WILLIAM H. STAUFFER
on THE FISCAL OPERATIONS OF GOVERNMENT

DR. BENJAMIN M. SMITH'S
REPORT ON THE PRUSSIAN PRIMARY SCHOOL SYSTEM (Third Instalment.)

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THE FISCAL OPERATIONS
OF GOVERNMENT

I wonder if it has occurred to many of us that taxation is perhaps the most outstanding problem in the entire field of governmental relationships. Most of us, I am afraid, look upon this subject as one of the so-called necessary evils of social organization. We are inclined to view taxes as something to be escaped, if possible, and always to be spoken against, in much the same manner as we voice opposition to crime, and unfair competition and unwholesome monopolies.

The trouble with the popular viewpoint lies in a misconception of the true nature of taxes rather than in the subject itself. This failure to understand the true nature of taxation is in large measure not the fault of the individual. It comes out of the lack of a simple and unmistakably clear explanation of the purposes for which taxes are used. In our private finances we generally like to see the things which we contemplate purchasing. Our dollars are parted with only when we have decided that we will receive a commensurate value in exchange for them. Thus whether we be purchasing a new hat, an automobile, transportation service, education, or what not, we are pretty generally conscious of an exchange of our dollars for equivalent values.

Now, governments operate, or should operate, on much the same principle. By this I mean simply that governments operate as purchasers of goods and services, and in order to carry out the responsibilities incumbent upon them, must resort to taxation in order to pay for these goods and services. There is this difference, however.

Whereas the individual is concerned in his spending primarily with satisfying personal needs, wants, or desires, government is concerned primarily with making possible those things which are of constructive value to the entire social group, or body politic. The general public interest alone justifies all governmental spending.

But, you may inquire, what is the point in letting the government spend our money? Why not spend it ourselves instead, and thus make the selection individually and personally of the things which we need and desire? There are many reasons why such a plan will not work, but I shall cite only the several most obvious and important. The first is that it is imperative that governments should act for the entire community (whether that community be the town, county, state, or nation) in providing certain fundamental services. Take, for example, the service of national security. How strong would any nation be in the absence of organized machinery for defensive purposes, or what security against invasion or conquest or the abuse of national rights would be provided if such security rested upon each individual acting alone? The answer is, of course, none whatsoever. For the service of national defense the federal government last year spent more than $533,000,000 or approximately $4.25 for every man, woman and child in the United States. True, you and I did not receive a bill for this particular service from the federal government, but you and I and the other 120 odd millions of people in the country paid for it. How did we pay, you ask? Through taxation. But you say, “I paid no taxes to the federal government”. Probably you paid no direct taxes to the federal government, but most certainly you helped to defray this cost. The way you did it was to make the payment in the course of your

An address before students of the State Teachers College at Harrisonburg, Virginia, October 30, 1935.
ordinary expenditures for clothing, food, amusements and the like. Taxes are exist-
ent in the prices of everything which we buy. None of us escape them, though a
great many of us are not conscious of the fact that we pay them. Most of the taxes
which corporations pay constitute a part of the costs of production and because of this
the purchasers of the products of industry ultimately pay the tax bills.

We have seen in the illustration just given an inescapable governmental function
which gives rise to the need for taxation. When we depart from the inescapable and
imperative governmental services, other reasons must be advanced to justify the
control and administration of activities in which governments engage. This brings us
to a second classification. Other services are governmentally provided because it is to
the general social interest to do so. Take the matter of education, for example. What
would the situation be if each individual or family, let us say, had to look out for its
own school training? There was a time, even in Virginia, when such was the case.
Then the only persons who were taught in schools were those who could pay for pri-
vate tutors or who could afford to go to private schools. The result was that a ma-
jority of the population was uneducated, for most of the people had not the economic
means to secure such training. And strange as it may seem, an early colonial governor
of Virginia, in answering an inquiry from the British government regarding schools
in the colony, replied, “every man according to his ability instructing his children”.
He also thanked God that there were no free schools or printing. Virginia has long
since abandoned the dangerous doctrine of ignorance for the masses, and in so doing
it gave recognition to the principle that gov-
ernments might properly engage in those activities which redound to the betterment
of the social group. Thus all children in Virginia are equally offered the advantages
of elementary and secondary education,

though all do not pay alike for these advantages. It is both more economical and
more desirable socially to give over to gov-
ernment the functions of elementary and secondary education than to leave these to
the care and responsibility of the indi-

So it is as we go through the entire list of things which governments do. In every
instance some cogent explanation may be
given to show why each has become a func-
tion of government. Of late years, how-
ever, and more particularly since the be-

ginning of the present economic depression,
the field of governmental activities has been
extended to include social welfare causes
on an unparalleled scale. Government has
most recently become concerned with the
problem of widespread social security. At
its last session, the Federal Congress passed
what has come to be known as the Social
Security Bill. This bill provides, among
other things, for a system of old age assist-

ance, a system of unemployment insurance,
and a system of old age insurance. Such
types of legislation are not new in the sense
that we have never before considered them,
but they are distinct innovations when we
consider the scale on which it is contem-
plated to project them.

The theory underlying this latest na-
tional legislation is that society in general
should be protected against the economic
uncertainties attending old age and unem-

ploymen
This theory implies an inability
on the part of the individual to cope with
his economic future and to make adequate
provision therefor. This theory further
implies the advantage which accrues to the
entire social group when guarantees are
made against the vicissitudes of unemploy-
ment and old age. It further implies the
concept that general taxes may be levied for
the benefit of economic unfortunates. But
the entire program, it seems to me, is best
defended in theory, as well as in its practi-
cal sense, as a measure for general social
good rather than as a device for the benefit
of the particular individual. Both ends are, of course, sought to be achieved through this legislation, but as a governmental undertaking it cannot be defended from the viewpoint of the individual. The State is not concerned with the welfare of the individual as such, but only as he is related to the social group of which he constitutes an integral part. This distinction is, I believe, important. In any legislation of this sort society must be conceived as an organism whose progress and security are favorably affected by such legislation. This is the test, and if such legislation fails in meeting the requirements, no system of public taxation in support thereof is justifiable.

There remains, however, a further important question. Even though we may find justification in a new type of governmental activity, whether its adoption is wise must be subjected to the further test of its costs. An automobile, a house, a telephone might for any individual be a wholly desirable possession. We do not by virtue of that dictum all have such things. The reason is that all of us may not be able to afford them. Whether we acquire them or not is conditioned upon our incomes. If we cannot have them today, we may tomorrow. A like test must also be applied to the things which governments undertake. What governments cannot afford they ought not to undertake, because, with them as with the individual, the payments must come from income. And the income of government must be based on the income of the people, for it is from them that governmental revenues are derived. Heavy taxes and excessive expenditures may wreck nations and states just as reasonable taxes and wise expenditures may make them grow and develop.

Unfortunately, perhaps, the people of Virginia now have little choice, it would seem, in deciding on the advantage or disadvantage of embarking upon certain aspects of social security legislation. The passage of the federal act makes State legislation on at least one important feature of the three previously mentioned well-nigh inescapable. The reason for the lack of choice lies in the fact that the Federal government will proceed to collect the payroll taxes on industry necessary to finance this feature, whether or not the State acts. If the General Assembly of Virginia does not act in the passage of any unemployment insurance law, the taxes so collected will be lost out of Virginia altogether. As to the old age insurance, the tax will be paid jointly by the employers and employees to the federal government which will itself administer the benefits of this feature. On the question of old age assistance (frequently referred to in error as "pension") the State has the choice of passing such legislation in Virginia as will entitle the State to federal funds (fifty per cent of the costs of any plan giving individual benefits of as much as $30.00) or failing to enact such legislation, with no benefits from the federal government. To repeat, the old age assistance and unemployment insurance features of the federal social security act will come before the legislature of Virginia at its next session. Old age insurance, on the other hand, is beyond the purview of State legislative action. The payroll taxes imposed under this act by the federal government will be collected whether or not the State acts. As a problem in direct State taxation, therefore, we are confronted only with the old age assistance features of the bill. If Virginia desires this social measure, new taxes will in all likelihood be required to finance the costs thereof. The problem reduces itself to a decision of whether we shall have this form of legislation with new taxes or whether we shall do without it and be spared additional tax burdens.

The Governor of Virginia has wisely referred consideration of important features of the federal social security act to his Legislative Advisory Council. We may be sure that from their deliberations only the wisest counsel will be forthcoming.
The costs of social security legislation related to old age assistance, old age benefits and unemployment insurance will entail new taxes throughout the nation approximating $789,000,000 in 1937, $2,128,000,000 in 1942, $2,854,000,000 in 1947, and $3,323,000,000 in 1952. It is conservatively estimated that between 1937 and 1980 the taxes which will be necessary to defray these costs will represent an aggregate contribution of $126,000,000,000 or an annual average of $3,000,000,000. The federal government last year spent something more than 3½ billions dollars for emergency relief, public works and other emergency items arising from the depression. It will spend as much or more in the current fiscal year. When to these costs are added those immeasurable economic and social losses which attend depression, such as lessened wages, diminished profits, wrecked industries, loss of savings, malnutrition, increased crime, and the like, the cost of depression is even more appalling. The federal social security program aims toward the avoidance of such human suffering and deprivation as has been incident to the present depression. Whether the scope of the present legislation is adequate to cope with major depressions is not known. All depressions are cumulative in their force. It is possible that major economic catastrophes may be averted if we prevent their incipiency. Maintenance of consumer purchasing power is the sine qua non of economic stability. As long as this can be maintained, there is little to fear from depressions. If we can do this by means of the existing social security legislation, then indeed the costs of social security which now seem unconscionably large, may actually represent low cost economic stability. It is by no means, however, assured that the present federal law can produce this highly-to-be-desired result.

Of this, however, we may be sure: whatever the costs, they shall be paid for mainly through taxation of the people. We cannot escape that truth. As a social group we always pay for what we receive at the hands of government. Sometimes we get less; we never get more.

Having discussed taxation and the related problem of social security in general, let us turn to Virginia and examine its fiscal procedures more closely. The tax levying jurisdictions in this State number two hundred and ninety-five. They are the State government, the hundred counties, the twenty-four independent cities and the hundred and seventy incorporated towns. Each of these units has certain taxing powers. Notwithstanding this, there is remarkably little overlapping of taxes in Virginia. The State government derives its principal tax revenues from the following sources:

1. taxes on gasoline and automobiles (these revenues being used exclusively for highway purposes);
2. taxes on public service corporations;
3. taxes on incomes (corporation and personal);
4. taxes on intangible personal property;
5. taxes on beer and beverages;
6. license taxes on businesses and occupations;
7. poll taxes;
8. profits on the sale of hard liquor.

From all of these sources the State derived approximately $36,000,000 in the last fiscal year. Of this amount approximately $17,600,000 or 49 per cent was devoted to highway purposes; $8,000,000 or 22 per cent went for education ($6,600,000 to elementary and secondary schools; $1,400,000 to higher education); $2,200,000 or 6 per cent for public welfare; and $800,000 or slightly over 2 per cent for health. The remaining 21 per cent went to defray the costs involved in other governmental activities such as criminal expenses, confederate pensions, expenses of the General Assembly,
the courts, conservation and development and the other agencies of the State government located in Richmond and elsewhere. Approximately $600,000 of this amount was returned intact to the localities for their own expenditure purposes.

These figures just shown indicate in a general way what becomes of the State tax dollar. They do not include those revenues and expenditures which arise out of non-tax sources, such as the federal grants for highways and education, or the earnings of the State governmental institutions.

Turning now to the localities, we observe that in the counties, cities and towns the bulk of their revenues are derived from ad valorem taxes on real estate and tangible personal property. In the towns and cities these are further supplemented by license taxes imposed on business and occupations, and to a lesser extent by earnings on municipally operated utilities.

The total local taxes in the counties and cities collected from property for the tax year 1934 up to June 15, 1935 amounted to $25,443,543.74, of which $15,807,019.36 was in the cities and $9,636,524.38 in the counties. To these figures must be added approximately $1,400,000 in property taxes imposed by the incorporated towns. We thus observe that the total local property tax burden amounts to about $26,800,000. This represents slightly less than three-fourths of the total State collected tax revenues.

When we add to these figures approximately $3,500,000 taxes imposed on businesses and occupations by the city and town governments of Virginia we find that the total State and local tax load in Virginia aggregates $64,300,000. This represents a per capita burden of $26.79. In 1932 the per capita burden in Virginia was $31.17; hence the burden has been reduced between 1932 and 1935 by 14 per cent. State and local taxes throughout the United States in 1932 amounted to $51.69 per capita. Virginia's taxes for 1932 were therefore 48 per cent lower than the national average.

What explains Virginia's low tax burden throughout the depression period?

1. Virginia entered the depression with a treasury surplus approximating $4,000,000. This enabled the State to withstand the impact of diminished State revenues during the first years of the depression.

2. During the depression period the governors serving have insisted upon "the State's living within its income". In order to achieve this the existing agencies of government have had their respective budgets curtailed for a part of this period for as much as 30 per cent, which cuts have taken up in considerable measure the deficiencies in revenue collections.

3. Virginia is still predominantly agricultural. Relief needs were therefore not as imperative in Virginia as in the states more highly industrialized. Moreover, Virginia's industrial activities were not as seriously affected by the depression as were the industries generally throughout the country. Hence the State tax revenues which come in a large measure from industry and business were not diminished in the proportion that occurred in many other states.

4. Virginia's tax rates are, generally speaking, more favorable than those imposed in other states; hence the burdens were more easily borne in Virginia during the depression than in other areas.

We in Virginia can well be pleased with our relatively moderate tax burdens. All the evidence points to a policy of wise fiscal planning. While we may not claim perfection, we may properly boast of our relatively favorable status when our fiscal system is viewed on the whole.

WILLIAM H. STAUFFER
AN OUTLINE OF THE INSTRUCTION OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

I begin with the first class, comprising children under eight years of age. They remain two years in this class. Oral instruction, reading, writing and arithmetic, are the branches. 1. The teacher's object is to teach the children to think. He uses no book. They are assembled as privately as possible, and he begins by asking them the most simple questions on the objects around them, the chairs, tables, benches, blackboard, their dress, persons, and the form of the room, the windows, stove, fuel, and such like. They are required to describe these various objects, or answer such questions as he may ask. He thus exercises their powers of perception. He may now tax memory, by questions on what they had seen, or on the knowledge he may have communicated. He next calls up absent objects and requires descriptions of the garden, house or street, with which any one is familiar. Of one, he requires a description of a horse, of another a wagon, of another a cow, and of a fourth, a garden. This latter opens a wide range of conversation. One tells what is found in a garden, another describes a tree, another a flower, another some useful vegetable; on one occasion the potato was mentioned, the great staff of life to the poor of Germany, as of Ireland, and the teacher improved the occasion, by pointing out the writer, as one who came from America, the land, where that plant was discovered, to impress the fact on their minds. In short, all that can be made interesting and awaken thought, quicken observation, strengthen memory, and affect the reasoning faculty, is called into requisition. Now he dwells on the usefulness of some animal, now the relations of the domestic circle, and now the beauty and more obvious relations of the natural world, the sun, moon and stars, warmth of summer and cold of winter. In this way they are exercised for several weeks or months, and then commences,

2. Reading.—Instead of a memoriter process of teaching the alphabet, and the slow and tedious spelling lesson, the teacher exercises the vocal organs on certain sounds of an elementary character, as vowels and consonants, with their combinations. With each sound, is associated the form of the letter or letters which represent it. All the elementary sounds are thus taught, before the names of the letters, and thus a distinction drawn between the power and the name. On a rack, prepared for the purpose, the letters are now placed in combination. This exercise is continued till the practice of associating sound and form, has made each familiar with their use. It interests a class, for instance, to take this phrase, "the good boy," and form the several words, till the whole is made out. Their respective names, those of articles about them, and other familiar objects, are used to fix attention. In fact, it is but the process which many an intelligent mother or elder sister adopts in the nursery, in our own country. The books are then taken up and the same phrases and words are presented, which have appeared on the racks, by the letters printed on cards.

3. Writing.—The black-board again comes in requisition. The proper position of the person having been shewn, their attention is called to a single mark. As the
teacher makes this on the board, he says "one!" Every scholar imitates on a slate. He then adds another mark, saying, "one, two," by which they regulate their own movements. These marks are varied, from the straight and angular forms to a curve. If in the form of a hook, it requires three directions, and "one, two, three," from the teacher, indicates when the simultaneous movement of the pencil by the scholars, must be made. It is easy to see that this plan can be pursued to an indefinite extent, and paper, pen and ink, succeed to the slate and pencil. I never saw a German who did not write well, after enjoying the benefit of this drilling.

4. Arithmetic.—The simple elements of this science, are taught by means of the same objects, which are used under the first subject. After the pupils have been taught to count, the simplest processes of addition and subtraction are made perfectly familiar by the illustrations which their own persons or the furniture of the room afford. Multiplication and division succeed on the same plan. Instead of advancing to other arithmetical principles, these are carried out, by increasing the numbers in the various combinations, till they not only learn the multiplication table, but can, with facility, add up any amount which may occur in the ordinary concerns of life, subtract, multiply and divide it, or combine any two, or all these principles, in the modifications of the same example. The improvements in teaching this valuable science already introduced into many of our schools, by the books of Emerson, Colburn, and particularly Smith, are illustrations of the course alluded to, so far as the elementary portions are concerned.

I have been thus minute on the branches of the first class, because such modes of teaching are somewhat novel in many parts of this country. It may not be necessary to be as circumstantial in what follows, though I shall proceed on a similar plan to describe the mode of teaching other branches.

I am well aware that some are prepared to regard such details beneath the notice of the grave politician. But "if we would teach children, we must become children in feeling;" and if we would understand and appreciate modes of teaching, we must tax our manliness in a similar manner. Examples, I apprehend, if not clearer than abstract propositions, in the illustration of principles at least serve a most important part in ensuring perspicuity. Besides reading, writing and arithmetic, the branches taught are geometry, ornamental writing, drawing, grammar, religion, singing, science of music, physics, or the elements of the sciences and arts of life, geography and history, elements of political economy, with the application of mathematics to the simpler processes of surveying and civil engineering.

1. Arithmetic is continued through the second and third classes, and by the solution of questions gradually increasing in difficulty, its various principles are evolved, then embodied in rules laid down in books, and the pupils are required to apply these in practice, till perfectly familiar with both the principles and applications. The science is used in the fourth class for instruction in the simpler portions of mathematical science which then demand attention.

2. Geometry is commenced in the second class. The first lessons are mere explanations of geometrical forms and terms, for which a full supply of cards, painted and lithographed figures of squares, parallelograms, triangles, &c. is required, together with wooden models of solids. In the third class, the science of magnitude and measures is taught by the aid of books presenting the most familiar views of these subjects, which have been given. The use of visible illustrations is still pursued. Thus, for instance, the pupil is taught to calculate the measure of superficies and solids, by means of sections. Twelve cards, each an inch square, may be used to illustrate what
is meant by four square inches, or two inches square, or three inches square; and by increasing the number, he can be easily made to understand the principle on which all calculations of superfices are based, and diagrams on the black board are then introduced, and his information extended. By means of several solids representing cubes of an inch, a similar course of instruction can be pursued in that branch of the subject. The pupils are thus prepared for the application of arithmetic and geometry to the simpler processes of surveying and civil engineering in the fourth class.

3. Singing.—The cultivation of the science of music is a feature of national character too well known to need remark. I am not sufficiently acquainted with the science to do justice to the method used in imparting a knowledge of its elements. My impressions not being incorrect, the following is the usual plan: The first step is to teach the variations of the octave. Time is gradually introduced, the teacher elevating his hand as the voices of the pupils prolong the note, till his dropping it suddenly, denotes a pause. The power of the various characters thus explained, and the form and power familiarly associated and immediately recognized by figure and sound, the names are given, and the pupils gradually exercised on simple tunes, which are completely mastered before they attempt the more complex. The custom of relieving the tedium of other exercises by singing some lively tune for four or five minutes, and of opening the school every morning by singing and prayer, and the practice of this art in the domestic and social circle, as well as two or three times for ten or fifteen minutes together on every occasion of public worship on the sabbath, together tend to render this one of the most easily acquired, and at the same time most pleasant branches of school instruction. Instrumental music is rarely taught in the village schools, but in some of the towns pupils may be found taking lessons on the piano, whose parents are obliged to restrict themselves and families to the use of meat only three times a week! The black board, ruled for the purpose, is used in all the schools.

4. The exercises in reading, having been brought to that stage in the first class, that the pupils can give some short account of the contents of a lesson, the teacher proceeds in the second to instruct them in pronunciation, punctuation, emphasis and tone; not that these subjects have been entirely omitted, for from the beginning, they are taught to pay attention to them in some degree. Their lessons hitherto, however, consisting mostly of short sentences, have afforded little scope for scientific instruction. The class begin by pursuing a course already alluded to, spelling each word in the sentences as they occur in the lesson. Each word is then distinctly pronounced, without spelling. A third process is to pronounce each word with the punctuation points, as they occur. The lesson is then read, regarding each point without mentioning it. A fifth time they read over the sentences, with reference to emphasis and intonation, “one thing at a time, and each completed before the next is undertaken.” As they progress in the art of reading, some of the elementary processes are omitted. It may be remarked, that the orthographical and orthoepical structure of the German language require less attention to spelling than is necessary in learning the English. It is at the same time obvious that this department may be pursued to as full an extent as is desirable on this plan. Reading lessons are made the basis for much other instruction. Geography, biography, as connected with history, moral and religious truths, are thus often united with a lesson, and the numerous questions of the teacher on the sentiment of the piece read, tend at once to excite attention and interest, in what is too often a most irksome and vexatious process.

5. Writing and Drawing.—Proceeding, as already mentioned, the pupils soon ac-
quire a neat hand, and in the third class their skill is exercised in making ornamental letters. This is preparatory to drawing. Their acquaintance with geometry is now in daily requisition, and by the use of models, they soon acquire a facility of sketching and drawing plans, which is truly astonishing. Those who manifest any remarkable talent in this department, are often selected, and if poor, aided to pursue a more extensive course in schools established for teaching the arts. Very few fail to acquire sufficient knowledge to draw doors, windows, columns, facades, horses, cows, flowers, trees and small landscapes.

6. Physics.—Under this general head is included whatever relates to the external world. It is not pretended that the pupils are made chemists, botanists, natural historians or philosophers. The rudiments of these sciences, especially as applicable to arts and manufactures, and the daily business and intercourse of life, are meant. The subjects are divested as much as possible of technicalities, and when they must occur, the thing is explained before the word is used. Instruction in these sciences is given on a plan somewhat as follows:

The teacher mentions some simple machinery, by which he illustrates the mechanical powers. He will perhaps present specimens of each. The pupils are then taught the names by which these powers are designated. Or he will mention some of the more common phenomena of nature, and explain the principles on which they are solved. The influence of heat and cold, elective affinity, the conducting and inflammable powers of different bodies, with regard to heat, the process of combustion and decomposition, the fusibility of metals and similar facts, connected with natural science, are first presented by experiment, and the curiosity and interest in whatever is marvellous, natural to children, are strongly excited, and they are prepared to receive instruction with more attention, and retain truth with more permanence. The first principles of botany, the names, properties and cultivation of the most useful plants; the outlines of agricultural science, are taught by directing the attention of the children to the world around them. It is thus they are prepared for short and comprehensive text books provided for their use. These studies are pursued chiefly in the third and fourth classes, to which also belong the next branch.

7. Geography and History form a branch of physics.—We here observe the same predilection for beginning with simple illustrations. Perhaps the teacher teaches the points of the compass, by the position of different parts of the room. Or selecting the play-ground and school house, with any buildings, stream and hill in the vicinity, the miniature province thus laid out, is made the theme for the first study in geography. The pupil now hears the word explained. He describes this place, familiar by daily observation, and is then told such a description is its geography. A plot of the whole is now laid before him, and he learns this is a map. Real lines are traced across the room or play ground, and as he measures distances and locates objects by these, he learns what are latitude and longitude, meridian lines, the equator, tropics, large and small circles, &c. An apple or naked globe of wood is traced by such lines, and the globular form of the earth explained. From such lessons the transition to the book is easy. The map of Prussia or some portion of it, with descriptions of the productions, manufactures, remarkable places and so on, now engages his attention.

By somewhat similar methods, history is taught. The transactions of a week are recounted—then those of a year, and as the teacher extends the time, he enlarges the sphere of these transactions, beginning with those of one day in school, and ending by a synoptical history of the country for the past year. With historical accounts, anecdotes, biographies, &c. are interspersed, to interest and amuse, as well as instruct. The
history of Prussia, and the geography of that and the neighbouring German states, form the limits of thorough instruction in these departments. The common people are generally profoundly ignorant of other nations, and the United States in particular.

8. Language.—Under this head, I include all relating to the correct speaking and writing of German. The parts of speech are taught, somewhat as in this example: The teacher writes or pronounces the word "read." He asks the children, "what can you say with this word?" A variety of answers are given—"I read," "the boy reads," "I read to day," and so on. He then gives out another word, "love," and similar answers are returned. Proceeding for some time in this way, he then directs their attention to the fact, that these words express some action. In like manner, he selects passive verbs. He now tells them, when a word means to do or suffer, it is a verb. A strictly neuter verb is then explained. The modifications of verbs, by mood, tense, number and person, are gone through. Nouns, adjectives and adverbs, and other parts of speech, are taught on a similar plan. Whenever the teacher discovers that his pupils understand the subjects, he furnishes them with the technical terms. They thus learn to use "predicate," and "subject" and "object" with logical precision.

Connected with this branch, is composition. An interesting relation is made, or read, and the pupils required to give it in their own words, when they meet again. As they advance in information, they are furnished the outlines and required to fill up by imagination, and then subjects are given out. Receipts, bonds, indentures, letters of friendship or business, petitions and similar compositions are prepared, in all which, the strictest attention to grammatical accuracy is required. This branch belongs to the second, third, and fourth classes.

9. Political Economy.—I designate by this term, a series of elementary instructions on society, law, government, arts, and manufactures, which, with Physics, are generally comprehended by the Germans under one term, for which we have no word. They call it "real instruction," i.e. what relates to the realities or materials of things. Polytechnic schools in France are "real schools" in Germany. The teacher begins with man in his natural condition, states his wants, food, clothing, shelter and protection, and how supplies are obtained. Then he speaks of man in the family; the pupil tells what is needed for a family, and how obtained. This leads to discussions of various trades, of their importance, their history, present state and advantages; then agriculture and manufactures are introduced, by speaking of food and clothing. Now the social condition of man, the organization of society, the necessity for various professions, the division of labour, the utility of some trades and professions, and the uselessness of others, are brought into the conversation. A wider range is taken in speaking of the government, protection of laws, establishment and necessity of schools, importance of religion, the rights of property. Family, social, civil, religious and patriotic duties and privileges, all enter into the subject matter of the instruction under this head. There are appropriate books for these studies, though a great deal depends on the teacher. They fall under the studies of the third and fourth classes.

10. Religion.—I never asked an urchin what he learned at school, that he did not first reply "religion." The great leading features of bible truth, are taught orally in the first class. Instruction is continued by means of the plain bible, hymn book and Luther's catechism through the whole course.

A selected portion of the bible is read by the teacher or one of the scholars. Then follows a conversation on it. The portion is generally narrative, or biographical. The
pupils are encouraged to ask questions freely; and the teacher makes explanations. Taking the history of the Saviour's early life, he explains the nature of his intercourse, and enforces obedience to parents, and diligence in acquiring wisdom, by his example. Or the teacher states some principles of good conduct, as fidelity and conscientiousness, and illustrates them by the history of Joseph: that God rewards the good and punishes the evil, and illustrates this by the history of Daniel. The history contained in the bible, is now attended to. With relations in their own words, of some of the most important events recorded, the pupils are required to unite biographical notices of such men as Noah, Abraham, Pharaoh, Moses, David, and so on. Many of the most striking passages are committed to memory. The teacher furnishes a connecting history of the period, between the termination of the old and the commencement of the new testament, and then the latter is made the subject of study, as was the former. The life of Christ is most particularly presented. Connected with this, is a synoptical church history, in which the most important eras are noted, and dates accurately fixed. On the history of the reformation, and the biographies of its distinguished actors, as much minuteness is required, as we connect with our revolutionary war. For on this subject, there is awakened a national feeling. A still higher grade of religious instruction is that respecting the various books of the bible. I heard a class once examined on one of the epistles, in the new testament. Its author, date, subject, and analysis, both of the whole, and each chapter, the history of the people to whom it was addressed, and repetitions of select portions, formed the recitation. The repetition of Paul's eloquent and touching description of charity, by the whole class, was beautiful and affecting.

Although there are several sects of christians in Prussia, they all cordially approve the plan of religious instruction, which is the best evidence that the means used to avoid sectarian influences in its operation, are successful. Nothing could be more guarded than this subject. Every parent has the religious education of his children under his control. The jew has the same privilege. But as the instruction is historical, geographical, chronological and preceptive, rather than doctrinal, it often happens that children of different denominations receive instruction from the same teacher. Otherwise, parents are permitted to provide their own, or when the funds of the school admit it, the school authorities provide teachers for the several sects.

As already intimated, this outline applies generally. It presents less than is taught in towns, and more than the poor villages can afford.

But I have already exceeded my proposed limits in giving this outline, and close it with one or two general remarks, more appropriately following, than preceding it.

1. The practical character of the instruction given, is obvious to a superficial observer. If it be true, as some one has said, that, "education must be a preparation for life," we have in this system, one of the most complete kind. There is no superfluity, no mere theory in this. Technicalities are not thrown by, as some rash reformers desire. They are useful in their place: they are the circulating medium of thought, the exponents of known quantities. It is wise to impress first their value, to give their meaning, then their use is intelligible and convenient.

2. Education is more than instruction. It is the drawing out of the mind, and that in the due proportion of its several faculties. Neither is cultivated exclusively. Memory, judgment, imagination, conception, abstraction, as well as simple perception, are called forth into vigorous exercise. While useful matter is placed before the mind, that mind is taught to appropriate it and use it.
3. The religious features of the system are not the least valuable. A strong religious influence is ever at work. It is not sectarian bigotry nor licentious liberality, but the happy medium of toleration, a medium purchased by oceans of blood, and revolutions, whose volcanic eruptions shook Christendom to the centre. The apostles’ creed being the lesson in a school one morning, I observed, that the teacher omitted the phrase, “he descended into hell,” and his explanation on inquiry, was, “that is a controverted point.” This illustrates the remark already made, that sectarian views are avoided. These are left for the clergyman of the parents’ choice. But the government insists on a religious influence in schools. A happy instance of the mode in which it is sometimes used, is furnished by the inscriptions of texts of scripture over the doors of school rooms, and in other conspicuous places. I remember seeing the words, “Go to the ant thou sluggard,” on the wall of a small room, used to confine the idle and lazy.

4. I am not prepared fully to approve some things in this mode of instruction. Such is the custom of requiring the scholars to read together aloud. This may do for small children or for occasional use. The use of oral instruction is perhaps carried too far; and the teacher often labours to make that plain, which is obvious already, and sometimes confuses the mind with too much illustration. This, however, is rather the fault of individuals, than of the mode.

On the system which has now been exposed, I would offer some remarks, but I feel that they are unnecessary. It is by no means supposed that such a system of establishing schools can be transplanted to every place. But some of its leading features might. It is by no means faultless, nor are its provisions always effectual. But its success has been unexampled, and now it is difficult to find the youth of 20, or under that age, and over 14, who cannot read and write. And in 10 or 15 years more, the full benefit of the law of 1819, will be conspicuous.

There is one defect unconnected with the system, yet incident to the national character, which acts unfavourably on the results of the system. I allude to the great want of books and periodicals adapted to the popular mind. The Germans possess an unusually literary taste. Their scholars are erudite; vast learning, original investigation and thought distinguish them. But there is little done for the people. Even romances and tales, are not adapted to popular comprehension. If we may consider as an exception from this remark, those which deal in the marvellous and foster superstition, we do not consider the exception honourable to national character. Newspapers are literally retailers of news; news of the exits and entrances of titled dignitaries, items from foreign nations, and synopses of the most general domestic intelligence. Prussia needs some More, and Edgeworth, and Sherwood, some Parley or Goldsmith, and in a word, a popular literature.

There are yet some points of inquiry suggested by you, to which I now proceed to attend. They relate to the statistics of primary schools, and the seminaries for teachers.

STATISTICS OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

This interesting topic deserves a more extended notice, than the synoptical plan I have proposed to myself in this report, allows.

Figures, based on facts, speak more directly to our understanding than general assertions. The information now presented, on the actual results of the Prussian school system, is as much entitled to credibility as the returns of a decennial census, the post-office department, or any other official documents of like character. For these returns are not averages or deductions. Every school committee reports to the county
inspector the number of children at school, the number who ought to go, and the number whose education is otherwise provided for. The tabular views based on these returns by the inspector, pass through the councillors of the regencies and provincial boards to the minister, by whom they are digested and compared with the documentary evidence.

From the last reports to which I have had access, I compile these general results:

According to the census of Prussia, there were in 1831, 4,767,072 children under 14 years of age. The reports give an attendance on the schools of 2,021,421. A general rule of statistics, based on the relative mortality of the several ages, gives three seventh of those under 14, between 7 and 14, that is about 43 in 100. Of the whole number then, 2,043,030 ought to be at school. The deficiency is then 21,609. But it must be observed—1. There are returns from public schools, and the private, though not numerous, contain a considerable number of pupils. 2. Many more, especially females, (and males also among the higher classes,) are educated at home, and not included in these returns. 3. Many boys under 14 are so far advanced, as to belong to the gymnasia. Of these alone, there were in 1832, 17,000. Making the proper allowance for these, it might appear that nearly, if not the whole juvenile population of the proper age, is at school. It may be also remarked, that in some districts 55 out of 100 are at school. But even leaving the deficiency at its maximum, it appears that one ninety-fourth of the whole is the amount of that deficiency; while in Virginia, according to the second auditor's report, 19,000 poor children are without the means of instruction—which is about one tenth of the whole number in the state, who, according to your last message, ought to attend school. In these returns, moreover, we discover that the proportion of boys to girls, is as 43½ to 41. The difference, in the two sexes in favour of the boys, is chiefly ascribable to the fact, that more girls than boys are educated at home, and that the latter sometimes begin school under seven years of age. We may add here, that in the middle schools, there are 103,487 children of both sexes. The proportion of boys to girls is 56 to 46, (fractions not reckoned). My own impressions, corresponding with those of others, lead me to say that female education is more neglected, than that of males. In a city of 25,000 inhabitants, there was but one female school, of higher rank than a primary school, while the same city contained ten flourishing gymnasia for boys. True, females share with males the full advantage of that instruction, which is absolutely necessary.

Let us now turn to the number of schools and teachers. To show the improvement under the present system, I present the numbers for three periods, the first, that of the year 1819, in which it went into operation:

In 1819, there were 20,085 primary schools, and 21,895 teachers.
In 1825, there were 21,623 primary schools, and 22,965 teachers.
In 1831, there were 22,612 primary schools, and 27,749 teachers.

I include the middle schools, of which in 1831, there were 823. The excess of teachers above the number of schools, is owing to two facts—1. A double set of head teachers at least, is required for the middle schools, by their division of the sexes. 2. In many large schools, there are one or more assistants.

As the liberal or finished education of females is neglected, so we discover comparatively few females are employed as teachers. There are 981 who occupy the place of head teachers. Supposing that two thirds or three fourths, (either, an ample allowance,) of all the assistant teachers are females, there are then in all only 4329 (at most) employed. Of those who are head teachers, only eleven occupy that station.
alone, the rest being colleagues, mostly of husbands or brothers. Indeed it is not considered proper for females to occupy a station so conspicuous, and even in girls' schools, "the sight of a woman, chief and manager, and a man her subordinate," says M. Cousin, "is a bad sort of lesson." Whether there be more propriety than gallantry in this remark, it is not for me to say.

Another important inquiry on this topic, relates to the cost of the whole system, to the people.

It is, as already observed, the duty of every parish to support its own schools, and if the levies for this purpose are insufficient, aid is afforded by the government. Estimates, based on official returns for 1819-21, shew that,

1. In 1825, the whole sum expended for primary schools in Prussia was $1,687,000, (in round numbers,) of which the government paid $108,000.

2. In 1831, the grant from the general budget for this purpose was $170,000, shewing an increase by more than one half. Now, if the people increased their contributions in the same proportion, the whole amount expended for 1831 by the people, was about $2,400,000, giving a total of $2,570,000.

3. The population at the time, here referred to, was estimated at 7,770,000, excluding children under 14 years of age. Deducting from this 25,000, students in the gymnasias, and 10,000 students of the universities and teachers' seminaries, we have 7,735,000 inhabitants to bear this expense. This gives an average tax of 31 cents and a fraction, on each person over 14 years of age, not a student. Basing our calculations on the number of families, and allowing eight members to a family, which for Prussia is a fair average, we have 1,500,000 heads of households paying about $1.60 each for primary schools. It will be remembered, that this covers the town levy and tuition. This is the average. Those who have children of an age to be at school, and those who have not, bear parts of the levy proportioned to their property. Those who furnish children pay a tuition fee additional, which varying from 6½ to 25 cents monthly per scholar, is no great burden. I have not included the state appropriation, which does not come directly from the people. But were it included, it would vary but little the average to each householder. If, now, we base our calculations on the number of children educated, we obtain still more interesting results. The average price of tuition for each pupil is $1.28 cents, (omitting fractions.) This includes levies, fees and contingent expenses. But when we base our calculations on the number of pupils, we include those of both grades. Having no means of knowing the proportions of the whole amount paid for town schools, I am unable to present this more accurately. Yet knowing that tuition fees and levies must be both higher for them than for country schools, we may well make considerable deduction from the above average for the latter. Allowing even $150 per annum to each town schoolmaster, including assistants, which was the average in 1821, 3000 such will require $450,000. This makes no allowance for the contingent expenses of these schools. We have then left $2,120,000 for elementary schools, containing 1,917,934 children, giving the average for these $1.14 cents per scholar, which includes every expense for the whole year. This gives a fairer view of the subject. The town schools being supported on a different plan, that is, requiring double sets of teachers, at least of head teachers, located in more expensive places, and also affording more extensive opportunities of study, necessarily cost more. The expense to each scholar, of the 103,000 frequenting them, is something less than $4.50 cents per annum. This is the average, and includes all items.

(to be concluded)
THE TEACHERS' JOE MILLER

NOT THE "HARE" SYSTEM
Teacher: "Can anyone tell me what the two-thirds rule is?"
Freddie: "Yes, teacher, we have it in our house—my mother and grandmother against my father."

Some people get an education late in life, and others have no children to bring them home-work.

HAVING HIS OWN WAY
Mother: "Who started this row?"
Little Jack: "Tommy did. He wouldn't do as I told him to and I was only trying to make him mind."

WHY NOT AN AIRPLANE?
The school teacher asked a small boy if he could describe an island.
"Sure, I can," was the prompt response.
"It is a place you can't leave without a boat."

"So your son is in college? How is he making it?"
"He isn't making it. I'm making it and he's spending it."

WELL-READ
A nervous citizen approached Mr. Cody.
"Oh, Mr. Cody," she quavered, "do you really believe that some of the teachers are Red?"
"Why, certainly they are," answered the superintendent with a cheerful smile, "and very well-read at that."
—Detroit Educational News.

AUTO-MINDED
A little city boy was visiting his country cousin.
"What do you know about cows?" quizzed the country lad. "You don't even know if that's a Jersey cow."
"I don't know from here, 'cause I can't see its license."

Prof.: "What is the outstanding contribution that chemistry has given to the world?"
Freshman: "Blondes."

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"He isn't making it. I'm making it and he's spending it."

Pupil: "What is a pedestrian?"
Teacher: "A pedestrian, my son, is the raw material for a motor accident."

HEREIDITY MADE SIMPLE
Statement in a sociology test in a Michigan senior high school: "Weismann's Law is that those things which are changed on earth cannot be transferred to the next generation of people. It has been tried, the cutting off of hundreds of rats' tails but every time a rat is born he has a tail just the same. They cannot produce a tailless rat. The same has been tried with other animals and even with people but with the same result. They cannot produce a tailless rat in the next generation, by merely cutting off his tail. If a tailless rat is born, it would be for some other understandable reason."

PRACTICAL SCIENCE
Teacher: "If coal is ten dollars per ton and you pay the dealer seventy-five dollars, how many tons does he bring you?"
Pupil (very bright): "A little over six tons."
Teacher: "You know that is not right."
Pupil: "I know, but they all do it."
—Irish Independent.
DO YOU TWIST YOUR MOUTH?

Twisting one's mouth into odd shapes was noted by 123 different students who were asked to list the most annoying habits of their 112 different college professors. The only practice more frequently noted by students was the professorial habit of “rambling” in their lectures.

Joe E. Moore of the North Carolina State College reports in the Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology that any facial expression which varies from the usual seems to annoy students. They seem to observe all gestures closely. The teacher who fingers chalk, twirls a watch chain, or takes off and replaces his glasses, can be reasonably sure that his movements are noted.

“The pet expression of some college teachers become so obvious and annoying that some students amuse themselves by making small wagers on how often a certain professor will use his pet expression during an hour lecture. One industrious student kept a record of how often one professor used his pet expression during a two-week period, and found that it had occurred more than two hundred times.”

HARD LINES

ADVICE TO “CONVENTION SHOPPERS”

If you wish to have a part in making the program fail, here are some suggestions:

Be Discourteous. Come to the meetings tardily, and raise commotion by leaving early. In the short time you are present, scribble notes to your friends, whisper to your companions, and save time for a “catnap.” In general, be as rude as the youngster whom you recently disciplined for discourtesy.

Be Bored. Forget that the speaker is your guest and that he came to the meeting upon your invitation. Yawn, sleep, slouch, and do your best to convey the impression, “the sooner over, the better.” Try not to be embarrassed if your neighbors comment upon the quality of your hospitality.

Be Dull. Assume a hard, firm, blank expression as if to defy anyone to try to break down your inattention. Be resolved to listen to no part of the speech but the jokes, and do your best to give the impression you resent being present.

Be Limp. If you don’t respond to any one of the foregoing suggestions, this one will be sure to do the trick without giving any outward display. The speaker can pound, push, or prick, but you are beyond his reach, and you can go from the meeting with the firm assurance that it was a “flop,” at least, so far as you were concerned!

—Michigan Educational Journal.

TENTATIVE CURRICULUM IN DEMAND

Evidence of the nation-wide interest in the Tentative Curriculum now being tried out in some Virginia schools, is to be found in the out-of-state sale. More than 1700 copies had been sold to school-boards, libraries, committees, and individual teachers outside of Virginia up to Sept. 15, 1935. The Curriculum for Elementary Schools is sold at $2.00, the Curriculum for High Schools at $1.50.
The report of the Curriculum Commission appointed five years ago by the National Council of Teachers of English has just been published. As the title, *An Experience Curriculum in English*, suggests, chief emphasis is laid upon experience.

Experience is described, after John Dewey, as meeting a situation, doing something about it, and taking the consequences. "The ideal curriculum," the report states, "consists of well-selected experiences. The guiding idea for both curriculum builder and user is the conception of the curriculum as a body of guided experiences paralleling present and future out-of-school experiences."

With such a basic philosophy of learning for living, social situations determine the organization of the curriculum. Each of the big sections of pupil activity—literature, reading, speech, writing, and creative writing—is divided into "strands" of similar activities. For example, Speech at the secondary level is divided into Conversing, Telephoning, Interviews and Conferences, Discussion, Questions and Answers, Organizations, and Special Occasion Speeches. Literature at the elementary level is divided into Enjoying Action and Suspense, Enjoying Humor of Various Kinds, Enjoying the World of the Senses, Exploring the Social World, Enjoying Fantasy and Whimsy, and Sifting the Radio Programs.

Since "the exchange of ideas and information is the very life-blood of society," the commission reports that "the art of communication must occupy a prominent place in any modern curriculum." And because the occasions for speaking are more frequent, more varied in type, and in many ways more difficult to meet than occasions for writing, it is recommended that pupils be given more school experience in spoken than in written communication.

The teaching of literature is based on the conception of giving the pupil experiences that have intrinsic value for him now. But since not all pupils in the same grades are ready for the same experiences, the literature course must be highly flexible so that the teacher may choose material to suit the personalities and the social situation in each class. Pupils are frequently to be given the experience of choosing for themselves what they will read as regular class work and allowed freedom almost always in outside reading. "For the graduate never to have read a sentimental, improbable, or badly written book," the report announces, "is a misfortune. We should let the boys and girls make choices between good and poor books while we are still at hand to help them establish standards." A warning is sounded against trying to develop the reading habit through compulsion. "There is abundant evidence that pupils will read more, now and hereafter, under stimulation and guidance than under specific requirements."

An important feature in the Experience Curriculum is the relegation of corrective work in language and reading to a separate division where it will be experienced only by those who in tests or daily performance clearly show need of it.

Members of the Commission in the main approved the present strong tendency to experiment with integrated activity units, but they did not feel that the time was ripe to offer a course of study which should include all the other subjects taught. The units given in composition are so arranged that they will fit very well into such activity units as individual schools or teachers may initiate.

The innovation proposed in the report which is most likely to provoke widespread discussion among teachers is the omission of grammar as a required formal study. "Since no scientific experiment has ever showed any considerable value of grammar
in the establishment of habits of correct speech or writing," W. Wilbur Hatfield of Chicago Normal College, chairman of the Commission states, "grammar is introduced solely as an aid in the construction of more effective sentences. After ordering such organization, many members of the Steering Committee were at first shocked by the result, but upon more thorough study, they almost unanimously approved it."

An Experience Curriculum in English is the work of a commission of 100 successful teachers of English from all sections of the United States and as such represents the best current thought about the content, and to some extent the method, of instruction in literature, reading, and expression, both oral and written.

The appearance of the book is timely, for the courses of study in English as in other studies are now being reorganized in many schools and school systems, and a guide has long been needed. School administrators, members of curriculum committees, and teachers interested in bringing English teaching in line with present-day educational philosophy can now benefit from the coordinated efforts of leading thinkers in the profession.

Grady Garrett


This is, as the authors describe it, "an elementary handbook in the field of interpretative reading." Its main purpose is to give teachers and pupils the principles and technique of oral reading so that the problems may be discussed in understandable terms and so that students may learn to want to read well. The book has fewer than two hundred pages, and approximately three-quarters of the space is given over to illustrative material; yet the brief, simple comments on "backgrounds of appreciation," "coloring," "phrasing," "emphasis," and the use of the voice admirably present the essential information. The method of emphasis recommended by the authors, one of whom is chairman of the department of Speech at the University of Wisconsin, is in most respects the "mechanical" one, as opposed to the "natural" method of men like Wayland Maxfield Parrish and James Winans. The friendly, intelligent style of the authors and the excellence of their literary selections, however, will make the book attractive both to teachers and students in the secondary schools.

Argus Tresidder


Writing in dialogue style so as to appeal to high school pupils, the author presents a large number of significant rules of good study based on modern psychology, and particularly upon the psychology of economical learning. These rules are presented in different chapters dealing with such problems as incentives, preparing lessons, memorizing, getting ready for examinations, and so forth. While this should be a welcome addition to the rather scanty readable literature in this field, the traditional teacher will be much better pleased with the materials than the progressive teacher because of the stress on outlining, memorizing, assignment-recitation technique, numerical grading, and orthodox examination concepts.

W. J. G.


Particularly helpful in the discussion of suitable procedures in the selection of subjects, use of the library, sources of information, and note-taking, this pamphlet gives a number of illustrations of parts of papers prepared by students. This is a much needed job, well done; and it immediately suggests a similar volume dealing with the
preparation of less formal written reports where learning, rather than research, is the major goal.

W. J. G.


This new edition of an older, much better liked text is enlarged, revised and thoroughly brought to date. The emphasis on development and its correlation with adult structure and function is to be commended. The questions following each chapter are helpful. Simple experiments are suggested making the book an excellent text combined with a guide to laboratory study. The illustrations have been added to; they help to make the book one of the best of its type.

Ruth L. Phillips


"We all read essays, whether we know it or not," points out this collector in defence of the dread term that connotes formality and dust to high school students. And so, with the advice of a very lively group of high school seniors, he has brought together twenty-seven bright and sparkling modern essays "on every conceivable subject and in every conceivable humor," leaving "the beauties of Sesame and Lilies ... for a more mature appreciation."

Mrs. Banning’s profoundly important essay on "What a Young Girl Should Know" (recently published in Harper’s) is here; so is Dr. Fosdick’s "The Unknown Soldier," and Heywood Broun’s indictment of college athletics and Mrs. Gerould’s "The Nature of Hokum." These and Frederick L. Allen’s brilliant beginning of Only Yesterday indicate the high quality, the intelligent appeal, the stimulating charm of this volume.

C. T. L.

NEWS OF THE COLLEGE

Excavation was to begin the first week of November on the new dormitory to be erected north of Spotswood and east of Carter House. A PWA grant recently approved has made possible the building of this dormitory at an approximate cost of $110,000. The Harrisonburg Building and Supply Company was given the contract for the construction of this, the eighth building of its kind on campus.

Ella Hubble, Victoria, was chosen freshman bride in the traditional New Girl-Old Girl wedding held at the college Wednesday afternoon, October 16. Flora Heins, president of the Senior Class, took the part of bridegroom. Frances Wells, president of the student body, officiated. Bridesmaids were Virginia Ramsey, Bassett; Jean McClung, Waynesboro; Lucille White, Salem; Shirley Smith, Little Rock, Arkansas; Mildred Abbitt, Victoria; Virginia Mae Speed, Bluefield; and Lafayette Carr, Galax. Jane Logan, Harrisonburg, was maid-of-honor. Annie Cox, secretary-treasurer of the student body, was best man.

The two college publications, the Schoolma’am and Breeze, sent as representatives to the meeting of the Associated Collegiate Press, held at the Medinah Club in Chicago, October 17-19, Evelyn Pugh and Margaret Newcomb, editor and business manager of the Schoolma’am, and Virginia Cox and Lois Meeks, editor and business manager of the Breeze.

Of interest to teachers in this section of the state were two educational meetings held at the college the latter part of October. District G teachers met and discussed, among other things, plans to be placed before the state legislature in regard to a sound retirement law. Following this meeting, a regional conference was held to consider a supervisory program.

The second district convention of the Federated Music Clubs of Virginia was held at the State Teachers College on
Thursday, October 31, with Miss Mary Monroe Penick presiding. The local music department, under the direction of Miss Edna T. Saeffer, the Glee Club, and the Aeolian Club were hostesses to the meeting.

The ninth annual convention of the Virginia Intercollegiate Press Association was held at the college the week-end of November 1-2, with an attendance of approximately 200 delegates representing 56 publications of 25 colleges in Virginia and the District of Columbia. Outstanding speakers of the meeting were William L. Chernery, editor of Collier's, and O. W. Riegel, head of the Lee School of Journalism, Washington and Lee University. R. Gray Williams, of Winchester, was toastmaster at the banquet, at which the new officers of the association and the annual convention awards were announced. The convention visitors were guests at the college's opening dance Saturday night, when the "Vagabonds" of Lynchburg played for the evening.

Virginia Cox, editor of the Breeze and 1935 president of the VIPA, presided at the meetings of the convention.

William Thomas, William and Mary, was named president for the next year and his college was selected as the place for the 1936 convention. Lois Sloop, Harrisonburg, is a member of the new executive committee announced at the final banquet.

The 1935 Schoolma'am, edited by Ruth Shular, East Stone Gap, and managed by Mary Blankenship Humbert, Clifton Forge, has received two outstanding honors this year. At the recent convention of the Virginia Intercollegiate Press Association, it was judged the best yearbook entered in Class B, which included all those having less than 225 pages. At the same time it was presented a silver loving cup because it had won first award for three years. This year the Schoolma'am also won first-class honor rating in the class of teachers college annuals at the National Press convention in Chicago.

ALUMNAE NOTES
PERSONALS
Nora Hossley, '27, is back again in the Alexandria High School teaching mathematics, after a leave of absence last year necessitated by an appendix operation. She now has her usual pep and energy.

Ruth Frankhouser, '29, received her M. S. from New York University this past summer. She is teaching physical education in Alexandria.

MARRIAGE
Charlotte Hagan, '29, was married to Hobart Clough, of Philadelphia, on October 5 at the Mount Vernon Place Methodist Church, Washington, D. C. Mary Mullins, '30, was one of the bridesmaids.

Since her graduation Charlotte, whose home is in Clarendon, has been teaching in the schools of Arlington County.

POSITIONS HELD BY STUDENTS GRADUATING IN THE SEVERAL FOUR-YEAR CURRICULA, JUNE, 1935
Curriculum III—Elementary Teaching and Supervision
Mary Page Barnes—Primary teacher, Occoquan, Va.
Virginia Bean—Primary teacher, Winchester, Va.
Aubyn Chance—Primary teacher, Lee County.
Louise Cloud—English teacher, Waterford High School, Loudoun County.
Eleanor Cook—Primary teacher, Charleston, W. Va.
Hattie Courter—Third grade teacher, Blackstone, Va.
Mary Elizabeth Deaver—Married.
Elsie Graybill—Seventh grade teacher, Buena Vista, Va.
Grace Madden—Elementary teacher, Occoquan, Va.
Josephine L. Miller—Elementary teacher, Port Republic, Va.
Jean Moyer—Elementary teacher, Prince William County.
Maude Poore—Elementary teacher, Goochland County.
Emeleen Sapp—Elementary teacher, Prince William County.
Martha Saunders—Teacher of English and history, Temperanceville High School, Accomac County.
Clyde Schuler—Second grade teacher, Bowling Green, Va.
Madeline Shaw—Fourth grade teacher, Willard, N. C.
Elizabeth Showalter—Elementary teacher, Rockingham County.
Marian Smith—Third grade teacher, Covington, Va.
Mildred Stephenson—Second grade teacher, Columbia, N. C.
Reba Stewart—Fourth grade teacher, Big Stone Gap, Va.
Eleanor Studebaker—Third grade teacher, Arlington County.
Geneva Whitmer—Rural school, Rockingham County.
Curriculum IV.—High School Teaching and Supervision
Anna Virginia Andes—Emergency Educational Program, Rockingham County.
Rebecca Balaban—Teacher of health education, New York City.
Eleanor Balthis—High school teacher, Shenandoah County.
Ruth Bowman—Grammar grade teacher, Shenandoah County.
Mary Frances Brown—Stenographer, West Virginia Pulp and Paper Company, Covington, Va.
Katherine Burnette—Fifth grade teacher, Evington, Va.
Kathleen Carpenter—Elementary teacher, Norfolk, Va.
Julia Courter—Teacher of history, and coach of girls' basket ball, Herndon, Va.
Samuel Crim—Elementary teacher, Shenandoah County.
Edith Dudley—Elementary teacher, Augusta County.
Geraldine Fray—Rural school, Woodridge, Va.
Louise Golladay—High school teacher, Toms Brook, Va.
Inez Graybeal—Grammar grade teacher, Alleghany County.
Dorothy Helmintoller—Teacher of sixth and seventh grades, Hot Springs, Va.
Virginia Hitt—Elementary teacher, Arlington County.
Florence Holland—Teacher of English and history in high school, Quantico, Va.
Elizabeth Kincaid—High school teacher, Mineral, Va.
Virginia Lea—Grammar grade teacher, Montebello, Va.
Joyce Lea—Rural school teacher, Nelson County.
Douglas MacDonald—High school teacher, Nealsville, N. C.
Ruth McNeil—Teacher of English, Mitchell high school, Culpeper County.
Anna Maistrelli—Teacher of health education in high school, Bronx, N. Y.
Elsie Mallory—Sixth grade teacher, Hillsboro, N. C.
Henrietta Manson—Teacher of Latin, English, and history in high school, Heathsville, Va.
Mary Vernon Montgomery—Seventh grade teacher, Lawrenceville, Va.
Maurie Moroney—Married.
Jessie Phillips—Teacher of mathematics and social science, Pleasant Hill, Rockingham County.
Emily Pittman—Teacher of Physical education, Suffolk high school, Suffolk, Va.
Margaret Regan—Teacher of physical education, Woodmere, Long Island, N. Y.
Joyce Reiley—Teacher of English, Buchanan high school, Botetourt County.
Alva Rice—Fourth grade teacher, Woodrow Wilson School, Rosslyn, Va.
Martha Mae Sheffler—Teacher of history in junior high school, Beckley, W. Va.
Ruth Shular—High school teacher, Wise County.
Eugenia Trainum—Teacher of English and Latin in high school, Buckner, Va.
Anna Lee Tutwiler—Rural school, Rockingham County.
Mary VanLandingham—Sixth grade teacher, Broadway, Va.
Margaret Ward—High school teacher, Loudoun County.
Mary V. Wright—Principal of grammar school, Kinsale, Va.

Curriculum V.—Home Economics
Lillian Allen—Student dietitian, University of Virginia Commons.
Madeline Blair—Assistant home demonstration agent, Augusta County.
Mary E. Blankinship—Married.
Karle Bundy—County agent, Leesburg, Va.
Martha Alice Campbell—Home economics teacher, Powhatan, Va.
Matilda Chapman—Teacher of home economics, Norfolk, Va.
Mary Lee Dovel—Teacher of home economics, Mt. Clinton, Va.
Marion Dunham—Assistant to dietitian, Lexington Hotel, New York City.
Jessie Dunckum—Teacher of home economics, out-of-school youth classes, Charlotte County.
Ruth Early—Teacher of home economics, McGaheysville, Va.
Margaret H. Fitzgerald—Teacher of home economics and biology, Renan high school, Pittsylvania County.
Ayleen Graham—Substitute teacher, Richmond, Va.
Marie Gunn—Teacher of home economics in Falmouth and Stafford high schools, Stafford County.
Olga Heard—Student dietitian, Walter Reed Hospital, Washington, D. C.
Virginia Hisey—Teacher of home economics, New Market and Edinburg high schools, Shenandoah County.
Ruth Horton—Virginia Public Service Company, commercial demonstrator.
Ruth Hurst—Oriole Cafeteria, Baltimore, Md.
Frances Jolly—Teacher of home economics, Norfolk, Va.
Mary Bradley Jones—Teacher of home economics, Luray high school, Luray, Va.
Roberta Jones—Student dietitian, Medical College of Virginia, Richmond, Va.
Helen LeSeuer—Teacher of home economics, New Hope high school, Augusta County.
Grace Lineweaver—Teacher of home economics, Linville-Edom high school, Rockingham County.
Elizabeth McCraw—Teacher of home economics, Port Republic high school, Rockingham County.
Agnes Mason—Commercial demonstrator, Virginia Public Service Company.
Catherine Matthews—Teacher of home economics and science in high school, Norfolk County.
Billye Milhes—Student dietitian, Lexington Hotel, New York City.
Beryl Obenchain—Student dietitian, Medical College of Virginia, Richmond, Va.
Frances Pigg—Teacher of home economics and chemistry, Crozet, Va.
Geraldine Potts—Teacher of home economics in high school, and all subjects in seventh grade, Criglersville, Va.
Catherine Reynolds—Teacher of home economics in high school, Botetourt County.
Laura Rutherford—Home demonstration agent, Sussex County, Delaware.
Evangeline Sheets—Commercial demonstrator, Virginia Public Service Co.
Naomi Stoutamyer—Colonial Inn, Hilton Village, Va.
Martha Surber—Commercial demonstrator, Virginia Public Service Co.
Sue Wampler—Teacher of home economics, Tazewell, Va.
Annie Williams—Teacher of home economics, Norfolk City.
Eleanor Ziegler—Teacher of home economics, Lee-Jackson high school, Fairfax County.

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THE VIRGINIA TEACHER

FILM ESTIMATES

Progressive teachers will find dependable advice in these estimates on current film releases. Recognizing that one man's meat may be another man's poison, the National Committee on Current Theatrical Films gives three ratings: A, for discriminating adults; Y, for youth; and C, for children. These estimates are printed by special arrangement with The Educational Screen, Chicago.

BARBARY COAST (Miriam Hopkins, E. Robinson) (UA) Strong, vivid melodrama of gold rush 'Frisco with gambling, drinking, ruthless killings. Heroine, money-mad mistress of crude gambler (son) (UA) Strong, vivid melodrama of goldrush pector-hero, till Vigilantes free her from gambler 'Frisco with gambling, drinking, ruthless killings. Fine photography. 10-29-35

(A) Good of kind (Y) Unwholesome (C) No

Big Broadcast of 1936 (Jack Oakie and Radio Stars) (Para) A score of radio acts loosely hung together by wild yarn about a crazy invention and antics, and crazy plot leading from jail, to Scottish homestead, through burlesque war in India, to no conclusion at all. Healthily laughable as happy-go-lucky slapstick comedy. 10-15-35

(A) Fair (Y) Good (C) Very good


(A) and (Y) Fine of kind (C) Probably good

Condemned to Live (Ralph Morgan) (Ches-terfield) Grim, fantastic tale about fine man sup-posedly marked at birth when mother was killed by huge vampire bat. He develops dual person-ality, becoming a blood-sucking monster at night, with many victims. His suicide final solution. 9-24-35

(A) Hardly (Y) No (C) No

False Pretenses (Sidney Blackmer, Irene Ware) (Chesterfield) Humble heroine wants luxury. Ruined millionaire promotes stock-company to marry her to rich husband, stockholders to profit accordingly. Poor acting and feeble dialog make far-fetched story quite futile. 10-22-35

(A) Dull (Y) No (C) No

Fighting Youth (Charles Farrell) (Univ.) Utterly amateurish picture purporting to deal with radicalism in colleges. Plot, acting and com-edy attempts are dull and childish. Football play holds most of attention, with preprocessing feats by hero. Thoroughly absurd as "college life." 10-22-35

(A) Stupid (Y) No (C) No

Freckles (Tom Brown, Virginia Weidler) (RKO) Sentimental, homespun Gene Stratton Porter's story of the Timberlost, with lovely nature backgrounds for the wholesome little ro-

mance, distorted with autos, gangsters and gun-play. Impossible but amusing child steals picture. 10-29-35

(A) Elementary (Y) Fairly good (C) No

I Live My Life (Joan Crawford, Brian Aherne) (MGM) Deft, improbable but humanly amusing romance. Spoiled heiress, posing as Secretary from visiting yacht, meets equally self-willed hero doing archaeology on Greek Isle. Identity revealed in N. Y., furious clash but "back to Naxos" for heroine. 10-15-35

(A) Amusing (Y) Mostly excellent (C) Hardly

Last Days of Pompeii (Basil Rathbone, Preston Foster) (RKO) Spectacle film (Lyton's in title only) aiming to portray grandeur, greed and cruelty of Roman civilization in 1st Century A. D. Convincing moral marred by artificiality and gruesomeness. Religious motif well treated. Much historical value. 10-29-35

(A) Fine of kind (Y) Probably good (C) No

O'Shaughnessy's Boy (Wallace Beery, Jackie Cooper) (MGM) Poignant and humorous father-son theme against circus background. Desert-ed by wife and boy, crude lion-trainer loses nerve and is maimed. Finally recovers son and spirit. Strong human appeal beneath violence and excitement. 10-15-35

(A) Pe of kd. (Y) Vy gd. (C) If not too strong

Shipmates Forever (Dick Powell, Ruby Keel-er) (1st Nat.) High-grade, authentic Navy prop-aganda built on fine story of Annapolis life. Various types of men are molded into officers by routine, crisis, love and heroism. Sentimental in spots, but engagingly romantic, human and entertaining. 10-22-35

(A) Fine of kind (Y) Excel. (C) Strong but gd.

Special Agent (Geo. Brent, Bette Davis) (Warner) Super G-Man hero, with help of stool-pigeon heroine, gets the super gangster—more murderous than usual—for tax evasion! Skillful acting, convincing tough dialog, violent thrills make fine orgy of abnormal emotions. 10-15-35

(A) Good of kind (Y) Unwholesome (C) No


(A) Interesting (Y) Very good (C) Mature

Way Down East (Rochelle Hudson, Henry Fonda) (Fox) Famous old melodrama beautifully produced, lovely in rural charm, ably and sincerely acted. Story of betrayed, innocent heroine, exiled by village gossip and self-righteous old squire to suffering and near death, is deftly mod-ernized to please. 10-29-35

(A) Fine of kind (Y) Good (C) Mature

Wings Over Ethiopia (Praesens film, Zurich) (Par.) Striking air shots from plane over Mediterranean to Ethiopia. Close-ups of country, natives, customs, with some shocking barbaric practices. Fine narrative accompaniment. Seems true and vivid picture of scarcely civilized race. 10-22-35

(A) Gd. of kind (Y) Gd. of kind (C) Perhaps
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