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The Virginia Teacher

December, 1936

Frank Bane
Executive Director of the Social Security Board

Social Security Moves Ahead

America: The Last Citadel of Democracy
Mary Klingaman Stanley

What Everyone Should Know About Cancer
Noland M. Canter

Published at the
State Teachers College
of Harrisonburg, Va.

15 Cents
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D. C. HEATH AND COMPANY
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SOCIAL SECURITY MOVES AHEAD

The Social Security Act has one objective—to set up safeguards against some of the major hazards of our common life. Already it is offering a very real measure of protection to millions of our people.

All but seven of the 48 States are administering one or more public assistance programs providing for over 1,400,000 of the needy—the aged, the blind, and children who have lost the support of their natural breadwinner. A large proportion of the industrial population of America is now covered by State unemployment compensation laws. In every State in the Union public health services have been expanded and strengthened. Substantially the same is true of maternal and child welfare services and of vocational re-education for the handicapped. And on January 1, when the system of Federal old-age benefits becomes effective, approximately 26,000,000 workers will qualify for old-age protection which entitles them to a life income after their productive days are over—an income earned through their own thrift and industry.

The Act is working—working rapidly and well. It is a going concern. It has moved ahead because it is doing a job that was desperately needed, and because in doing that job, it is using the familiar tools and existing machinery of our local, State, and Federal Governments.

The Act was not merely desirable. It was imperative. The pressures and uncertainties of our complex life had increased beyond endurance. In recent years millions of Americans have learned, bitterly and at first hand how it feels to face the hazards of destitution in childhood, of unemployment during working years, of dependent poverty in old age. In 1934, eighteen million men, women, and children were forced to turn to emergency relief as their only means of support. Ten million workers had no jobs except those provided by relief projects. In those same years business and industry learned what happens to their earnings when the working man loses his pay envelope, and the consumer his buying power. In those years, too, most of our cities and counties and States learned what happens when a community strains its resources to the limit—and still cannot assure the bare necessities of life to its citizens. Whatever our faith in rugged individualism, whatever our feelings of local responsibility, the plain fact is that for three years before the passage of the Social Security Act the Federal Government was compelled to carry the largest share of the public welfare load in all parts of the country.

The depression taught us that security is a problem for the nation, as well as for the individual and for the community. Until its onslaught we had been pretty much a nation of ostriches, each of us hiding his head in his own little sand dune. Within a short time we were rudely snatched from this shortsighted confidence and forced to admit that even our great resources, unless properly organized, are not in themselves bulwarks against insecurity.

Yet we still did not believe this was a lesson which must be learned “for keeps.” We recognized that we were facing an emergency and that it demanded the participation of the Federal Government. But the need for an organized, nationwide program was generally thought to be temporary. Finally, after three years of “emergency” and emergency measures, we began to realize that what the depression did was to aggravate chronic ills as well as to create new ones. The problems of unemployment,
of old-age dependency, of protection for children and the handicapped, and of public health—all these were with us long before 1929, and in some form they seem likely to remain as far as we can see into the future. Nor are they our problems alone. The United States is the last of the great industrial countries to face the issue of social security on a national basis. We are a quarter century behind the times in realizing that it can be achieved only by a long-time and far-reaching program.

In the Social Security Act we have such a program—a program of State and Federal action which at last provides us with a method of utilizing the full resources of cooperation inherent in our democratic system of government. It was undertaken in response to a whole-hearted and nationwide demand. It was developed through more than a year of intensive study such as has probably been given to no other proposal placed before Congress within our memory. It was passed by an overwhelming majority of both parties in Congress and with the almost unanimous support of citizens from every walk of life and of every political opinion.

The same non-partisan spirit with which the Social Security Act was undertaken, developed, and enacted into law has characterized its administration. Half of its activities are directed by long-established Federal agencies operating under Civil Service. Under the terms of the Act, the Social Security Board, which administers public assistance, unemployment compensation, and old-age benefits, is bi-partisan and its three members are elected for overlapping terms. The Act also requires that all employees of the Board, with the exception of lawyers and experts, be taken from Civil Service rolls. The Board itself has gone a step farther and has delegated to the Civil Service Commission the responsibility for passing upon appointments even to the positions excepted by law. Its entire staff is thus selected in accordance with Civil Service standards, solely on the basis of training, experience, and competence.

These people who are responsible for administering the Social Security Act, as well as those who framed and enacted it, recognize that no welfare program can remain static, that there is never any "last word" in social legislation. The Act itself is the product of long, slow growth, and provision for its future development is an integral part of its own legal structure. One of its provisions imposes upon the Board the explicit duty of study and research, and of recommending such changes as seem most likely to be effective in carrying out its fundamental purposes. The Act is not perfect; it is no cure-all. But although it will not usher in the millennium, it is a long step forward in social progress—the longest step ever taken in this country or in any other country at one time.

Just what does the Social Security Act contain and what does it propose to do? It embodies ten specific provisions, designed to relieve and to forestall equally specific sources of insecurity. These are all problems that have continually harassed millions of men and women and children with actual want and with an almost equal burden of fear. They are all problems with which we have been trying to deal piecemeal for years. The Act gives us an opportunity to consolidate our defenses against disaster, and against the fear of disaster.

These defenses are of two kinds—both built on our past experience. First there are the welfare measures, designed primarily to give immediate aid to those now in need. These include the three public assistance provisions under which the Federal Government gives financial assistance to States so that they may, in turn, grant cash allowances to the needy aged and blind and to dependent children. They also include provisions offering Federal aid to States in order that they may strengthen and expand their State programs for ma-
ternal and child welfare, public health, and rehabilitation of the handicapped. Every one of these services is an old story. All that the Social Security Act does is to add a new chapter by offering the States Federal assistance in meeting obligations to which most of them have long been committed.

This responsibility of government to provide for the needy has been recognized since the first English poor laws were enacted more than 300 years ago. Our earliest colonists accepted it as part of their legal heritage, and one of their first legislative acts, in setting up organized government in the new world, was to make provision for the needy from public funds.

Traditionally, this responsibility has been left in the hands of local units—the counties and townships which are the bedrock of our American system. But as the problem of public welfare grew in size and complexity, the time came when these local units could no longer bear the whole burden alone. For the last forty years we have been moving steadily toward equalizing this burden and spreading its costs. In the first decades of this century the States came into the picture and State laws for mothers’ aid, for blind pensions, and for old-age pensions, as well as for various other services, had, by the 1920’s, become an accepted part of our American public welfare system. It took the depression to open our eyes to the fact that the nation, as well as its States and communities, has a responsibility for the security and well-being of our people. With the passage of the Social Security Act in August, 1935, the Federal Government entered into partnership with its States and their communities—a partnership which makes it possible to extend help to more of their needy citizens, and in more adequate amounts, than the States could possibly provide alone.

But this is not enough. Two provisions of the Act—and these in many ways its most important contributions to our future security—are built on the policy of prevention. These are the measures for unemployment compensation and for old-age benefits. Both are designed to protect workers on the basis of their own working records. And both are designed to prevent causes of insecurity that are always with us, in good years as in bad. In the prosperous 1920’s, the number of the unemployed never fell below a million and a half. Conservative estimates place the number of needy aged today at somewhere between one and two million.

Under the provisions for unemployment compensation the States, with the cooperation of the Federal Government, can establish a method by which an unemployed worker may, for a limited time, draw payments in proportion to his wages. Simply knowing that unemployment payments will be available as a cushion against future loss of a job means a net gain in security. Such payments give a working man a breathing space in which to look for another job. They give assurance that his savings need not be swallowed up in the first weeks after he is out of work and that his family will not suffer immediate want. Moreover, these payments mean that the temporarily unemployed worker retains at least some of his purchasing power. We know from experience that every man without a pay envelope means less work and eventually unemployment for other men who produce the goods he can no longer buy. Unemployment compensation will help to break the vicious tailspin of future depressions.

All of these activities—in fact all of the services provided by the Act save old-age benefits, are administered by the States. The Act develops a national pattern. The States and their citizens do the rest. They decide whether they want to take part in the various programs, and if they do, they make their own plans. Recognizing that in a country as large as ours no two States have the same problems or the same resources, the Act sets up broad general out-
lines which assure certain minimum essentials, and at the same time afford ample leeway for variation from State to State. Federal assistance is made available on the familiar principle of grants-in-aid. These grants are based on each State's own estimate of its needs. The Federal Government has for years been making similar grants for such purposes as fighting forest fires and building highways. Human welfare is no less worthy of its assistance.

The State is the keystone of the whole plan, cooperating with its local subdivisions on the one hand and with the Federal Government on the other. The Social Security Board, Congress, and the American people intend that the Social Security Act shall mark a departure from the scattered and in most cases, pitifully inadequate systems of the past. They intend that the Act shall make it possible not only to provide for the needy on a decent basis, but also to forestall some of the major causes of need. If these objectives are to be attained—actually attained in everyday life—the States must do the job. The Social Security Act simply sets up a framework of coordinated action, within which the three branches of our democratic government can make a concerted drive upon problems in which all have an equal interest and an equal responsibility.

The framework of coordinated action offers a second great advantage. It integrates the immediate welfare programs and the long-term preventive programs, so that they complement and strengthen each other. The welfare measures make it possible for the States to give aid now to those in want; they make it possible for them to do something today about better child protection and health protection. But this is not all they do. Every home preserved; every child given a decent start in life; every handicapped man or woman set on his own feet; every safeguard to community health gives more people a chance to lead independent, self-sustaining lives. The welfare provisions of the Act are a very real kind of insurance against future want and dependency.

But beyond these are specific safeguards which provide protection as a right—protection for the individual based squarely on his own work and thrift. By helping more people to maintain themselves, these provisions also protect business and government against ever-mounting demands for assistance. The first of these safeguards is unemployment compensation. The second is contained in the provision for old-age benefits.

Under this title of the Act benefits will be paid to retired workers, not on a basis of need, but as a matter of right. This is the one part of the Act to be Federally administered. Thorough study of the problem has made it evident that State systems would be unsound according to actuarial standards; and with a population that travels about as much as ours, the business of covering all our industrial workers all their working lives would be obviously impracticable under 48 different State plans.

Approximately 26,000,000 persons are expected to qualify for these benefits when the plan goes into effect in January, 1937. Beginning immediately, lump sum payments will be made to all those covered who, on reaching 65, retire from work, and to the estates of those who die before reaching 65. To those who reach 65 in 1942 or thereafter, monthly benefit payments will be paid on retirement at 65 or over, provided their wage and work records meet certain requirements. No one is forced to retire at 65; no one is compelled to work until that age. But at 65 or at any time thereafter, every qualified worker will receive a life annuity. Lump sum payments will be made to those whose years of employment or whose total wages are not sufficient to qualify for monthly payments; a similar arrangement provides for payments to the estates of those who die before receiving their full annuities. Every man and every
woman who at any time in his life has been employed in any of the industries is covered—and this includes the great bulk of the country's working people—will in his old age benefit under this provision.

The most significant aspect of these benefits is the fact that the vast majority of those covered will, on retirement, receive a monthly income as long as they live. With the development of this plan, more and more of our people will be able, after their working years are over, to provide for their own support in a typical American fashion.

With equally characteristic American common sense, the Act combines aid to the needy aged with a safeguard against this need. Through public assistance the States, with Federal aid, may provide, on a basis of need, for the aged who are now dependent and for those who may become dependent. But with upwards of 26,000,000 workers qualifying for old-age benefits, this number will in years to come be greatly reduced. In other words, as the number of aged entitled to an income on the basis of their own work and effort increases, this country will no longer be faced—as it is today—with the shameful fact that approximately one-fourth of its old people are dependent on others for the bare necessities of life.

Old-age benefits, as set up under the Act, have been frequently criticized because of details relating to financing or administration. Leaving these aside—banishing for the moment the actuaries and the accountants, the lawyers and the technicians—let us ask ourselves what we want as a social security program, especially for our aged citizens.

Do we want only a system that locks the door after the horse is stolen—that provides no means of self-protection against old-age dependency? If we do, then let us scrap old-age benefits. Let us go on permitting a man to work a lifetime with no help in saving for his old age. Let us turn the clock back—back to the piping days of 1603—and limit ourselves to old-age assistance only on the pauper's oath and the humiliating proof of utter destitution. If, however, the United States has done with this negative approach, then let us build a system of self-protection for our own old age—build it on thrift, cement it for all time with the principle and practice of individual cooperation, and dedicate it everlastingly to the old ideal of individual self-sufficiency and individual independence.

The system of old-age benefits, as set up under the Act, makes it possible for us to do just this. It provides life annuities for workers without reference to a means test, but as a matter of right and of past earnings. It establishes this system of annuities on long familiar principles.

The old-age benefit plan has been attacked as a fraud perpetrated on the working man. Is it a fraud to give him the support of the United States Government in providing economically for his own old age? Is it a fraud to give him a chance at more adequate self-protection than he could achieve unaided?

It has also been contended that so-called "forced saving" threatens American individualism, that it will vitiate our thrift. If this system of old-age benefits threatens our individual independence, if it vitiates our thrift merely because it is compulsory, then many thousands of us must already have lost these time-honored virtues. What of the teachers, the civil servants, the policemen and firemen and other public employees in our most progressive cities, the railroad employees, and even the workers in certain of our greatest private industrial organizations who are now, and have been for many years, contributors to and beneficiaries of equally compulsory old-age saving systems? Has participating in such a system weakened their sense of thrift, hurt their individual independence, or lowered their self-respect?

If we are going to throw out old-age
benefits because they provide for mutual protection through public cooperation, we might as well scrap a good many other benefits of modern civilization along with it. We might as well go back a hundred years to the perhaps not so good old pioneer days when we had no community provision for water or sanitation, for light or transit. There are no threats to our independence in utilizing these modern facilities. And no sensible man or woman will be able to perceive equally far-fetched dangers in a system of old-age savings operated on the same principle of cooperation through established channels.

Throughout our history, our people have repeatedly joined forces for their mutual welfare. Throughout our history, the Federal Government has repeatedly been called upon to participate in projects for which it, as well as the other units of our government, has a legitimate responsibility. Whether we have called it by that name or not, social security has been accepted as a proper function of government ever since—and even before—the founding fathers included the pursuit of happiness along with life and liberty as one of the major goals of a democratic nation.

What have we striven for most earnestly in this country through all the years of its existence? First and foremost, to iron out the difficulties and bridge the gaps in our governmental system, in order that democracy may function in the uneven places and to the benefit of all. As a practical people, we have expressed this ideal in definite and specific purposes. We have been interested in giving everyone a chance to work. We have been interested in providing reasonable compensation for the man temporarily dispossessed of a job. We have been interested in giving workers an opportunity to lay by the wherewithal for self-support in their old age. We have been interested in assuring a living for those who are aged and in want. We have been interested in safeguarding for every child his birthright of health and happiness. We have been interested in training for the handicapped, and in protecting the health of all our people. These are things we have struggled toward for years. These are things which every American believes are worthy of our utmost efforts. And these are things which the Social Security Act now seeks to promote.

"United we stand, divided we fall" applies not only to our government but to our people. It is as true today as it was a hundred years ago. And it is, in essence, the philosophy on which the Social Security Act is founded—the American philosophy of joint action for the common good.

Frank Bane

"AMERICA: THE LAST CITADEL OF DEMOCRACY"

The great countries of the past have made distinct contributions to civilization. For instance, the Hebrew kingdom contributed religion; the Greeks, art; the Romans, law. Some one has said that America's distinctive contribution may be democracy if she can work it out successfully. But at the present time when democracy is in retreat in practically the whole world, when Communism and Fascism are contending with each other for large portions of the earth's surface, many people despair that the ideal of democracy as a distinct contribution of America to civilization will ever be realized.

What do we mean by democracy, and in what ways does it differ from the other forms of government prevailing at the present time? When I ask my pupils what is meant by democracy, I receive answers almost as varied as the number in my class. Were I to put the question to you, each might give a different answer. One might answer, as do some of my pupils, freedom; another, the right to vote and hold office; another, equality; and still another might give Lincoln's definition, "a government of
the people, by the people, and for the people." To the majority of the people in the United States today the ideal of democracy is still a political one, because it was that in the past—the ideal of equality in governmental affairs, in voting and holding office. Today political democracy has been realized, and the ideal is a social and economic one.

When the "Founding Fathers" set up a new nation, some of them visualized a society composed of the desirable political features they valued, and free of the faults which they despised. This kind of society they spoke of as a democracy. They imagined a society with autocrats left out, one with equality of opportunity for all, one with no fixed classes, but with the people managing their own affairs. They did not have such a society. They imagined it. Nevertheless, they had something that we call an ideal. All of us have had enough experience with ideals to know that they are never quite completed, that they are made and remade continually. They grow, or they are hardly ideals.

By a democracy we mean not only a form of government but a way of living. A democratic society is one that constantly watches for and continually creates opportunities for individual growth, a society in which everything that is done is done with the purpose of keeping everybody growing, socially, intellectually, and esthetically. These opportunities can be created only through a continuous reorganization of institutions. (All of us can call to mind examples of this continuous reorganization; for instance, the abolition of slavery, and the extension of citizenship and the franchise to the Negro; the extension of the franchise. When the Constitution was adopted, possibly one-fifth of the people were allowed to vote. The ballot was restricted by property and religious qualifications. Gradually those were swept away, the franchise being eventually given even to the women. Compulsory education is another good example, as is the change in electing office holders; according to the original constitution, the only federal office holder the people could select was the representative. Today the people select senators as well, and the president indirectly. They go even farther than that and elect the candidates for some offices. Many other examples could be cited.)

Most students of society and government have held the conviction that the whole world would gradually adopt democracy, but lately, two great nations and several smaller ones have turned their backs on the democratic idea to experiment with rule by minorities. These two nations are Russia and Italy and their forms of society and government are Communism and Fascism, alike in some respects and dissimilar in others. These forms are significant, for they represent solutions advocated by powerful groups for the problems of our times. Communism is based on the idea of Karl Marx, a German Jewish philosopher, and owes its existence chiefly to Nicholas Lenin. While Communists are to be found all over the world, the leadership continues to rest with the Russians. Communism constitutes a real threat to the stability of society in many lands.

According to Geoffrey Parsons, the Russian revolution in 1917 came swiftly and inevitably. The czar abdicated peaceably and a moderate government took charge. Within a year this was overthrown and the soviet government was established under the leadership of Lenin, probably the ablest leader of his time. The Bolshevik party of Russia seized and held the state, establishing a dictatorship of the proletariat, the control resting in a small group, representing a small party, possibly two percent of the population, which has ruled the great mass of the population—the old aristocracy and the old bourgeoisie—as ruthlessly as ever the czar ruled them.

The object of the revolution was the seizure of all private property, including
land, and the organization of a socialistic state. Industries were to be run by the workers of each factory. Representation in the government was to be based upon labor organizations called soviets. This ideal was never achieved. Communistic ownership of land was installed after a prolonged struggle. The Soviet system was installed in industry and a long period of inefficiency followed. This is to be expected in any social experiment. One of the essential features, equal wages, was abandoned in many cases because skilled workmen failed to give their best services. In commerce, the government found it necessary to restore the principles of private property and capitalism to the small trader. In practice the government has modified the principles of Communism, but whether the economic comprise that has resulted will endure remains to be seen. The Soviet rulers have thus far exercised great wisdom in retreating in time before disaster. Some observers feel that the Russian rulers will be forced to return to all the essentials of capitalism if they wish to preserve their rule. Recent events tend to support this prediction. To the historian of the future will be assigned the final task of evaluating this experiment in government.

Politically, the dictatorship of the Bolshevik minority has undergone little development. It remains a revolutionary despotism, executing political groups opposed to it, believing in class struggle and opposing democracy. No share in government has been granted to the great mass of Russians, although the eventual goal is a government participated in by all the people. This goal will be attained when all classes shall have disappeared and when all the citizens shall have become devoted to the Communistic society. Russia will then cease to be a dictatorship. It is only fair to state that under the dictatorship of Stalin the government in theory at least has existed for the glorification of the State nor the aggrandizement of the ruling clique.

The example of Italy shows striking resemblances to the Russian system and sharp contrasts. The aim of Italy was the exact antithesis of Russia. It was to preserve capitalism, nationalism, and the existing order against the threat of Communism. The inspiration came from one popular leader, Mussolini, instead of from a group as in Russia. While he built his rule on the existing parliamentary and monarchical forms, he followed more closely the Napoleonic tradition of one-man dictatorship. He repressed free speech and individual liberty and forced political opponents into exile. Industrially, a new efficiency has been achieved and the benefits to Italy have been great. A treaty was signed by which the papal territory was recognized as an independent state. Thus was settled the Roman question that had harried the Italian rulers for two generations. Albania has been brought under the domination of Italy and in the face of world disapproval, but, with no lowering of Italy's prestige, Ethiopia was annexed to the Roman State.

How does Fascism compare with Communism and wherein do they differ? The former is revising an old system; the latter is building a new. The former welcomes private initiative in production, reserving the right to intervene if private management is inefficient. The latter abolishes private property and gives the State complete control of production, distribution, and consumption. The Fascists recognize different classes but compel them to cooperate for the common good. The Communists would have a single class, the workers, who would be raised to higher cultural and living standards. The Fascists are strongly nationalistic—only recently has Italy had a tendency towards internationalism—while the Communists are international. The Fascists support religion, while the Communists are anti-religious; Fascism is
authoritarian while Communism is totalitarian; Fascism has no philosophy while Communism has a definite one.

Both Kommunists and Fascists regard labor as a social duty. Both impose a rigid discipline on the people, curtail personal liberty, maintain that the state as a living organism is superior and has prior rights to the individuals composing it. Both systems crush opposition ruthlessly and reject parliamentary government and the theory of popular sovereignty. Both deny the supremacy of law, both conceive of government as government by men rather than by law. The broad underlying principle common to both Fascism and Communism is that the individual has no rights which the State must respect.

To enumerate what Fascism and Communism deny is to enumerate what democracy guarantees. The United States, Great Britain, and some of the smaller countries are the last firm stand of democracy. "The United States has been called the last citadel of democracy because it seems to be the only country in which democracy, a free society, and the specific rights which go with it, are guaranteed to the individual in a written constitution. America is the last stronghold against a movement which everywhere submerges the individual, everywhere gives to government unlimited power to compel the individual, everywhere reduces the individual to complete submission to the will of the man who gets control of the government."

In Germany, the Fascist movement took the name of national socialism, shortened usually to Nazism. In Great Britain, France, Rumania, Hungary, Belgium, the United States, and in fact all over the world, Fascist parties are appearing, as have Kommunist.

At present Kommunism and Fascism are contending for the control of Spain. Spain came late into the modern world. It missed the experience in democratic government that formed France, England, the Nether-
ment. It preserves state sovereignty and at the same time creates a strong national government. It creates a government founded on a system of checks and balances. The three departments are checks on each other, so that no one can ever take supreme power unless the Constitution is deliberately set aside. The President may check Congress by the veto, Congress may check the executive by overruling his veto, the Supreme Court may check both by declaring a law unconstitutional. And the people have the final check by being able to change the Constitution. Thus the people are supreme.

Certain powers have been delegated to the national government, certain ones reserved to the states, certain ones to be exercised concurrently. All powers not specifically delegated to the national government are reserved to the people. The rights of local self-government were jealously guarded as the priceless heritage of 180 years of colonial experience.

In like manner, the personal rights of the individual were guarded as the priceless heritage of Englishmen. These rights were so obvious that the makers of the Constitution did not think it necessary to embody them in the document, but the colonists had seen an oppressive home government violate them. They had fought a long and bloody war to preserve them, so they were determined to have them embodied in the Constitution. Therefore Virginia and some of the other colonies made their adoption the condition of their ratification. Accordingly, they were proposed, ratified and in 1791 became an integral part of the Constitution. These rights include freedom of speech, the press, assembly, and petition, the right to bear arms, no quartering of troops in private homes without the consent of the owner, protection against search, protection in the right to life, liberty, and property, and in criminal trials, right to trial by jury, no excessive fines and punishments.

In 146 years only eleven amendments have been adopted, although hundreds have been proposed. Most of these have had to do with the details of government. None has altered the basic framework of government or the fundamental principles of constitutional liberty.

How may America preserve these personal liberties?

Democracy is not necessarily the best form of government, although we Americans feel it is the best for us. The best form of government is that which best meets the needs of the people. Lord Bryce, an illustrious and sympathetic writer on democracy, very correctly remarked that to devolve upon a people who are not fitted for the undertaking the task of governing themselves is "like delivering up an ocean liner to be navigated by cabin boys through the fogs or icebergs of the Atlantic, or setting a child to drive a motor car." Woodrow Wilson seemed to believe that if a theoretically good form of government could be found it could be clapped down on any people and made to work. Jefferson insisted that no government was good unless it was adapted to a specific people at a particular stage of their mental and moral growth. The World War, which was to have made the world safe for democracy, seems to have sowed the seeds the fruit of which the world is reaping now. Democracies were imposed on people not temperamentally fitted for them.

America was peculiarly adapted for democracy, because of the sheer distance of the new world from the old, its topography, its large amount of free and unoccupied land, and its successive frontiers. None of the leading English colonists expected or wished for any democratizing of either social or political life. Most of them, like the Rev. John Cotton and John Winthrop, feared and detested democracy. The latter cursed it as the meanest and worst of all forms of government. The Puritan fathers had no intention of allowing democracy in their
government or liberty in worship. The American dream of equality of opportunity owes more to the wilderness than to them. In these small communities weeks or months from England, local government could function and anarchy be averted only by the consent of the governed as the signers of the Mayflower Compact “had perceived, not as a theory but as a practical exigency.” In these small coast villages or groups of plantations the gentlemen and moneyed men might still have various social privileges, but where there were few luxuries to be bought with money, where service was hard to hire, where almost everyone owned his home and a plot of land, where as yet there was little difference between the homes of the rich and those of the poor, where work was a great leveler, it was inevitable that the ordinary man should assert himself and become a power. The questions to be decided were such as concerned every householder; he felt as competent to discuss them as any gentleman. When an Englishman had gone through the trials and labors of clearing his land and establishing his home, it was not in his nature to sit by idly and allow himself to be governed by a few neighbors who in the wilderness had lost a great deal of the authority of financial and social position which had set them apart in England. When the ordinary man in the colonies demanded to be heard in the affairs of government, he was reacting to circumstance, not developing any consciously held theory of politics.

Frontier life and the distance between America and Europe fostered the spirit of democracy. After the French and Indian Wars, the chief tie—the need of the protection of England against the French and Indians—between the colonies and England was severed. It is true that America was the child of England, but it was the child of 17th century England, not of the 18th. The colonists had taken to the new world the ideas and political methods of 17th century England, but the hardships which these people endured developed new interests and viewpoints. When the control of England grew too irksome, they threw off that control and founded a new nation dedicated to the ideals of equal opportunity, of inalienable rights, and of government by the consent of the governed, a nation that knew no caste, no nobility, or other hereditary distinction, a nation that had passed through the leveling influence of the early frontier and of the Revolution.

Free land was an equalizer, for it admitted all comers to the chief instrument of wealth-production. On the frontier no man would work long for a farmer or pay rent when for a small sum he could secure land of his own. The town artisan had to be paid wages large enough to keep him from turning farmer. The abundance of opportunity on the frontier coupled with equal access to these many opportunities engendered a sense of social equality which gradually became a part of Americanism and in the older states hindered the social stratifications from too glaringly showing themselves.

The frontier has been also a maker of political democracy. In our early history there was a tendency toward class government and the growth of vested interests in the seaboard states where society was slipping into grooves. The younger states of the West showed a tendency to do away with class rule. The states of the Ohio Valley introduced into our political practice the abolition of property qualifications for voting, and of religious and property qualifications for office holding, the practice of having more elective officials than appointive ones, rotation in office, shorter terms in office, and the submitting of state Constitutions for popular ratification. The West stood for states rights as against federal authority, for state banks against the bank of the United States. From the West at different periods in our history has swept eastward Jeffersonian and Jacksonian
democracy, Lincoln Republicanism, Grangerism, Populism, Bryanism and Progressivism, together with the initiative, referendum and recall, the direct primary and the popular election of United States senators.

While the physical West has passed, there remains a spiritual West, the influence of which none of us should minimize. Edward Ross says, "From time to time there appear emancipating spirits who spurn man-made distinctions of place, rank and money and whose hearts go out toward every man as toward a brother. Such are the poets and the prophets, such are the humanizing Isaiahs, Garrisons, Mazzinis, Victor Hugos, and Tolstois, who recall us to our natural fellowship, who impress us with our likeness even when conditions are exaggerating differences, who level men at the very moment new social terraces are arising."

A synthetic frontier is being developed during the present administration. The TVA, the rural rehabilitation projects, better homing projects, relocation of people from congested cities to industrial and agricultural areas, etc., are attempts to further economic democracy.

Since democracy is on trial, and since the essentials of democracy are not always understood, it would be well for us to devote some time to the factors essential to the democratic system of government. We should remember that political democracy implies the right of the masses to vote, equality of voting power, the rule of the majority, the right of the people to choose their public officials and popular responsibility and control, but that it does not require universal suffrage, nor the unlimited right of the majority, nor the popular election of all officials, nor rotation in office, nor does it mean absolute equality of all men. But above all we must remember that democracy is more than a system of government; it is a system of society, a way of life, and that this system must be continuously modified and changed to meet the exigencies of the times.

The people must be qualified for self-government. This does not mean that they must have a college education or be learned in literature and science, but it does mean that they must be informed upon public questions so that they can vote intelligently and wisely concerning election issues. The political failures of democracy center about the failure of the individual voter to exercise his franchise intelligently and effectively. There has been a great increase in honesty of voting, but the increase in intelligent voting has been discouragingly slow.

The burdens of democracy must not be made too excessive. Simplification of ballots, more appointive and fewer elective officials and cleaner campaigning are greatly to be desired. The short ballot adopted by Virginia has simplified voting here, but in many states the ballot is too long to render intelligent voting possible.

The people must be interested in public affairs and encouraged to make whatever sacrifice of time or service may be necessary to discharge the public duties of citizenship. The intelligentsia are very often to be found on the golf links on election day while those less fitted are exercising the franchise. If all our citizens felt as much interest in good government as many do in football, baseball, or bridge, we should probably have fewer complaints of bad government and the rule of bosses.

Not only must the people be well informed on matters of government and interested in public affairs, but they must possess the moral and civic virtues of incorruptibility, a high sense of individual responsibility and a willingness to abide by the will of the majority. There must be a gradual training of people to higher ideals.

The forces inimical to good government must be removed. Among these may be listed dishonesty and corruption; the operation of the spoils system which treats
office-holding as a racket; the use of the public treasury for the advancement of party interests; alliances between Big Business, politics and organized racketeering; abuses in the dispensation of justice in our courts; the tendency to infringe upon the fundamental liberties of the citizens as evidenced by the teacher's oaths and the attempts to outlaw various political parties, the propaganda used by the political parties in the hope of confusing the voters; lawlessness and intolerance.

Some historians argue that Communism and Fascism hold no threat to the democracy of America since both originated from special causes within the countries in which they developed. Russia was the most backward nation of Europe politically at the time of the World War and the terrible repressions of absolutism made some great explosion almost inevitable. Communism was a natural reaction to the overthrow of tyranny. Italy led the world intellectually in the Renaissance, but it lagged behind in political life. It had but a few generations of experience with free institutions prior to the World War and the parliamentary system had never worked effectively. On the other hand, frontier life in America bred a spirit of individualism to which nothing is more galling than taking orders. It is true that railroad, mill and department store teach hierarchy and obedience. The severe discipline of these must be modified, for the American has drunk too deeply of individual liberty to long endure the irksome collar of obedience unless he can be made to feel as does the school teacher and the college professor that he bows not to the will of his immediate superior but to the requirements inherent in all organizations.

The most important economic threat to democracy—unemployment—must be removed. Whether America can work out a program of economic betterment without the sacrifice of our fundamental liberties remains to be seen.

Popular intelligence must be raised to a higher level. In education lies the hope of democracy. The masses must be taught the true meaning of freedom so that they will be enabled to differentiate between liberty and license, which many seem unable to do today. They must be taught to understand the true meaning of democracy, and not only to guard the liberties which were gained through blood and sacrifice by our forefathers, but they must be made to realize that democracy is a growing and living thing, and that in order to discover the "straight road to Utopia" which the originators of democracy hoped it would take, they must work to eliminate the glaring inequalities of the present day. They must be made to genuinely desire, plan for, sacrifice, and labor for, the new rights which the new age necessitates; for the old complexities of man's nature have been multiplied by the complexity of man's machine. Even when some or all of these rights—namely, the right to be well born, the right to physical, mental, and economic security, equality of opportunity, the right to the widest sphere of freedom compatible with the equal freedom of others, the right to fair play, the right to the development of an active flexible personality, and the right to a suitable occupation—have been realized, there will undoubtedly loom on the horizon other rights to be achieved. Human life must be the prime object of democracy's concern. But through education and through the development of a higher type of patriotism which will put the common good above the desires of the individual and through the development of a new passion for liberty strong enough to accept tremendous discipline, economic, political, and social, democracy—which we feel is the best basis of social organization that has yet been discovered—can be preserved for America and so developed that it can be made the contribution of America to civilization.

Mary Klingaman Stanley
WHAT EVERYONE SHOULD KNOW ABOUT CANCER

IN THE whole medical world there is no more important subject requiring attention and prompt solution than the control of cancer. Education as to the known facts concerning this disease is a duty the profession owes to humanity. A recent survey shows that there are more adult deaths from cancer today than from any other malady except heart disease. Irrespective of the question whether or not the cancer death rate is increasing, the fact remains that it is the second leading cause of death and that the actual number of deaths in the United States alone exceeds 140,000.

Statistics prove that the average cancer patient, after discovering that something is wrong, usually waits months or even a year or more before obtaining medical advice or treatment. One reason for this is that patients do not realize that cancer starts from a trifling beginning. Certainly at least half and possibly three-fourths of the deaths from cancer are unnecessary, for this waste of life may be prevented in certain forms of the disease.

The three predominating causes of these unnecessary deaths are ignorance, fear, and delay in seeking advice. We need coordinated efforts of laymen and doctors to bring about a remedy. What the medical profession knows about this subject the laymen should know, and the most important fact is that cancer can be cured if discovered early, and treated in its beginning. Consequently, the early discovery of the disease is the only way at present which will enable the establishing of a cure.

Ignorance of what has been accomplished in this war against cancer is one of the reasons the public does not seek advice before it is too late. In the cancer clinics of this country and Europe more and more people are being saved because they came early for help.

Cancer always begins in a small localized area, and if treated early is curable. The disease is insidious in its onset, and the early symptoms are not alarming. Above all other causes of delay in seeking treatment is the absence of pain. As the early symptoms seem so unimportant, it is not strange that the average person fails to appreciate their possible significance. Cancer may begin at any age, although the vast majority of cases occur during middle and later life.

Cancer is not contagious and it is not a blood disease. Therefore there is no danger of contracting it by contact.

The exact cause that makes a group of cells start to grow wildly beyond their normal limits and invade surrounding tissues is not known. Yet we do know that there are conditions predisposing to this state. Therefore, by preventing or correcting these precancerous factors, cancer itself may be kept from developing.

Prolonged irritation of the lips, tongue, or inside of the mouth, from sharp or broken teeth, ill-fitting dental appliances, syphilis, and tobacco may produce a sore or ulcer that does not tend to heal. This may become the exciting cause of cancer. Good dentistry has definitely reduced the percentage of cases of cancer of the jaw.

Cancer frequently begins in moles or pigmented warts which are irritated, or are made to bleed and kept sore by repeated injury. These lesions are perfectly harmless at first, and become dangerous only after they have been irritated for a long time.

Neglected injuries resulting from childbearing may be a precancerous condition. Consequently, all such injuries should be repaired as a measure of protection against cancer.

It has long been known that irritating substances such as soot, tar, crude petroleum and certain chemicals may set up an irritation which may lead to cancer.

This talk was made before the student assembly of the State Teachers College at Harrisonburg on Friday, November 20.
Such precancerous conditions of the external and accessible parts of the body are readily cured, and the disease prevented. Precancerous conditions of the internal organs are, however, easily overlooked as the early symptoms are often obscure. It is important for any one who has any disturbance of the stomach or intestines which cannot be promptly and satisfactorily accounted for, to go promptly to a physician properly trained and equipped to make a thorough examination. Thus by proper modern chemical methods and by the use of the X-ray a diagnosis can often be made early.

The importance of avoiding delay is demonstrated by the fact that probably 80% of cancer patients seek relief too late. Consequently any irregularity or imperfect functioning of an internal organ should be investigated promptly.

Fear, next to ignorance, is the greatest obstacle to combat in the war against cancer as it causes delay. Knowledge is the antidote to fear, and in the majority of cases if the patient seeks advice early, his fears may be dispelled, and he will be happy in knowing that there is no malignant disease, or that it is amenable to cure.

You are already educated to the value of going to your dentist periodically for an examination, and modern women have been taught the great importance of prenatal and postnatal care to guard against many serious complications of childbirth. The public has learned many truths which help in the prevention of tuberculosis. It is likewise important to have periodic examinations, at least once a year, as a safeguard against cancer, and such examinations may disclose other diseases in their incipiency when corrections may be made before it is too late.

When cancer exists the only cures available at present are surgery, radium, the X-rays, or a combination of these in the early stages of the disease.

Beware of so-called "cancer cures," as there is no specific cure for cancer, and there will be none until the actual cause of the disease has been discovered.

NOLAND M. CANTER

EDUCATIONAL BROADCASTING

Educational broadcasting will be the subject of a national conference at the Hotel Mayflower, Washington, D. C., on December 10, 11, and 12, 1936, which will be sponsored by eighteen national organizations in co-operation with the United States Office of Education and the Federal Communications Commission and will serve as a clearing house for information on the latest technical and professional developments in the educational use of radio.

The program will include such topics as schools of the air, radio music, speech and drama, religious broadcasts, forums on the air, organization of listening groups, radio workshops, broadcasting to schools, use of radio programs by colleges and universities, use of radio by libraries and museums, radio programs for children, problems of research in educational broadcasting, audience attitudes, educational broadcasting in other countries, and organizing the community on behalf of a radio station.

All organizations interested in radio as a social force, nationally or regionally, are invited to participate. The broadcasting industry will be represented. Government officials and prominent educators from America and foreign countries will take part. The Executive Secretary of the Conference is C. S. Marsh, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.

More schools report using motion pictures for teaching of science than for instruction in any other school subject. Next comes travel and geography, and then history, social science, health, English, nature study, and commerce and industry.
YOUNG WEBSTERS

In a Detroit kindergarten five-year-olds are making their own dictionary. Here are three of their definitions:

WHY—When you want to know something; the answer to why is because.

LADY—A little girl grown up; she cooks and goes down town sometimes.

MARRY—Two people go to church and the preacher asks the man if he takes this woman for his wife and then they go on a honeymoon.

FAME

Professor—You have now been in my service twenty-five years, I believe, Mary?

Faithful Domestic (expectantly)—Yes, sir.

Professor—Well, as a reward for your faithful services, I have decided to name after you the new species of beetle I have just discovered.

HE DODGED

“Well, Benny,” said his father when the lad had been going to school about a month, “what did you learn today?”

“About the mouse, father.”

“Spell mouse,” said the father.

“Father, I don’t believe it was a mouse after all. It was a rat.”

SPUDS AND SPOUTERS

Teacher—What are the principal products of Ireland?

Bright Boy—Taters and agitators.

NEEDED IT IN HIS BUSINESS

Dentist—I think I’ll remove the nerve.

Patient—Don’t do that, doctor. I’m a book agent.

Teacher—What are you doing, Tommy?

Tommy—Nothin’.

Teacher—Don’t you know that Satan finds some work for idle hands to do? Go wash the blackboard.

DIPLOMAT

Teacher—What great event occurred on the Fourth of July?

Scholar—Columbus discovered America.

Teacher—Nonsense.

Scholar (in surprise)—Didn’t he?

Teacher—Of course not.

Scholar—Well then, who did?

A GOOD DEFINITION

Teacher—What is wisdom?

Little Girl—Please ma’am, it’s information of the brain.

NEEDED OIL

A three-year old miss became interested in a peculiar noise and asked what it was.

“A cricket, dear,” replied the mother.

“Well,” remarked the little lady, “he ought to get himself oiled.”

FINANCE, ROMANCE

Jimmy: “Teacher, didn’t you say you’d give me a kiss if T would bring you some spring leaves to hang in the room?”

Teacher: “Yes, I did.”

Jimmy: “Well, here’s the leaves, and I’ve sold the kiss to my big brother for 50 cents.

NO HURRY

Professor (to class): “There’s a young man in this class making a jackass of himself. When he is finished, I’ll start.”

Father (at supper table): “Well, Charles, how did you get along in school today?”

Charles: “Papa, my physiology book says that conversation at meals should be of a pleasant character. Let’s talk about baseball or something like that.”
EDUCATIONAL COMMENTS

LOOKING UP

That improved financial conditions are affecting educational policies in Virginia is indicated by reports recently issued from the United States Office of Education, including a statement of receipts and expenditures in the fiscal years 1934-35 and 1935-36. The Virginia colleges included in the report were Washington and Lee University and the College of William and Mary.

In 1934-35 Washington and Lee showed receipts (including capital outlay) of $250,374 and expenditures representing educational and general purposes only of $250,824. The following year receipts were $351,282, as against expenditures of $264,807.

From the College of William and Mary, the following year's receipts were $351,282, as against expenditures of $264,807.

The stipend may vary from $750 to $1500 or more, according to the requirements and qualifications of the recipient. Present employment conditions and the need for restraint in recruiting incline the Committee to devote the larger part of these funds to the larger grants. When warranted, the stipend may be renewed for a second year, but a renewal should not be anticipated by any applicant. Grants will be conditioned upon the acceptance of the applicant by the institution chosen to administer the work.

EDUCATION FOR LIBRARIANSHIP

The American Library Association, under the provisions of a grant from the Carnegie Corporation of New York, offers a limited number of grants-in-aid for the study of librarianship to residents of the United States and Canada.

PURPOSE OF THE GRANTS

The purpose of the grants is to encourage and aid persons whose proposed study or research seems likely to prove valuable to the library profession, by enabling them to seek further education in librarianship. It is expected that the results of the studies of successful candidates will be made available to the profession. Candidates should be graduates of approved colleges or universities. Also they should have completed successfully at least one year of work in a library school and have had satisfactory experience in library work. Furthermore, they should present evidence that they are competent to pursue effectively their proposed studies. Under exceptional circumstances, either library training or experience may be waived. The work of candidates who are given awards must be done under the auspices of an educational institution recognized as appropriate for the supervision of their studies, but need not necessarily be done in residence. It is intended that recipients shall give full time to their studies.

STIPEND

The stipend may vary from $750 to $1500 or more, according to the requirements and qualifications of the recipient. Present employment conditions and the need for restraint in recruiting incline the Committee to devote the larger part of these funds to the larger grants. When warranted, the stipend may be renewed for a second year, but a renewal should not be anticipated by any applicant. Grants will be conditioned upon the acceptance of the applicant by the institution chosen to administer the work.

REPORTS

Each appointee will be required to submit to the Committee a report of the results of the year's work. The director of the library school, or some other qualified officer of the educational institution super-
vising the work, will be asked to evaluate the material submitted. Theses or other productions will be subject to the disposition of the Committee on Fellowships and Scholarships, except as modified by local university regulations.

APPLICATION

Applications for grants for the school year 1937-38 should be filed before February 1, 1937.

Each applicant should address a typewritten letter to the Chairman of the American Library Association Committee on Fellowships and Scholarships, Mr. Charles E. Rush, Yale University Library, New Haven, Connecticut, giving information on the following points:

a. Age;
b. Record of college work, including name of college, dates, degrees, major subjects of study, relative standing in class, transcript of course records, etc.;
c. Reading and speaking knowledge of foreign languages;
d. Training and experience in library work; other occupational experience;
e. Plan of proposed study in detail;
f. Educational auspices under which applicant desires to study;
g. Names and addresses of three persons whose professional competence and personal knowledge of the candidate are sufficient to vouch for the candidate's capacity (1) for library work, and (2) for the specific work outlined under (e) preceding. (Applicants should not request persons named to write directly to the Committee);
h. A recent, small, unmounted photograph of the applicant should be included. (Applicants should be prepared to submit health certificate, if requested.)

All documents submitted become part of the records of the Committee and can not be returned.

The Committee will welcome correspondence calling attention to exceptional persons who might be considered for awards. Unsuccessful application in one year will not preclude consideration in another year.

ANNOUNCEMENT OF AWARDS

The Committee will act on the applications before April 1 and successful applicants will be notified thereafter as soon as possible.

THE READING TABLE


The material included in this volume, much of which is recent and all of which is vital and significant, is rather different from that of the usual text of this kind. It focuses very definitely upon the teacher. Units embracing such topics as work required, salaries involved, tenure secured or not, intellectual capacity needed, preparation demanded, should help the prospective teacher to understand fully the obligations as well as the privileges and opportunities resulting, and thereby to make a wise decision relative to entering this field.

The authors believe that the book "may be regarded as one that deals with the sociology of teaching." It certainly emphasizes the social aspects and specifically challenges the teacher to higher professional standards.

B. J. L.


This book, which is accompanied by forty-eight pages of well-planned tests and an excellent time chart, can be employed to great advantage in high school classes using the latest edition of Muzzey's A History of Our Country. The material is divided into units corresponding to the eight units in Muzzey's book. Each unit is furnished with a preview, a study outline, maps, sug-
gested topics for discussion, and other aids for teacher and pupils. Many map questions, well phrased to emphasize the historical significance of places, are included.

Otto F. Frederikson


Six maps, beautifully executed and accurately designed, in inexpensive form present biographical data and literary references to the British Isles. Four maps show London since 1400 and (with its environs) since 1900. There are six other maps of the Lake Country, Wessex, Oxford, Cambridge, Western and Central Continental Europe, and Ireland. (If the lettering seems too small for continuous study, the student may find a satisfactory reading glass at the dime store.)

An ingenious indexing system brings together all the place names as well as the names of authors and their works; it even classifies counties, boroughs, parks. The index refers the searcher to any given square inch of any given map.

This mapbook will not only provide a geographical background to the literature the student is reading; it will also catch his imagination and encourage him "to seken straunge strondes."

To Christopher Morley, who has long been harping on the value of an atlas close at hand when one is reading literature, this should be a most satisfactory compilation. It is certainly the most successful of all the attempts which have been made to arouse student interest in geographical background.

C. T. L.


For the teacher who has had little musical training, this book seems particularly adapted, because more than half of it is taken up with discussions of the fundamentals of music, the child's singing voice, music appreciation, creative music, and other aspects. Too, there are daily lesson plans and song lists for rural schools, which should be helpful, and a collection of songs suited to children's voices.


It is indeed gratifying to have a new edition of Stiles' text. There is much new material both in text and illustrations. The latter are particularly clear, emphasizing functional rather than structural relationships of tissues and organs. Material on mental hygiene and endocrines is up to date as is a section on acclimatization to high altitudes. The student will find the book valuable either as text or for the reference shelf.

R. L. Phillips


Full treatment is given to all phases of athletics in education. Intramural as well as interscholastic and inter-collegiate sports for boys and girls are considered.

The book has been revised to meet the needs of the more recent growth and changes in athletic programs in high schools and colleges. Two new chapters have been added: Athletic Rules and Regulations, and A Program of Sports and Games.

The specialist in the field of physical education will find this book invaluable. It is also very helpful to the general educator in either public school or college in solving problems relating to athletics.

A. L. J.

There is not the slightest doubt in my mind that radio will become one of the most powerful constructive forces for the education of our people if we devote adequate attention to the development of truly educational programs.—John W. Studebaker, U. S. Commissioner of Education.
NEWS OF THE COLLEGE

Faculty members who attended the annual meeting of the Virginia Education Association, held at Richmond November 24-27, as delegates from H. S. T. C., were Mrs. Bernice Varner and Dr. George Williams. Miss Grace Palmer presided over the art section and Miss Mary Louise Seeger and Dr. Paul Hounchell presented papers at the meeting. Other members of the college faculty to attend the meeting were President S. P. Duke, Dean W. J. Gifford, and Professor C. T. Logan.

"Mr. Pim Passes By," comedy by A. A. Milne, was successfully presented by the Stratford Dramatic Club in Wilson Auditorium Friday, November 13. Roles were carried by E. C. Wilton, Mary Clark, Bertha Jenkins, George Aldhizer II, Virginia Blain, Overton Lee, Virginia Gordon Hall.

Seven new members were pledged to Alpha Chi Chapter of Kappa Delta Pi during the past month. They were Mrs. Mary Darst, Pulaski; Ruth Matthews, Front Royal; Helen McMillan, Lena Mundy, and Dolores Phalen, Harrisonburg; Sue Belle Sale, Fairfield; and Helen Shular, Big Stone Gap.

Three students were accepted by Scribblers, honorary writing organization, at a recent meeting. They were Helen Hardy, Amelia; Helen Shular, Big Stone Gap; and Patricia Minar, Cherrydale.

The annual Red Cross drive at H. T. C. carried on under the direction of Nina Hayes, Barrett, W. Va., chairman, closed with a total contribution of approximately seventy-five dollars.

Miss Helen Marbut and Dr. Henry A. Converse were elected "big sister" and "big brother" respectively by the Freshman class. Freshman elections included also those of Bee Ott, granddaughter of Professor C. P. Shorts, as mascot; Jean Van Landingham, Petersburg, hockey sports leader; Ruth Schafer, New York, representative to Athletic Council; Peggy Salisbury, Morrison, representative to the Freshman council; Margaret Clark, Norfolk, president of the Freshman council; Marlin Pence, Arlington, and Marion Killinger, Bethesda, Maryland, representatives to Student Council; and Nancy Wilder, Norfolk, cheer leader.

Chosen by secret ballot of the student body, Helen Shutters, Mt. Jackson, enacted the role of Mary in the Y. W. C. A. Christmas pageant Thursday, December 10. Other main characters were Isaiah, Virginia Blain; Wise Men, Lafayette Carr, Helen Mitchell, and Sue Boles; Joseph, Catherine Warner; and Angels, Patricia Minar, Josephine Sanford, and Mary J. Stuart.

Chapel speakers for recent assemblies included Wilmer Coffman, a World War veteran who, November 11, presented an illustrated lecture on peace, giving actual war scenes; Dr. L. Richman, State Supervisor of Music who discussed music as a broadening experience, Nov. 18; and Dr. B. B. Bagby, chairman of Child Welfare division of the State Department of Health who spoke of defects of the eye in relation to education processes, Dec. 3.

The Purple and Gold hockey team was feated 4-1 by the Alumnae, November 28. Five varsity players filled vacancies in the alumnae line-up. They were Marguerite Holder, Margaret Glover, Maud Whitehead, Helen Coleman, and Lois Sloop.

The Rural Life Club, formerly an Alpha group, was granted permission by the faculty to organize as a separate club. They are carrying on their original program under the leadership of Louise Hankla, Louisa.

Mrs. Annie Bailey Cook, Dean of Women, presided over the meeting of the Regional association of Deans of Women and Advisors of Girls which met in Washington November 20.

Miss Helen Swadley, secretary in the college treasurer's office, became the bride of Jacob William Sharper November 17.
ALUMNAE NOTES

ANNUAL LUNCHEON

The annual alumnae luncheon was held at the Hotel Richmond on Thanksgiving Day under the direction of the Richmond chapter, of which Evelyn Wilson Gunter is president. Mary Brown Allgood introduced Dr. Duke and other faculty members; all spoke briefly. Reports of work done and future plans were given by representatives of the Norfolk, Portsmouth, Richmond, and Harrisonburg chapters, and a letter from Bobby Cook was read to give the plans of the Charleston (W. Va.) chapter.

Special credit goes to Ruth Paul Browning, Mary Brown Allgood, Evelyn Wilson Gunter, and Bela Outlaw for their work in making the luncheon a success.

Alumnae and faculty members present were: Mary Brown Allgood, Marion Nesbitt, Bela Outlaw, Evelyn Wilson Gunter, Ruth Paul Browning, Linda L. Carter, Elizabeth F. Morton, Mary Finney Smith, and Ami Garthright, all of Richmond; Jeannette Duling, of Portsmouth; Helen L. Bowman, Pattie G. Morrison, and Mary V. Turner, of Petersburg; Eunice Lindsay, Catherine Bard, and Helen M. Lee of Norfolk; Anna Haley, Front Royal; Peggy Willis, New Castle; Miriam Rosenkrans, Wytheville; Lucy Clarke, Fairfax; Eleanor Ziegler, Alexandria; Dorothy Spooner Garber, Frances Sibert, Virginia R. Fristoe, Marie Alexander, Ruth Thompson, and Ruby Stewart, of Harrisonburg; and from the college Dr. and Mrs. S. P. Duke, Miss Edna Shaeffer, Dr. Rachel Weems, Mrs. Bernice Reaney Varner, Miss Julia Robertson, Miss Mary Louise Seeger, Dr. Paul Houchell, Mr. and Mrs. Raymond Dingle-dine, Dr. W. J. Gifford.

On November 13 the Culpeper chapter had a dinner in celebration of its first birthday. The table was decorated in purple and gold and place-cards—containing the menu, the names of the chapter officers and members, and the words of “Blue-Stone Hill” and “Alma Mater”—were in the same colors.

Officers of the Culpeper chapter are Mary McNeil, president; Bess Rhoades, vice-president; Ruth McNeil, secretary; Edwina Corley, treasurer. The club members are Ida Mae Dinges Hudson, Lucille Campbell Chilton, Myrtle Carpenter, Eva Lily Sullivan, Mary Jasper Hudson, Edna Hutchinson Marceau, Alice Glacitli Russell, Laura Weiss Eddy, Ruth Burton Yowell, Catherine Reaguer Perron, Gladys Yowell Willis, Hester Thomas Geest, Mary Ellen Fray, Lillian Stonesiffer, Helen Holladay Waters, Sue Clarke Wright. All but three were present.

OUR CONTRIBUTORS

FRANK BANE is the executive director of the Social Security Board, Washington, D. C. Mr. Bane’s talent for leadership in social welfare has long been evident. He began a career of public service as high school principal in Nance-mond county, Virginia; he was later secretary of the Virginia State Board of Corrections and Charities; then Director of Public Welfare in Knoxville, Tennessee. Mr. Bane was Commissioner of Public Welfare in Virginia from 1926 to 1932, and served four years as director of the American Public Welfare Association just prior to accepting his present post in Washington.

MARY KLINGAMAN STANLEY is teacher of social sciences in the Harrisonburg High School.

NOLAND M. CANTER, (M. D., Johns Hopkins) is a Harrisonburg physician who specializes in X-ray and serves as Roentgenologist for the Rockingham Memorial Hospital.
**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.

### Born to Dance

(Eleanor Powell, J. Stewart, Una Merkel) (MGM) Madeup musical comedy at its finest. Enough story, comic and serious romance, amusing "features", gorgeous stage numbers, roles well done except hero's, much singing (without a voice in the cast), and Eleanor matchless as acting-dancing heroine. 11-1-36

(A) Excellent (Y) Excellent (C) Good

### Follow the Light Brigade

(Errol Flynn, De Haviland) (Warner) Technical masterpiece. Romanticized history. Bloodcurdling massacre, revenge, love, insubordination made to replace the famous "blunder". Shows glorious "charge" with most complete and terrible realism yet done. Powerful theatrics. 11-17-36

(A) Notable (Y) Very doubtful (C) No

### Everything Is Thunder

(D. Montgomery, C. Bennett) (G.B) Absurdly pretentious title for dreary struggles of English soldier escaping German prison camps, helped by floppy haired courtisan whose love helps him win. Hardly motivated, colorless, monotonous, with little dramatic tension. 11-17-36

(A) Very poor (Y-C) Useless (C) No

### Three Men on a Horse

(McHugh, Blondell) (Republic) The wavering fortunes of a stage-struck family not very well told or acted, but pleasing settings, human characters and comedy, and outstandingly lovely singing by hero and heroine make a "musical" quite above average. 11-24-36

(A) Good of kind (Y) Good (C) Little interest

### The Garden of Allah

(Marlene Dietrich, C. Bartlett) (Republic) The warring fortunes of a stage-struck family not very well told or acted, but pleasing settings, human characters and comedy, and outstandingly lovely singing by hero and heroine make a "musical" quite above average. 11-24-36

(A) Notable (Y) Unwholesome (C) No

### Go West Young Man

(Mae West, W. William) (Para) Mae distorts original play, weights it heavily with her old stuff, and achieves disjunctive drama of slight interest aside from its suggestiveness. Cheepily unwholesome and largely stale. Her attempts at singing and acting feeble. 11-24-36

(A) Novel (Y) Doubful (C) No

### A Woman Rebels

(K. Hepburn, H. Marshall) (RKO) Fine done Victorian drama with authentic background, atmosphere and quiet charm of the era. Motherless heroine's youthful romance and betrayal, her fortitude in raising child, blending true romance and mature happiness told with delicacy and restraint. 11-17-34

(A-Y) No value (C) No

### A Woman Rebels

(K. Hepburn, H. Marshall) (RKO) Fine done Victorian drama with authentic background, atmosphere and quiet charm of the era. Motherless heroine's youthful romance and betrayal, her fortitude in raising child, blending true romance and mature happiness told with delicacy and restraint. 11-24-36

(A) Dep. on taste (Y-C) Thoroughly unwholesome (C) No

### Isle of Fury

(Humphrey Bogart, Donald Woods) (Warners) South Sea mystery-sex-melodrama, quite exciting, scenically fine, and with some startling camera technique. But dramatic values suffer in hectic combination of sex triangle and sensational adventures. Picturesque but unconvincing. 11-10-36

(A) Depends on taste (Y) Better not (C) No

### Man Who Lived Again

(Boris Karloff) (G.B) Weird thriller, well done, repellant or fascinating according to taste for morbid and fantastic. Mad scientist discovers formula for brain transference, uses it for revenge and murder, until he dies himself in harrowing climax. 11-24-36

(A) Depends on taste (Y) Doubtful (C) No

### Pigskin Parade

(Patsy Kelly, Jack Haley) (Fox) Hilarious musical farce, crazy situations arising when backwoods college trains for football against Yale and wins in thrilling blaze. Some dubious ethics and lapses in taste so wildly farcical as to be harmless. Much genuinely funny. 11-10-36

(A) (Y) (C) Probably quite amusing

### Polo Joe

(Joe E. Brown (Warner) Nonsense farce built exactly for Brown's clowning. Hero hates horses, but to win polo-loving heroine poses as Shanghai polo champion. Finally maneuvered into championship game, ably abetted by his valet. Be founders through to win game and girl. 11-24-36

(A) Fairly good (Y) Amusing (C) Good

### Rose Bowl

(Tom Brown, Larry Crabe) (Para.) Dull, elementary football yarn about very small-town college winning place in Rose Bowl! Includes puppy romance and commercialism in colleges. Even the football playing doesn't look real. "Dialog banal, acting feeble, realism childish." 11-17-36

(A) Stupid (Y-C) Inane but harmless (C) No

### Tarzan Escapes

(Weismuller, O'Sullivan) (MGM) The Tarzan absurdity, with idiot yell, mandolin love motif, grim jungle tragedy, now adds actual shooting of animals, horrible killings of men, and still incessant faking. The preposterous made vividly real. Neurotic food for the young. 11-17-34

(A-Y) No value (C) No

### Three Men on a Horse

(McHugh, Blondell) (1st. Nat.) Loud laughs for the multitude in clever screening of rowdy stage-play. McHugh excellent as timid poet who picks race-track winners for his captors. Acting ordinary, dialogue bawled, and the "Newyorkese" is sadly unconvincing. 12-1-36

(A) Depends on taste (Y) Better not (C) No

### A Woman Rebels

(K. Hepburn, H. Marshall) (RKO) Fine done Victorian drama with authentic background, atmosphere and quiet charm of the era. Motherless heroine's youthful romance and betrayal, her fortitude in raising child, blending true romance and mature happiness told with delicacy and restraint. 11-10-36

(A) Excellent (Y) Prob. too mature (C) No
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