; Margaret Thompson, Harrisonburg; Elizabeth Warren, Lynchburg; Evelyn Watkins, Norfolk; Frances Whiteman, Purcellville; Elizabeth Sugden, Hampton; Virginia Zeher, Richmond.

1935: Frances Bowman, Callaway; Mary Frances Brown, Covington; Effie Hess, Dayont; Rebecca Snyder, Waynesboro; Lottie Swope, Dayton; Maggie Stewart, Danieldown; Pam Parkins, Thomas, Norfolk.

Other alumnae unclassified included Irene Briggs, Fannie Rowe Brown, and Bela Outlaw.
of Richmond; Mabel Orndorff, Ballston; and Mrs. T. G. Hester, Baltimore.

Guests at the alumnae banquet found a copy of verses by Dr. Wayland at each plate. They also enjoyed personal greetings from President S. P. Duke, Dr. J. W. Wayland, Miss Elizabeth P. Cleveland, and Supt. W. H. Keister.

Later, in the "Big Gym," a co-ed dance attracted large numbers of students as well as alumnae.

In the afternoon the alumnae had put up a good fight against the varsity basketball team, in a 12 to 16 contest. The line-up:

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Varsity</th>
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<tr>
<td>E. Pittman</td>
<td>R. F. A. Sullivan</td>
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<td>D. McDonald</td>
<td>L. F. G. Barrow Harillson</td>
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<td>M. Regan</td>
<td>J. C. E. Quisenberry</td>
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<td>J. Courter</td>
<td>S. C. F. Ralston</td>
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<td>M. Van Ladingham</td>
<td>R. G. E. Miller</td>
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<tr>
<td>A. Fultz</td>
<td>L. G. J. Duke</td>
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Several new chapters have been organized recently. The Arlington County Chapter, organized in February, has the following officers: Sadie Williams, president; Kathryn Firebaugh, vice-president; Lena Wolfe, secretary; Charlotte Haga, treasurer.

The Augusta County Chapter organized in March with the following officers: Anne Trott, Fort Defiance, president; Lucy Taylor Cole, Waynesboro, vice-president; Betty Bush, Waynesboro, secretary; Mary Green, New Hope, treasurer. Because Augusta County is so large it seemed advisable to form smaller groups in various parts of the county as branches of the county organization. Branches in Waynesboro and the New Hope-Fort Defiance section have already been organized.

Margaret Porter, '34, who has been taking a student dietitian course at the Medical College of Virginia, has accepted a scholarship in the American Hospital, Paris, and sailed April 15.

Dorothy Parker, '34, of Staunton, who sang for the open program on Saturday, is, with her sisters, broadcasting various programs. They have broadcast from Roanoke, Charlottesville, and Harrisonburg, and are becoming known as the "Parker Sisters."

LESSONS BECOME PLAY

From the Washington Post for January 15, 1935, is reprinted the following article by Hope Ridings Miller. It explains the work at the Marshall School in Clarendon, Virginia, as directed by Miss Mary Barbour, principal. Miss Barbour has been a student at Harrisonburg during recent summer sessions and in the summer of 1934 was a student in Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville.

Learning to live instead of "learning lessons" is what children of the John Marshall School in Clarendon are doing under the Curriculum Revision Program of Virginia.

During the holidays a fairy waved a magic wand. The basement room of the school was transformed into a workshop where lessons become play and where teacher and pupils work together on fascinating projects.

The "fairy" who waved the wand was the Parent-Teacher Association of John Marshall. To this group and to the school board goes the credit for the attractive workshop where tables and benches take the place of desks and where working out creative problems takes the place of recitations.

"Pupils learn from doing, from creating," Miss Mary Barbour, principal of the school, said yesterday as she directed the pupils in their new work. "We have only just begun this type of study, yet there has already been a marked increase in pupils' reading. Take, for instance, the projects we are working out now in connection with our study of the annexation of the Spanish territory."

Make Miniature Dwellings

She led the way to two temporarily set up tables on which stood miniature dwellings made of clay (in imitation of the sun-dried brick houses of the Indians) and facsimiles of stucco houses (executed in cardboard). Complete in every detail—even to the well at the side and some green paper
"cactus plants" set up in front—each small house had been made by the pupils.

"To make houses," Miss Barbour went on, "these boys and girls had to do much extra reading, and they didn't mind it under the stimulus of creating something themselves. These houses are the result."

In another part of the room a group was drawing figures on a long band of paper.

"What are you doing?" a small blue-eyed boy was asked.

"I am helping to make a frieze, showing life in the Spanish territory," he replied proudly, his eyes shining. "All of us at this table are working on it."

**Others Map Spanish Territory**

"And when they've finished," piped up a curly-haired little girl who stood watching, "we will know all about the missionaries and the life of people who lived in the Spanish territory."

"Over at that other table," chimed in the blue-eyed boy again, "they're making maps of the Spanish territory."

They were. Huge maps. Maps that could never be made on an ordinary school desk, but could be spread out and drawn with ease on the wide tables of the workshop.

So much for learning all about the history of the Indian Territory. But where did the "learning to live," the adjustment to modern problems, come in?

In this way. By carrying out their projects, the pupils are learning many practical things. Manipulation of tools, for instance. Then, too, cooperation in sharing materials, in caring for school property and in keeping the workshop neat.

"They must like it," Miss Barbour said, a smile curving her lips. "They want to work down here all the time, even during recess."

**Attractive Place to Work**

And why wouldn't they, with such an attractive place to work and such interesting things to make?

The workshop itself is as far from the average school rooms upstairs as anything you can imagine. The natural sand colored walls are brightened with a 16-inch orange border just beneath the high windows. The long orange tables are used at noon for the hot lunches prepared and served under the auspices of the Parent-Teacher Association. Later, cleared, they become work tables again. A piano and a large map stand, a number of chairs, and two temporary tables complete the furnishings of the room as it is now. But later there will be a stage, green screens, a radio, a moving-picture projector, a microscope, and a working library.

Even in completing the room furnishings the children will have a part. They will make table mats of monk's cloth (to match the window draperies), using orange and green needlework. And they will assist further in decorating the room by making flower holders and book ends.

**Many Types of Work Planned**

Later, too, there will be numerous types of work carried on here. There will be clay modeling, soap carving, designing and making of stage scenery and costumes for dramatizations and puppet shows, as well as projects in dyeing and care of textiles, weaving, raffia work and science experiments.

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**OUR CONTRIBUTORS**

ROBERT M. HUGHES has been a member of the State Board of Education since its reorganization in 1930, and is a vigorous champion of higher education in Virginia. Dr. Hughes is a former president of the Virginia Bar Association and was president for thirteen years of the Virginia Board of Law Examiners.

WILLIAM R. SMITHEY is professor of secondary education in the University of Virginia. His paper not only points the way of future development in secondary education, but also serves to mark the three hundredth anniversary of the establishment of the first high school in America—the Boston Latin School, on April 23, 1635.

ANNE BROWNE is a teacher of music in the city schools of Charlottesville.
SCHOOL AND SOCIETY
Edited by J. McKeen Cattell
The issue of School and Society for October 20 includes addresses by Dr. Dixon Ryan Fox, president of Union College, and Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, president of Columbia University, which The New York Times says in an editorial article "together make a tractate, which deserves to have place with Milton's brief treatise on education." The number also contains an extensive account by President Raymond Walters, of the University of Cincinnati, of the recent radio conference in Chicago.

A copy of this number will be sent free so long as the supply lasts to any one who may care to consider subscribing to the journal.

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