January, 1916

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Elizabeth P. Cleveland, Secretary

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THE LEADERSHIP OF PERSONALITY

Leadership is a necessity of progress as well as of efficiency. The need for and the power of leadership are recognized among all living creatures: among birds, insects, and beasts of the forest as well as among men.

At noon one day, not long ago, while passing thru an open field, my attention was arrested by sounds in the air. Looking up, I beheld a large flock of wild geese flying northward. They were up about as high as the top of the Washington Monument, and were flying swiftly and in perfect formation. As nearly as I could tell, they were about forty in number, and they formed a great triangle, a huge capital A, against the pale blue of the sky, the point of the angle forward, cleaving the light air. Down each long line, and in the orderly center, was one pair after another of sturdy, restless wings, beating thru the sustaining medium with all the precision and regularity of a finely adjusted machine. Each one was in his place, and each one kept his place. There were no stragglers. There seemed to be no weariness. Mile after mile, at that far height, over mountain, plain, and wooded hill they swept without pause or rest; and ceaselessly thru all the air about them rang their loud chorus of peculiarcries—a sort of song, I imagined, of hope and courage. The air was unusually clear that day, and I could see them long after they had passed. Straight on a line they flew directly into the invisible north. They lost no time in doubtful uncertainty; they wasted no energy in zigzag courses. Straight to the line, on they flew. With a fascinated gaze I watched them until at last the dark line became a mere speck and was lost in the distant sky.
The transient flock was gone, but with me there remained a question: "How can these weak creatures make such journeys, and never lose the straight course thru miles and miles of trackless sky?"

The answer came: "They are created with a far-drawing instinct, and then they have a leader among their own number."

With much interest I had observed the leader of this flock. I had watched him as he set the pace and marked the course, flying well in the lead at the point of the converging lines. Straight ahead, out into the boundless, pathless air he flew, as true to the invisible course as if it had been marked by shining stars. If there had been no leader, or if the leader had fallen or faltered, time would have been lost, energy would have been wasted, and the flock would soon have been helpless wanderers, the victims of hunger and missiles of death. But the flock had a leader—a leader that led; and they followed him.

This is the story of progress and efficiency everywhere. The busy humming workers in every hive have a leader. The herds upon the plains, the wolves in the forests, the sheep in the fields, the children in the schools, the women in every neighborhood, the mechanics in every shop, the soldiers in every camp, the men in every state all have their leaders if they are efficient and are making progress. If they have no leaders, or none worthy of the name, they are losing time, they are wasting energy, they are missing the rarest moments of opportunity. There is power in leadership; and there never was a greater field or a louder call for leadership than today.

By leadership we mean chiefly personal leadership. There are in the world many forces and many things that serve to lead the thought and action of the human race, in greater or less measure; but among them all there is nothing so potent, nothing so fruitful of good or bad, as personal leadership. The living man, the living woman, the living boy, the living girl, is, after all, the leader that leads. We read books, we study philosophy, we admire paintings, we enjoy music, but we follow living leaders. It may not be Arnold Winkelried at Sempach, or Robert Bruce at Bannockburn; it may not be
Joan of Arc at Orleans, or Grace Darling at Longstone Light; it may not be Napoleon at the bridge of Arcola, or Lee at the Bloody Angle; it may not be Clara Barton in the hospitals and camps, or Jane Addams in the dens of Chicago; it may not be a stalwart fire chief in flaming New York, or a hero of rescue at the deadly Cherry Mines: it may be only the man who advises you how to vote; it may be only the woman who organizes a citizens’ league; it may be only the big boy who captains the ball team; it may be only the little girl who invites you to church: but somebody, somewhere, is touching your life with the power of a leader; and your spirit, with fainter or stronger vibrations, like a harp of a thousand strings, is responding to that touch.

Personal leadership may be of several kinds. It may be leadership of thought, leadership of action, leadership of feeling, leadership of purpose, according to the personal equation of the leader; but the particular sort of leadership for which I wish now to make a special plea may be called, I think, the leadership of ideals, or inspirational leadership.

Two splendid words in our language are “inspiration” and “aspiration.” Inspiration means breathing in; aspiration means breathing toward or panting after. Both are used of the spirit rather than of the body, and both suggest a high potential. “As the hart panteth after the water brooks, so panteth my soul after thee, O God,” is a graphic picture of aspiration. For aspiration means not only a strong impulse forward, but it also means a mighty impulse upward. It is a yearning, as it were, toward the stars.

Aspiration depends upon inspiration, and inspiration issues in aspiration. This is just as true in the soul as it is in the body. Inspirational leadership, therefore, is bound to issue in the high ideals and the high effort of aspiration. Knowledge in some measure is necessary for good citizenship; skill is desirable; but best of all is that burning desire in the soul to be somebody of worth and to do something worth while. Thus inspiration is made vital in aspiration.

The personal, inspirational leader stirs the spirit of his sons, his disciples, his friends, to high and noble
effort if not always to successful achievement. And the teacher who has inspired his pupils with high ideals of life and service has done therein his greatest work—he has implanted in their souls the dynamic of all highest success. No life that is led on constantly by such a power can be a failure. The father whose character is so fine and strong as to become the ideal of his boy has become that boy’s hero, that boy’s leader, and the inspiration of his example will be a legacy worth more than millions. The mother who can lead her daughter unto the higher standards and into the finer graces, and does it, has not only blessed her offspring but has also rendered a lasting service to humanity. The clean, manly boy who can lead smaller and weaker boys into clean habits and high ambitions, and does it, is a hero and a benefactor of the race. The girl who makes herself beautiful and lovable and truly helpful will be a leader too, and is worth more than her weight in gold in any school, in any home, in any community. The world is wandering and dying in the wilderness for lack of the leadership that only true manhood and true womanhood can provide.

The true, inspirational leader does not need to announce himself as such. In fact, the qualities of effective leadership depend much less on what one says than on what he does. What he says counts for something, but what he does and what he shows himself able to do count for more. What he knows counts for a great deal, but what he is and what he aims to be count for most of all. In short, the power of leadership is determined by moral factors rather than by things intellectual or material. One must be a person of worth to be a personal leader of true inspirational power. Leadership, on the other hand, waits upon real personality.

Having thus considered the power and the qualities of the dynamic personality, let us give attention briefly to some of the present-day opportunities for leadership. A number have already been indicated.

There is great opportunity for leadership in the schools. It goes without saying, of course, that teachers should be leaders. Let us go a step further and say, They should be inspirational leaders.

Nearly a hundred years ago, at a little town in Beau-
tiful Valley, a boy stood before a teacher. The boy was poor; he was ignorant; he was meanly clad. But he had divine fire in his soul. That teacher stirred the fire. He could have done little more, for he saw the boy only two or three times. But stirring the fire was enough for one man’s honor. In the years that followed the uncouth boy was transformed—he became a great scholar, a great teacher, and he led many choice companies to the sunlit heights. In Beautiful Valley his name has been a household word for two generations, and many strong men, with gratitude in their hearts, speak reverently in his honor.

How may we account for the remarkable transformation that was wrought out between the day of small things and the day of great things in that boy’s life? He himself gave the explanation when, as an old man, full of years and honors, he wrote to his old teacher. He said, “You inspired me.” An hour or a half-hour of time, a book with wonders in it, a boy with a beating heart—these made opportunity; the teacher, all unconscious how far his influence would go, met the opportunity with the power of leadership, inspirational leadership. The ages tell the story.

In the hundreds of schools over our land, in the thousands of bright eager faces that gaze up every day with confidence into the faces of teachers, there is written everywhere this great golden word, “Opportunity.” There is opportunity to teach facts, opportunity to develop skill; but the greatest opportunity of all is that which waits everywhere for the thrilling touch of a great dynamic soul—the leadership of a personality charged with inspirational power.

And in our schools there are others besides the teachers who have a call to leadership—who really are leaders in a good or evil way. There are leaders among the boys; there are leaders among the girls. Every girl, therefore, and every boy who at any time becomes conscious of leadership, whether of one other person or more than one, should rise to the fine obligation of leadership, recognizing the power as a gift unto service and honor. Hardly any boy is wicked enough to lead wrong if he becomes really awake to the fact that he is going wrong and that others are following him. Hardly
any girl is mean enough to cherish the power of leadership just for the sake of misusing it. Part of the teacher’s opportunity, therefore, consists in his chance to make the children see what a sacred privilege leadership is.

One of the most splendid opportunities of this age or any other age for leadership is offered week after week in the Sunday schools of our land. To be sure, we all recognize the opportunities of the superintendent, the teachers, and the various officers of the school. But I wish to speak of a certain specific opportunity that frequently is not recognized. It is an opportunity open to the men of the churches, particularly to the young men and to the boys that are almost grown.

Those of us who have studied human life in its various stages of growth and development, or have observed it with any degree of care, know that when a boy comes along toward the middle of his teens he becomes a bit uncertain in his manners and movements. When his voice begins to change he seems to be on the point of changing in everything. For one thing, unless conditions are most wholesome, he is disposed to quit going to Sunday school. He is almost certain to quit if his Sunday school teacher at that time happens to be a lady. Strange, isn’t it? When he begins to like the girls—usually girls that are almost young ladies grown—he doesn’t want to be in a lady’s class at Sunday school, or at any other school, for that matter. He wants a girl, but he does not want a woman to teach him. He wants a girl for a sweetheart and he wants a man for his teacher. At least he needs a man. He needs a man or an older boy to steer him. Moreover, the chances are that he is beginning to hang around some man or some older boy, whom he admires, and whom he follows, hit or miss.

Right here is the specific opportunity to which I have referred. This boy needs a leader; he wants a leader; he will have a leader. Happy is that boy if, at this critical time, he falls in with some good strong fellow who keeps him straight and steers him in the right direction. Any man, old or young, or any boy, large or small, who can help a fellow at such a time has an opportunity
worth living for. He may perform a noble and far-reaching service.

If we had more big strong men teaching in the Sunday school, and more big strong men and boys in the classes, it would not be so hard to keep the little chap in the right place when this shaky time, this restless time, this time of great choices comes upon him. As men and older boys come to see more fully this opportunity for leadership they will rise to it in all the strength of a splendid manhood. The boy may not go wrong, but he is certain to keep going in one direction or another, and the chances are that wherever he goes he follows some man or some other boy. He is impulsive, he is explosive, he is shaky and wobbly; but at the same time he has some good motions as well as many good notions. The thing he needs most is safe and sane leadership. The leadership he needs is of the masculine gender, though he may not know it or even dream it. However, he does expect fine things—heroic things—of the men and older boys whom he admires. This is their opportunity. It is their finest chance in life, perhaps, for doing something really worth while.

And so we might continue. The opportunities for personal, inspirational leadership are to be found everywhere—in the school, in the church, in the home, in the state, in the shop, on the farm, on the field of battle and on the field of play. There is not a city so big nor a rural vale so hidden that it may not give a wonderful response to the touch of magnetic, sympathetic personality. A certain educator, now widely known, was once an untaught boy, buried deep for life, it seemed, in one of the dark hollows of the Alleghanies. Only a few days ago he told me that it was the sympathetic, encouraging word of an old physician, who attended him when he had a broken leg, that set him toiling toward the heights. The need of such personal leadership is great, but the power is adequate to the need. The greatest need is consciousness of the need and an appreciation of the power. What the world lacks is a larger number of men and women, of boys and girls, who are seeking to develop and to exercise the power—the power of personal leadership toward high ideals.

John W. Wayland
At a season when preparations are under way for pageants and festivals commemorative of the three-hundredth anniversary of the death of William Shakespeare, it is meet that we should recall, that we should acknowledge as best we can, the debt we owe to the great world-figure of Spanish literature, Miguel de Cervantes Saavedra. It is frequently noted that both Shakespeare and Cervantes died on April 23, 1616,—a coincidence, however, which is only nominal, for the English calendar was still Old Style, while Spain had adopted the Gregorian calendar. Cervantes' death thus antedated Shakespeare's by ten days. There are, however, various parallelisms in the lives of these two men, each the supreme name in his nation’s literature. Shakespeare's fame does not rest on the Sonnets and Poems in which he put his faith, nor does Cervantes' memory survive because of his favorite poem, Galatea. Of neither man is our information very full; years pass unrecorded and submit themselves to the traditions that have grown up in the fullness of time. There will always be those who aver that Shakespeare stole deer, just as there are always those to assure us that Cervantes wrote Don Quixote in a dark prison. In like manner do the commentators read into his phrases thoughts that Shakespeare never had, into his novels symbolisms that Cervantes was far from suggesting. But perhaps this is one of the rewards of genius!

Both Shakespeare and Cervantes were results of the same great movements which swept thru Europe in the fourteenth century, and which affected so profoundly the very essence of life. Commercial as well as spiritual growth followed the Renaissance; and both England and Spain fostered a new national spirit. The Spanish Main knew a glory that still survives in song and story, and Spain was at its zenith when the Invincible Armada was launched against the strong young nation to the north. England's Golden Age in literature, no less than Spain's, was coincident with this material prosperity, and the last of the sixteenth century saw literary epochs
alike in England and Spain that have been high-water marks of achievement thenceforth.

Of the Spanish novelist there is more authentic information than of his English contemporary. Cervantes so distinguished himself in service to the state, and specifically in battle, that, aside from his literary endeavors, his name would have been handed down in the chronicles of Spain; and this may not be said of Shakespeare. It is interesting to note, in passing, that many of Spain’s greatest literary men have been fighters of repute, and it may be sufficient to mention the names of Lope de Vega and Calderon. Cervantes, born in Alcala de Henares, grew to manhood under the shadow of a great university, second only to that at Salamanca, and at the age of twenty-three had enlisted in the famous infantry regiment of Miguel de Moncada. The following year, 1571, he took a valiant part in the naval battle of Lepanto, emerging with considerable glory, but at the cost of his left hand. The young Spaniard gained renown, and returning from the expedition of the Holy League, he carried with him letters from Don John of Austria and the Neapolitan Viceroy. Moorish pirates attacked his caravel, and the letters on his person convinced them that their captive was a rich haul, indeed. Five years Cervantes spent in slavery, while his family vainly tried to meet the exorbitant demand for his ransom. During these years he is said to have won the admiration of his captors by his open defiance of them and their requirements. He assisted some of his fellows to escape, and once all but succeeded himself. Finally he was released, and in 1580 he was back in Madrid. Never did the glory of Lepanto diminish, nor was the fact of his participation ever aught but a source of the greatest pride to the valiant Cervantes.

There followed frequent attempts in poetry and fruitless efforts to establish himself as a playwright. But Lope de Vega held the plaudits of the theater; there was no room for Miguel de Cervantes. He sought work in Seville. In 1588 he obtained a position thru the government as Deputy-Purveyor to the Invincible Armada, but the history of that project leaves us to infer that he was soon again without employment. Still, his failure as a playwright had not cooled his ambition;
his attempts at poetry continued. *Galatea*, a pastoral poem, had been published in 1585. It met with a certain success and there were slight proceeds from its sale, but it is clear that Cervantes did not find in letters a profession that was likely to sustain him. In 1594 he had become a tax-gatherer in Granada, and was probably receiving a salary equivalent to $1,000 a year. But ill fortune had a way of dogging Cervantes: to a carrier for transportation to Madrid he entrusted tax moneys which never arrived, for the simple reason that the carrier absconded, but Cervantes was imprisoned without delay. He was released when the defaulter's property had been seized, and when it had been ascertained that Cervantes could not make good the loss. The elapsing years until 1605 passed unrecorded, tho one may know that he had been occupied, for it was in that year that the first part of *Don Quixote* was published. The evil genius appeared in no time; a man wounded in a night street-fight was carried into Cervantes' home, and died there. Cervantes was accused of complicity in the murder, and suffered arrest, but research fails to find any damaging evidence. One is tempted to apply to the affairs of Cervantes the lament of the Knight of the Doleful Countenance, for truly he seems to have been the most unfortunate of men. His good fortune seems to have been that he could say, "Patience, and shuffle the cards!"

When *Don Quixote* appeared its author was fifty-eight years old. He was unable to obtain assistance from Philip, and could not find employment with a government which still held him accountable for the lost taxes. He had not the resources to enable him to make good the loss, and he was making a bare living with his pen, eked out as much by the writing of prefatory poems, transcription of letters, and so on, as it was by the profit of his poems. The sale of *Don Quixote* was without parallel in that day; its vogue was immediate. Pirated editions appeared in other cities within a short time, and it is probable that the author's profit was very small. He continued writing. At the age of sixty-six, in 1613, the *Exemplary Novels*, a collection of short novels including several of the picaresque type, were published. In leisurely fashion he proceeded with the
second part of Don Quixote, which he had half promised in the first part. But thru a period of thirty-one years Cervantes had promised a second part of Galatea, and never got it done, and one wonders if the same fate might not have befallen Don Quixote but for the doings of him who signed himself "Alonso Fernandez de Avellaneda of Tordesillas." In 1614 Avellaneda published a "Second Volume of the Ingenious Knight Don Quixote, with his Third Sally," whether in a desire to profit by Cervantes' popular first volume or whether with the aim of injuring Cervantes one does not know; at any rate, in his preface Avellaneda wrote insolently, taunting Cervantes with his physical defects, his age, his loneliness, and his unpleasant experiences in jail. On the appearance of this spurious second volume, Cervantes was writing the fifty-ninth chapter of his own second part, and completed the book in great haste.

Thru all his misfortunes Cervantes remained a brave, cheerful spirit. His death in 1616 was but a year after the hastened completion of his masterpiece, when he had attained the age of sixty-eight. His life affords an inspiring instance of the struggle of a great spirit against odds. Surely he builded better than he knew. Someone has pointed out that the whole body of his work, and this applies particularly to Don Quixote in its entirety, is illustrative of the impregnable advantage that plain humanity possesses over intellect. Cervantes lived a man among men, and the world was his university; so he was intimate with life in its humors, its sorrows, its dreams, and its realities. As a writer he possessed the creative power, the sympathy, the vision, the inventive resourcefulness, to make of the warp and woof of his own life a great picture of mankind, with medieval Spain as its background,—a picture which is universal in its appeal. In the words of Mr. Brander Matthews, "to catch mankind in the act, as it were; to surprise the secrets of character and to show its springs; to get into literature the very trick of life itself; to display the variety of human existence, its richness, its breadth, its intensity; to do these things with unforced humor, with unfailing good-humor, with good will toward all men, with tolerance, with benignity, with loving kindness—this is what no writer of fiction had done before Cervantes wrote Don Quixote."
Sir Walter Scott, writing to thank Robert Southey for a copy of *Palmerin of England*, one of the popular chivalresque romances of the Middle Ages, takes occasion to comment on its inferiority to *Amadis of Gaul*, and adds, "One discovery I have made is, that we understand little or nothing of *Don Quixote* except by the Spanish romances." Tennyson's *Idylls of the King* suggest themselves as giving something of the flavor of the old romances of chivalry, and Tennyson's chief source, Malory's *Morte d'Arthur*, is a typical example of this literary form in England. Southey thought *Amadis of Gaul* was among prose what *Orlando Furioso* was among metrical romances, not the oldest of its kind, but the best; and an acquaintance with this story of the days of chivalry certainly places *Don Quixote* in a new light. Evidently Cervantes held *Amadis* in high regard, for this was one of the few books that the priest did not order burned when he and the barber held the famous Inquisition in the Library of the mad knight. But the romances had grown cheap with a tawdriness that today is Chambers's, and Cervantes undertook to show his distaste just as Jane Austen many years later satirized the Gothic romances in England by writing *Northanger Abbey*. It should be said, too, that *Amadis* and the kindred romances were a natural outgrowth of the days of chivalry, and their extreme popularity in Spain proceeds from the fact that knight-errantry, "a caprice in England and France," had been accepted as a serious calling in Spain. Spain's prosperity had been great; she was enjoying commercial supremacy in the palmy days of Charles and Philip II; but with the establishment of the Inquisition and the House of Austria—"two curses more fatal than all the plagues of Egypt," Southey called them—civil and religious liberties were destroyed, and Spain's greatness waned.

That the satire of *Don Quixote* accomplished its aim there can be no question,—the avowed purpose of "destroying the authority and influence which the books of chivalries have in the world over the vulgar." But Cer-

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Cervantes' original plan to parody the medieval tales was soon expanded, and the first part of Don Quixote carries us far into an eloquent expose' of life. The romances were books of dreams on earth, the picaresque, or rogue, novels then coming into fashion have been called books of "earthly shrewdness reaching vainly after dreams"; but Don Quixote is both. The Ingenious Knight has gone mad with reading these romances and sees in himself another Amadis of Gaul, whose calling it shall be to go forth in search of adventures, to succor those in need, to punish iniquity, and withal to do homage to his own fair mistress, the peerless Dulcinea del Toboso. Under the high-sounding name of "Don Quixote de la Mancha" he makes his first sally into the world, and meets with little success. Nothing daunted, the hidalgo makes a fat peasant of the neighborhood, Sancho Panza, a party to his aspirations; with a faithful squire the semblance of a knight of old is assured, and the Knight of the Doleful Countenance again sallies forth into the world.

It has been pointed out that Don Quixote is his own victim in the first part, whereas in the second part, published after an interval of ten years, the Illustrious Knight is the victim of others. Professor George E. Woodberry sees in the two characters, the Knight and the Squire, the double nature of life, and thinks Cervantes meant the adventures of these two men journeying thru the world to set forth the contrast between soul and sense. Don Quixote suffers a characteristic defect of the soul, imaginative illusion, while Sancho's is the defect of the material man, namely, self-interest. "Don Quixote's is a very normal madness." says Professor Woodberry. "He does not differ much from other men in his mental processes. He interprets the sights and sounds of the actual world by his past experience; only, as he has lived in the world of books a life of imagination, his experience is unreal; his memory is inapplicable to the world about him, or, as is said, his inferences are all wrong. . . . His senses are overlaid and he sees what he expects to see."—When mankind exhibits so constantly that characteristic we like to call, rather euphemistically, "bad judgment," need one marvel at the gentle sympathy we feel, at the quiet regard we have,
for Don Quixote de la Mancha? The knight may attack windmills with the ferocity that giants would inspire, but what one of us has not labored as wildly? And besides, is there not always a Sancho Panza to plaster our ribs, to administer comforting solace, whether they be old saws or new?

Perhaps the second part of Don Quixote abounds more generously even than the first part in wisdom and eloquence; for the round-faced Sancho has now lost something of his rusticity, but nothing of his cunning, and the dolorous knight is often in society that will elicit these qualities. The story runs more smoothly, for there are none of the interpolations that Cervantes chose to introduce into the earlier portion. The last fourteen chapters are very generally considered below the common level, but this was the result of the author’s haste and his natural resentment towards Avellaneda, whose edition, it will be remembered, had appeared the year before Cervantes’ second part was published. Cervantes very frankly wishes the other’s book may be “cast into the lowest pit of hell.” Suffice it to say that its author’s fictitious name survives today merely because he soiled the hem of Cervantes’ garment.

III

It was Byron who said “Cervantes smiled Spain’s chivalry away,” and of Don Quixote Macaulay once wrote, “It is certainly the best novel in the world, beyond all comparison.” But tributes to Cervantes’ genius have come from sources more distinct and dissimilar than Byron and Macaulay. French critics have interpreted the novel to portray the perpetual combat between heroism and generosity on the one hand, and egoism and self-interest on the other; one has seen a contrast between “l’esprit poétique et l’esprit de la prose.” Montesquieu sees in Don Quixote “the only good book Spain has produced.” “For his manner of observing and conceiving humanity in his marvelous novel,” Sainte-Beuve ranked Cervantes with Dante, with Molière, and Shakespeare. Nor have the Germans been less generous in their praise. Heine has written charmingly of his pleasure in reading the novel, both as a boy
and in maturity; and Richter's work shows that he came under the influence of Cervantes. It is in this respect that the great figures of English literature have joined to do Cervantes the most honor. For beside their praise of the novelist, they have shown their sincerity in yielding to his influence and in fashioning their own work after the master. When Fielding wrote *Joseph Andrews* to jest at Richardson's *Pamela*, its title page bore the words, "Written in Imitation of the Manner of Cervantes, Author of Don Quixote." And Parson Adams, perhaps Fielding's greatest character, offers certain aspects of the Illustrious Knight of la Mancha.

Books, as well as persons, may boast of honored pedigrees, and there are many in English literature which trace their best blood back to a Spanish fighter. Does not one find in Colonel Newcome evidence of Thackeray's devotion to the novels of Fielding, and thru him may not the heritage be traced to *Quixote*? Among Cervantes' *Exemplary Novels* were two picaresque stories, the type represented by Le Sage's *Gil Blas*, and so late a novelist as Charles Dickens gives us *Pickwick*, a modern example of the picaresque novel. Mr. Pickwick's forebears are assuredly the heroes of Tobias Smollett, who gave to English literature its best known rogue story in *Roderick Random*. And Smollett was a Cervantist of Cervantists. Such was his affection for his master that he could not rest until he had made his own translation of *Don Quixote*. Laurence Sterne has given us *Tristram Shandy*, whose prolixity is endured for the pleasure of knowing "my uncle Toby" and the Corporal Trim; these are but variations on the theme of the Knight and his squire.

From the mid-seventeenth century of John Fletcher and his *Knight of the Burning Pestle*, thru the mid-nineteenth of Dickens, the quixotic hero has thrived. If he is not pursuing some mirage or seeking adventure, still he may be riding his hobby just as Don Quixote was riding his, and just as "my uncle Toby" did when he talked spiritedly of the battle of Namur.—Indeed, is there not a savor of the Illustrious Knight in Lewis Carroll's conception of the White Knight, him who was fortified against all emergencies? Don Quixote broke his cardboard helmet in his first encounter, whereupon
he mended it carefully, reinforced it with iron, and then refrained from putting it to the test, calm in the assurance that it would sustain all onslaughts; Through The Looking Glass gives us the White Knight, no less assured of his sufficiency, no less imperturbed by his failures. The White Knight always carried a mouse-trap attached to his horse’s saddle, for then it would be ready if a mouse should ever be found in the saddle! ‘Nor can a mere tumble from his mount lessen his dignity nor distract our affection for either the White Knight or the Illustrious One. Surely, the White Knight is a lesser Knight of La Mancha.

A single generation saw Spain give the world a Don Quixote, saw England produce a Falstaff and a Hamlet. Perhaps Hamlet represents the extreme of tragedy, perhaps good Sir John is the greatest comedy figure in English literature; but certainly it is Spain’s glory that her Ingenious Knight is so gentle, so constant a blend of the two elements of humor and pathos that he may stand shoulder to shoulder with two of our mightiest literary figures.

Conrad T. Logan
SOME PRINCIPLES OF EDUCATION AND THEIR APPLICATION

At the beginning of the nineteenth century, Prussia lay prostrate before Napoleon, stripped of territory, of power, of courage. Her statesmen and philosophers then came to her rescue. One of these statesmen said, "Education alone has been overlooked. I hope to convince some Germans that nothing but education can rescue us from the miseries that overwhelm us." In Switzerland at this time, there lived a modest, kindly man, Pestalozzi, who saw the misery little children were called upon to suffer in the name of education. His great heart was moved by this sight. He began to look around him, at the child in the home, learning from his mother, at the child at play, learning from his companions. From these observations, Pestalozzi worked out a philosophy of education that has revolutionized the training of little children. To this man, Germany sent her young men to learn the art of teaching and upon his principles did she establish her elementary schools. So well was this work done that, at the close of the Franco-Prussian War, when Germany was once more a victorious nation, Bismark said, "This is the victory of the German schoolmaster."

Let us examine the principles of this man's philosophy which has had the power to effect such a change in the education of little children. These principles are few, simple, and apply directly to each phase of learning. "Teach him absolutely nothing by words that you can teach him by the things themselves; let him see for himself, hear, find out, fall, pick himself up, make mistakes; no word, in short, when action is possible." Again he says, "The chief aim of elementary instruction is not to furnish the child with knowledge and talents, but to develop and increase the powers of the mind." "To knowledge must be joined power; to what is known, the ability to turn it to account." "Teaching must follow the path of development, and not that of dogmatic exposition." "The individuality of the child must be sacred for the teacher."

The enlargement of the individuality of the child
brought out the need of freedom, of happiness, of play, and, above all, of the right appreciation of work. These are the essential principles of this great man. Madam Montessori has recently restated these same principles in a practical way which has had much influence in the primary schools.

What does the recognition of this theory of education mean to the primary grades? In the first place, the doctrine of freedom as advocated by Madam Montessori, Pestalozzi, and Dewey, has reference to both physical and mental activity. This does not, at least, accord with our general method of furnishing the schoolroom. A desk with a permanent seat, even tho it be adjusted to the size and needs of one particular child, does not afford freedom. To be physically free, a child must be able to pick up his chair and place it where he needs it. Or, it may be, that he does not care to sit on a chair, but would prefer the floor. I saw a charming group of children recently. A simple little game was introduced requiring some skill in spinning a jackstone. In a moment every one was in a position which would best help him to spin, some sitting cross-legged, some on their knees, some flat on their stomachs. There was no necessity for making them pay attention; there was no need of urging them to keep at it until finished. Even the three-year-old baby succeeded in spinning the jack before he stopped. How could this have been accomplished had the group been in a conventional schoolroom, sitting in desks?

Again, these educators urge freedom of mind. This means that the child must be permitted to find out things for himself. He must be permitted to ask questions, to investigate, to overcome difficulties, to discover the best way to do things. This does not accord with our traditional method of teaching. A teacher is one who gives information to children. The frequently heard error, "She learned me," when applied to the current conception of teaching, should not be classified as a mistake in English. The standards of parents, communities, teachers, and school officials, approve of this type of teaching and disapprove of any plan which permits the child to become the chief actor.

Montessori complains that she is unable to find
teachers who are willing to let the child alone. They want to do for him what he should do for himself. The child has had this training from his infancy. The mother dresses him, feeds him, decides with whom he shall play, tells him what to say, and many times what he thinks. When he goes to school, the teacher continues the work by telling him what to do, how to do it, and what it means. When does this child learn to become a *free American citizen*?

An entirely new course of study is advocated by these educators. The child learns to do thru doing many things—not thru listening to a teacher tell about how to do these things. This means material in the school which builds up ideas thru the activities of the child. He builds, he cares for the school room, he cares for himself, he observes carefully the common things around him. Contrast this with the traditional course of study which gives the child the symbol of things and not the things themselves, which gives him completed concepts derived from some other person’s precepts.

Recently, two principles which were thought out by these great minds have become active factors in the educational world. These are the physical care of the children and a recognition of their mental development. The demand for careful physical measurements, physical training, and of medical inspection of the schools has been the outcome of the first principle; while the various intelligence tests are helping the schools to understand the possibilities and limitations of the children they are educating.

We find that these ideas, while revolutionary in some respects, are being accepted by many schools. Medical inspection is now a part of the school work in cities, all over the United States, including most of the cities of Virginia. Frequently a school nurse is a part of the teaching staff. There are many attempts to modify the course of study to fit the needs of the children in that particular locality, there are experimental schools which are putting into effect all the principles discussed above. But our problem is to see how the work of the primary grades in the city and town schools of Virginia measures according to these standards, and where and why they are “short.”
The deficiencies of the schools of Virginia do not come from the lack of right standards on the part of the administrative officers; but from, first, the lack of funds; second, the lack of intelligent support on the part of the public. The results are seen in several ways. All over the State we find overcrowded school rooms. A city superintendent recently made the statement, "The average school in Virginia consists of forty-five children." The various reports of city superintendents show an average of about the same number in each room. More than this, the reports and inspection of actual conditions show that the children in the primary grades come in sections, one group attending school for a few hours in the morning, and the other section attending for a few hours in the afternoon. This means that these children have scarcely half of the work in school to which they are entitled. The same teacher is used for both groups. In adjusting herself to two different groups of children, she has used unnecessary energy. Fatigue results, and the children who are in the afternoon group do not get the same type of work from this teacher as does the morning group.

Even thirty-five children in the first grade room would make it impossible to secure the kind of freedom that was advocated by Pestalozzi. That number of children in a room for so few hours with a course of study to be covered must be accommodated in chairs placed in rows. The child must learn to sit in his desk, quite inactive, while all of his nature demands activity. When the child really becomes adjusted to this artificial condition, that active, questioning, investigating attitude of mind has been replaced by what might be called the school attitude, which is characterized by mental passivity.

Altho it is impossible to seat this large group of children in movable chairs at small tables, yet it is possible to have a better type of desk than is frequently found in our schools. There are several kinds of adjustable single desks and of chairs having a tablet desk, which are suited to the needs of the individual child. Yet in many of the modern schools, in cities of some size, one can find the old double desk. These desks are unhygienic and restrictive to the child.

From the point of hygiene, forty-five children are
too many for the average schoolroom. Few ventilating systems are effective or properly regulated. Teachers do not seem to be very sensitive to impure air or the right temperature of the schoolroom. The health of the child is menaced by such conditions. The mind of the child is benumbed by the impure air. This is an added difficulty which the child has to combat in his search for knowledge.

Our courses of study are arranged for the child who is normal in all respects and who has the special mental aptitude for gaining knowledge out of books. This course of study ignores two important principles which have been discussed: viz., knowledge is gained, not from contact with symbols, but thru dealing with things; and, all children are not of equal mental status. The child who is born "short" in ability to get ideas from symbols has no chance to secure an education from this course of study. Some of our cities and towns are giving work in manual training, domestic science, and art, and a little physical training. But most of this work begins in the sixth grade. The majority of these atypical children have dropped out of school before reaching this grade, because of discouragement or general lack of fitness for the school system. Our schools need to provide a distinct course of study for this large number of children who cannot succeed under the present system. More than this, the schools need to have some means of quickly discovering, thru a system of tests, those children who are unable to do the regular work of the school, because of mental incapacity. This would make it possible to use their intelligence to its utmost.

The statistics upon retardation furnished by the school authorities are in most cases misleading. In every school there are a number of children who barely pass, or who are promoted because of overcrowded conditions or because they have remained in the grade several years. These children are truly atypical. They are getting the barest amount from the course of study. They are absorbing the energies and time of the teacher with a minimum of results. This time is taken away from those children for whom the school as it now exists was made. Therefore, we have a second condition; few children of average ability or above average ability ever
advance to the extent to which they are capable. They are not having the chance that the state should give them, because of the presence in the same class of those so much below their intellectual level.

Madam Montessorri complains of improperly trained teachers. Teaching is not comparable to a factory, where each one is able to learn a mechanical process which never varies. The human factor, children, which enters into the teaching process, is most variable. There is no patent method which would turn out every child alike, should we consider such a plan desirable. Yet we are placing in our schoolrooms teachers who can do little more than follow some narrow mechanical method. One way to raise the quality of teachers is, of course, to increase the salaries. This would mean healthier teachers, because they would not have to practice such rigid economy in order to live; better prepared and more efficient teachers, because of more time and money to spend on their professional improvement.

But the greatest need is some means for educating the average layman. The narrowness and conservatism of the school patrons are the greatest drawbacks to our schools. These people need to broaden their definition of education. They need to study the advancement in the science of education. They have abandoned the old-type farming implements, they use the latest inventions in their homes, their stores, their factories, but they are demanding that their children’s education shall follow the type given to their great-grandfathers.

Let them see the value of play, the value of gardening, the need of the best textbooks rather than the cheapest, the advantage of having the best prepared teachers, the vitality of the newer methods of teaching, and the difference in the abilities of their children which demands a different course of study. Then shall we find carried out in our school the broad principles of education which were first conceived by Pestalozzi and which have been developed and vitalized by Dewey and Montessorri.

Rachel Elizabeth Gregg
A PRAYER FOR THE NEW YEAR

Benjamin F. Wilson

We thank Thee, Our Father, for the year past and gone; for all the blessings we have received, and for any we may have bestowed. Forgive us for any thoughtless or wilful perversion of Thy goodness; let the joy and strength be ours, in the wise use of Thy mercies, during the coming year.

We thank Thee for minds that can be disciplined into truth and thoughtfulness; hearts into sympathy and tenderness; wills into beautiful, unselfish service. We thank Thee for the friends and influences that have helped us to larger thought and more kindly judgment, to gracious hearts, to any service of love.

Help us, in the year before us,—with its life un-lived, its love unloved, its duties undone—to show cheerful faces, to keep hopeful spirits; let our hope be a joy to us, our love think no evil, treasure no wrongs. Make us more thoughtless of how much others love us, and more thoughtful of how much we love them; so may we laugh often and love much; and let good-will and courtesy abound with industry.

Grant us to see clearly, to decide wisely, to act justly, to walk with Thee in holiness of spirit. Guide us, that we may find in our work and ways many beautiful things, lovely thoughts, winsome comrades; and may our friends be Thy friends. Help us to look for the best in others, and give them of our best; to deserve and win the esteem of sincere people; the loyalty of friends; the love of children; the joy of helpfulness.

In all our duties and relationships may we be sincere and simple, considerate and faithful. Grant us contentment even in our weariness, and bring us to the close of the year undishonored and full of the joy of loving kindness. We ask this in His name thru whom comes all our help.—Amen.
A DEPARTMENT OF BIOGRAPHICAL LITERATURE

A considerable share of the public’s indifference toward educational conditions, of which we at times feel constrained to complain, and, to a much larger extent, their openly expressed contempt and disapproval, may be ascribed with some certainty to the confused state of opinion relative to the subject-matter of the courses. As to what knowledge is of most worth, we seem to be in little better agreement than when Spencer essayed to settle the matter for us. We determine the question for ourselves and those dependent upon us for a solution by consulting our own tastes and aptitudes. The inability on the part of school authorities to come to some understanding and to recognize rational standards thus leaves the curriculum to be shaped by individual preference. The ideas embodied, therefore, in the course of study in different institutions are, very naturally, of the kind gained chiefly by academic association, and are smugly perpetuated as the accumulated wisdom of the ages. We have, consequently, as it pertains to the material, come into possession of an educational creed, originally constructed, it may be, to meet far different conditions, but reverenced, as the beliefs in other departments of life, largely because of its antiquity.

Even in so intimate a concern as the relation of life and literature we have been notably prone to accept the standards and traditions of other ages. Precedent and custom have been the controlling forces in our interpretation of our relation to the men, manners, and institutions about us, as well as before us; we have acquiesced, in matters literary, in the adoption of the Confucian maxim of education, virtually agreeing that the best we can hope to do is to imitate successfully the best that others have done. With the opinions of the ancients thus having for us almost the force of moral obligation, we have allowed ourselves to fall into the habit of looking with suspicion on all innovation and requiring the mark of time as the only necessary stamp of genuineness.

Extensive educational use of literature as an inde-
pendent branch of study is by no means of long stand-
ing, yet the treatment of the material the subject offers
follows conventional methods, and there is little appa-
rent effort to see any phase of the matter, particularly
in definition and classification, in a new perspective.
Though literature is confessedly organic rather than
mechanic, we are led to believe that we can determine
the results according to a definite formula; and that,
while literature is the expression of the human spirit, it
can be judged solely by the laws of logic. Too many of
our current critical views, however, come to us, it might
be recalled, from unspiritual and, in the modern sense,
somewhat unliterary ages. As the absurdity of defini-
tion without considering literature in some sense a
record or criticism of life readily becomes evident, so too
the classification and distribution into certain groups
and types, as handed down to us from narrower views
of literature, can no longer satisfy the modern philo-
sophical attitude toward either life or its record.

Now, the professed aim of the typical university
course in pure literature is to supply inspirational and
educative values;—to give indeed a vital fund of knowl-
edge, but, more especially, to develop in unstinted meas-
ure a power that enriches for time and eternity and an ef-
ciency that will enable the individual to make no uncer-
tain success of the one chance that is given him to make
a life worth the living. While the ideal is being realized
better today than ever before, as a result of the change
of front in educational matters in general in recent
years, yet it is idle to argue the question as to whether
the movement for the humanization of university train-
ing has realized the wished-for goal. It has succeeded,
it is true, in doing away with much lifeless knowledge
and soulless method; but there are many time-honored,
tho useless, customs retained because of the cher-
ished atmosphere that lingers about old things. There
is, for illustration, no lack of instruction in the technique
of literature; there is, too, an abundance of linguistic
study, often of a very superior kind; and institutional
and political history receive their share of attention.
Language study, however, gains most of its value as a
means of bringing about a finer appreciation of litera-
ture or as a medium of literary expression; an under-
standing of the laws and principles of technical development enables us to get at the life incarnate in books; and history is worth while just in so far as we are aided in securing a truer sympathy and a better appreciation of our present human relations.

It is possible, indeed, to reach a higher vantage ground than that furnished by language, matters of technique, and facts and figures chronologically arranged; it is, as a rule, within the endeavor of the student of the masterpiece of literature, not only to put flesh on the dry bones of facts, but to come into touch with the fountain-head whence sprang "the twofold logos, the thought and the word," and there catch a glimpse of the individual and his work, in thought or action, as a unified whole. The product, literary or otherwise, may be examined in the light of a sequence, and its rank and value determined with scientific precision. It is, in short, in the material that biography offers that we find, not only the incentive to a correct approach to the great works of literature and the triumphs of history, but the cue to their full understanding; for, truly, only in so far as we can see and know a work of literature from the creative point of view or a diplomatic stroke in the making, can we believe that we have a wholly intelligent appreciation of it or think that we can ever correctly estimate its importance. To neglect, therefore, to give due weight to biography as an element in the proper interpretation of the literary masterpiece or the historic epoch is to lay a foundation for that obliqueness of opinion which constitutes the curse of modern criticism.

That biography has claims infinitely more important than as an aid to the understanding of the usual types of literary productions and as the material out of which history is made, stands in need of some emphasis. As an occasional means of throwing light on some special topic in both history and literature, biography has long been resorted to; but the biography thus used, whatever possibilities it may have had in itself, has been put hitherto only to the subordinate use of throwing light on a point within the range of other subjects. That, on the other hand, biography should be made the center of attention, and that the other subjects commonly associated with it, from their logical relationship, would gain
in value—and particularly in human value—if properly correlated with this natural center, is a suggestion towards a more satisfactory classification of literature that deserves more general recognition. We have come, in brief, to the realization that biography should be treated as a distinct department of literature, with its own material and its own problems; and we believe it will prove itself to be the "Open Sesame" that will unlock the riches of both history and literature far more effectually than has been done thru any other means.

The cardinal defect in the presentation of the humanities has doubtless always been, by a sort of paradox, a sufficiently full realization of the meaning of rich human experience. It is the giving, however, in correct measure, of this more abundant life that will determine to what extent the schools of the future are to influence men and women in their daily relations. Literature teaching, even now, is gaged, not from an informational standpoint, but by the test of whether the emphasis is laid upon the fact that these masterpieces used in the class room represent the record of living human beings,—of men and women who have seen, thought, and felt, and who have been able to record their impressions in an artistic and permanent form. The history teaching, furthermore, must stress the all-important point, that it is a record of what man has done; while language must be treated as the medium of human expression. The supreme question becomes, in brief: Is any consideration allowed to becloud the fundamental conception that all these things are of value so far, and only so far, as they bear upon human happiness and human welfare and advancement?

It is for the reason that the vital element of letters has been, to no small degree, lost sight of, that the importance of closer attention to the comparative value of biography as an immediate means of reaching the aims of both history and literature may well be stressed. Tho not to be considered a substitute for either study in itself, biography contains the essential characteristics of each,—the prime features, indeed, for which both are given such liberal attention in the curriculum,—and their educational purpose may best be attained thru the aid of biography as a separate and com-
plete subject of study. It would seem, therefore, that only neglect and the want of properly organized material can account for the failure to present this subject as of coequal value with any form of history or pure literature, as now loosely defined and classified.

When the claims of biography to a separate treatment are recognized as sound, a mass of confusing and confused ideas relating to the boundaries of types vanishes. The changed aspect of the whole body of literature, as viewed from this new angle, suggests many helpful reclassifications. The long-felt need for a clearer discrimination of history, literature, and biography is satisfied; and definite limits for each are set up. The larger place thus naturally given to biography in the treatment of all forms of literature brings about the recognition of the pivotal position of biography with respect to literature in general. A right proportion of the reading and study material of the schools will, as a sequence, consist of the world's best biographies; and letters will have for the student more than a mere esthetic interest and value.

Not alone pure literature, but history, too, would be the gainer by introducing into the course of study more of biographical reading; clearer notions would result from special historical "studies"; and a right point of view would be had for a just and fair interpretation of the thoughts and the acts of an individual or a nation. For, in the general acceptation of the term, history is the record of what man has done; and in most cases history is the recital of events in which some individual stands out prominently, if not pre-eminently. The custom, in fact, is a rather old one, of naming periods of history, of whatever sort, from the dominant personality that gave unity to the events of the age or century. Hence, we speak of "The Age of Pericles", "The Days of Cicero", "The Period of Elizabeth", or "The Napoleonic Era", giving in this way complete recognition of the tremendous influence of the individual in the development of nations. To give, therefore, the proper valuation to history, that of a generalization of biography, would be to humanize the subject and to direct attention to it as something apart from the written page.

Biography thus not only makes clear the meaning
of history and literature, but unifies them and shows them to be the expression of two phases of man's complex being,—a stressing, on the one hand, of his activities, a recording, on the other, of the best that has been thought by him. The introduction of biography into the universities as a systemized study would give to history and literature the "human interest value" that is so urgent in all that is to have even a small share of the public attention in these days.

Want of definite classification is the first objection we usually meet as an insurmountable difficulty in the way of a treatment of the subject of biography as a distinct department of literature. The insufficiency of the disposal of this type of writing under the head of history is felt as quite unsatisfactory, and requires, when it is so treated, too many modifying terms; yet there is no department of pure literature under which it seems properly to fall, that will make the case any better. The present identification with history is, in fact, universally regarded as a makeshift; a very large proportion of the most important biographies, indeed, defy such a grouping, unless we greatly extend the meaning of the term, history. What, for instance, has Johnson's *Life of Savage* to do with history? Would one get a complete, well-rounded notion of the more important national events of the period from even the most careful reading of Tennyson's *Memoirs*? As source material for history, this identification of history and biography may not be so wide of the mark; but, as a commonly accepted notion, the events of the life of the individual, whether recorded or not, are source material for history. The truth of the situation is simply that we have been trying to subordinate that which is by nature co-ordinate—we have been putting under some form of history or literature that which only at times is directly connected with either, but which usually stands apart as clearly as literature does from political history. It is necessary for us to modify our ideas and definitions of history, or redistribute the material that has been passing under that head. The term, as at present used, is too broad to accomplish the purpose of classification.

In any effort to establish the basis of a sound critical theory, moreover, it is essential that we take into
consideration the biographical trend of most modern literature. I need to cite only the most familiar example of the modern novel. As distinguished from the older type of romance, the story of today lays the emphasis on the character element rather than on the plot, on the "who is concerned", instead of the "what happens". The growing appreciation of the character content of writing gages quite accurately, not only what the literary historians call "individualism", but more especially, in that individualism, the paramount value placed on human character, whether it be in life or in the book. The "criticism of life" notion of literature, therefore, is particularly applicable to that kind of writing which gives the story of a life.

Notwithstanding, however, that the whole bent of literature is toward the emphasis of character-values,—has been, in reality, keeping pace very naturally with the great movements of modern times in hastening the individualistic tendency of all departments of life,—yet there is an unaccountable neglect in our schools to give any real instruction in that phase of modern literature which comes nearest to being the real exponent of the times. If the unmistakable drift of literature is allowed to supply the cue for the teaching of this subject, there will be, not only a large gain to belles lettres, but an addition of incalculable value to the material and the spirit of all true literary study; and literature will be understood to be in a much broader sense an appreciation of life.

There is, despite the little attention given it in our literature teaching, certainly no lack of public interest in this form of writing; and there doubtless would be greatly increased interest and enthusiasm, if there were in the minds of readers some standards by which to judge this as a distinct form of expression. The extensive special lists prepared by alert librarians, prominence in book reviews, and recommended readings, for classroom purposes and otherwise, go to show that the world's best biographies are not neglected by the general reader; but, in most cases, it is the drawing force of the human story, rather than the fascination of getting an intelligent estimate of the thing that inspires to great effort and broadens the human horizon. Truth
Biographical Literature

is stranger than fiction,—and a vast deal more interesting to one who has gained the education of sympathy, the fellow-feeling that enables us to realize the all-important fact that Carlyle thought to be the desideratum in the biographies of Burns, the man's relationship to the society about him, and the relationship of that society to the man.

That there is in the separate treatment asked for biographical literature material enough, problems enough, and probable results enough, to make the undertaking a rational one, can be established by merely a suggestive survey of a few of the more prominent features of the possible department. The body of writings that may best bear the stamp of biographical literature offers, upon even a hasty glance, as rich a field for the student of letters as any department of human expression; and, in modern cultural values, gives a more fruitful return, as university work, than does the department of dramatic literature, or even the department of poetry. How does the material in these departments, for instance, compare with biographical literature in the breadth of its appeal, in vitalizing topics, and in whatever elements may go to justify the pursuit of any other kind of literary study? Would not the work in this department of biography, in truth, carry with it educational importance, such as, compared with a large number of the usual courses in literature, would make them appear barren of relationship to the life about us?

What a splendid field, replete with the charm of the literature of the real, would be opened up in an actual course of college work, with such possible topics forming the nucleus as (a) biographies, of all ages and countries, (b) autobiographies, of a like range, (c) the diarists, who kept records of their own times, as well as of their private lives, (d) memoir-writers, who recorded for historical purposes, with more or less amplitude, the public events in which they had a share, (e) the essayists who mingled autobiography with their reflections on special subjects, (f) the biographical essay, as a distinctive product, (g) the letter-writers, who in their familiar epistles give us glimpses of famous people, as well as of their own lives, (h) collections of brief biographies, illustrating periods of history or the history.
of special subjects, (i) travels, that have become the accepted means of extending geographical knowledge, (j) confessions, that have added definiteness to the inner history of many a brilliant period of a nation’s development, (k) biographical poetry, that is at times the most intimate revelation of the thoughts, feelings, and aspirations of individuals, as well as nations, and even (l) the curiosities of biography, as richly represented as other fields of literature! Would this not, in reality, help to exalt literature to its rightful position as the prime factor in the education of man?

Problems of profound literary interest would present themselves in such phases of the subject as (a) the relationship of biography to history and literature as a whole, (b) an historical view of biographical literature, (c) a satisfactory classification and subdivision of the different forms of the literature under this department, (d) the technique of biography, as a whole and of special types, (e) the biographer, both as to what he is and what he should be, and (f) the ethics of biographical writing. The proper handling of this material under departmental treatment would, obviously enough, give much of the best that any phase of the subject of literature could offer. Its closeness to life keeps it in perfect accord with the dominant note of the educational value of literatery study; and thru a proper organization of the material of biography may be secured, in a wholesome and direct way, the vitalization of the customary way of dealing with history and pure literature.

To one who has not been accustomed to thinking of biographical literature as a complete type of expression, it will come as a surprise to realize the vast wealth of the world’s best books that unmistakably belong to this separate and definitive group. As suggestive types, might be mentioned, pretty much at random, the following representatives of this department of human records: Boswell’s ‘Life’ of Johnson, Plutarch’s Parallel ‘Lives’, Gibbon’s Autobiography, Cellini’s Memoirs, Carlyle’s ‘Essay’ on Burns, Rousseau’s Confessions, Amiel’s ‘Journal’ in Time, Newman’s ‘Apologia’ Pro Vita Sua, Barrie’s ‘Portrait’ of his mother in Margaret Ogilvy, Madame de Sevigni’s Letters, The ‘Travels’ of Marco Polo, Pepys’s Diary, Piozzi’s ‘Anecdotes’ of

A world of literature is hinted at here; yet, no apparent effort has been made at any time to discover in such a group of biographies anything of a distinguishing character, either in literary methods or in materials. It was all once labeled “personal history”, and as such we have been accustomed to accept it without question. Is it not, however, quite as accurate to define all speeches as “intellectual history”, or lyric poetry as “emotional history”? The thing is too complex, in fact, to be disposed of in any such a makeshift way. It does of course meet opposition by those who feel that history and polite literature would be the poorer by giving biography a separate treatment; but sufficient compensation may be had in the thought that literary culture would be infinitely the richer. At any rate, would it not be a worthy contribution to literary criticism to treat this material in such a way as would enable the general reader to see it in the same perspective and in the same detail as it is given him to see the drama?

Histories of fiction, of special departments of poetry, of the drama, and so on, are quite common, and what every one expects. Why, then, should we not have a complete account of biographical literature, whether it be of all countries and times, or only of so much as may belong to some nation important from this standpoint? In what respect is the history of pastoral poetry a benefit to the student of literature that would not be exceeded by a satisfactory account of the art of life-writing? There is undeniably a wider appeal in the story of man’s views thru time of his life and that of others in relation to his contemporaries and posterity, than there can naturally be in the development of any special form of poetry. Yet, we have histories of poetry, as a whole and in its various subdivisions, but no one has thought it worth the while to give the record of man’s attitude on the most puzzling problem, of how best to present the picture of a human life to others.
No inconsiderable aim, therefore, of the treatment of biography as a department of literature would be the tracing out of the biographic "idea", in all its manifestations, in all its varied forms, its different methods of dealing with its material, and the continuous evoking of new spirit, from its original in the mythologies of all nations to its most recent mode of presentation. It would be worth while, for instance, to summarize the views of scholars as to the relation of the Egyptian "Book of the Dead" to the life of those ancient people. It might amount to revelation to many to see the new light the presentation of the writings of the ancient Hebrews will shed upon the meaning of the Book of Books, when they have, in many instances, been dealt with as specimens of biographic art. Notions of biography writing as we approach the Christian Era, become increasingly definite; tho cultivated to only a limited extent among the Greeks, yet in Tacitus, Suetonius, Nepos, Curtius, Cicero, and Pliny, we have a clearly developed form of biography not far from the modern mark. There is quite naturally here, as in the life of the Romans themselves, a reflection of the increasing importance of the individual and his interests. In this fact, upon which more and more emphasis is laid as the centuries pass, we find the growing impulse that has developed the literature of biography.

To the historian of biographical literature all the conditions and natural sequences of the development of a literary type are presented in its evolution. The \textit{curriculum vitae} of the ancients can be seen to become a little freer in the lives of the saints and martyrs; and in the ever-growing complexity of its kind we observe a simple form of confessional literature take its rise in the period of Augustine and reach its climax considerably later in Rousseau's \textit{Confessions}. Then, constantly renewed efforts to give expression to the same life-recording impulse follow in rapid succession; the diarists have their day, and make way for the memoir writers and autobiographers; the letter writers and critical biographers swell the tide of publications of biographic interest; with Macaulay the biographical essay has its beginning; then, brief biographies, from which has sprung the idea of the biographical diction-
ary, lay claim to be, in the modern reader’s affection, rivals of the short story; and, finally, poetry of a distinctly biographic interest has dispossessed from the popular mind the once absorbingly attractive narrative form. The historian of this type of literature has material, indeed, that is as rich as life itself and as attractive as art can make it.

If, again, the principles involved in the technical development of biographical writing could be simply and carefully stated, the readers of biography would be put under no little obligation. There is, in fact, no other department of literature in which the public has so little share of the “inner view”; and while no other writings cause so much discussion as to questions of method, there is practically no way at present by which the reading public can get at any set of established notions governing the handling of this sort of literary production. As the matter stands, each biographer decides in his special case upon a model which appeals to him and then makes free to introduce what modifications he thinks expedient; the only feeling of responsibility, usually, is to the chronological order of events.

The ancient biographer, it is true, confined himself to a bare statement of the events of the individual’s life, and, usually, to those events which, in the opinion of the biographer, of a right belonged to the public. The historical idea has always been a more or less prominent method of development, such as is admirably represented in Froude’s Caesar. Sketches similar to this, however excellent in many respects, are to be sharply distinguished from pure biography; the latter, while it is true to the best interests of biographic writing, is not such a painstaking representation of the “what”, nor is it a studied offering of the cause and effect in an individual’s life. A real biography is much more than a handbook to the life of a great man; it answers affirmatively the question: “Is this the man as he lived among his fellow-beings?” In fact, as to all details of technique, the final determining principle must be, that “truth cannot be contrary to the real interests of humanity”. If, therefore, telling what is characteristic, personal, unique, habitual, in the life of the individual, can
conflicts with the truth, then, and then only, should these elements be omitted from any biography that purports to be complete.

As inborn, deep-rooted love of gossip accounts for the world’s estimation of a good biography as reading material, it is plain enough that the biographies that give us full gratification are those that make as complete a disclosure as possible of the temperament, opinions, personal habits, oddities, prejudices, indiscretions, vices, weaknesses, and foibles of the subject. These things are what make a biography readable, and therefore a success. This receives its evidence in an admirable way in Boswell’s Life of Johnson. It is egotism, in short, that constitutes a considerable share of the right material for biography.

Here, quite likely, we are entering upon debatable ground; but we must at least decide in each biographic undertaking as to whose rights are most sacred, those of the living or those of the dead. It is at this point that the reader of biography is due, thru some authoritative recognition, such as a chair of biography could establish, a set of definitely stated principles as to limits in the use of biographic material. It is not easy for the uninitiated to appreciate the many directions the subject-matter for a biography may be made to take; perversions are as easy here as they are in the photographic art. We find ourselves, possibly, interested in a work purporting to be the life of a celebrated individual; we read but a short way, when we are made to realize that it was written to illustrate a theory. We take up another supposed biography, but are soon struck with the fact that we are reading only a magnified epitaph or an extended tract. The biographic thread is made the excuse for subtly putting before the public some pet plan for universal redemption from some great curse or other; and the scores of interesting incidents, conditions, and situations in a man’s life are made subordinate to an imagined golden thread that supports the biographer’s contention.

While it is not at all a finally established point that some suppression, some compromising, may not at times be of advantage in an undertaking of a biographic nature, yet the general public is very probably right in
resenting the wholesale suppression of material that has real and legitimate interest for every one. We may be confident that such matter ought to be put before the public, when it forms a real element in the life of the subject; but as we have always left the biographer perfectly free to follow his own devices in this and practically all other matters concerning this species of writing, we are not accustomed to thinking of rights on the side of the reader. Tennyson’s Memoirs certainly does credit to his son, as a filial undertaking; but it is assuredly not a satisfactory biography of Tennyson. It is doubtless a very good picture of Tennyson, the artist, as his nearest and dearest friends knew him; but it is so obviously written to idealize the poet, that we cannot help feeling disappointed with it as a biography of Tennyson, the man. On the simplest possible principle, the conscientious biographer should lose all thought of making a book. With perfect freedom from bias, and without a trace of the spirit of extenuation or malice, he should pursue his work with a clearly defined sense of duty, not alone to his subject, but quite as truly to the public for whom the book is intended. There is no more reason for deceit and fraudulency here than there is for it elsewhere in life. Even when writing of those closely related to us, it is possible to let a clearly defined sense of obligation to our readers control us, as is evidenced in Max Mueller’s life of his father. He has given us a calm and dispassionate view of the man, as free from leanings as is looked for even from an outsider.

Still, it seems at times that the most obvious purpose of a biography is as an outlet for the animosity that stirs in the heart of the author. Such a work is the Duc de Saint-Simon’s portrait of Louis XIV.; as, indeed, is also Purcell’s Life of Cardinal Manning, hopelessly alienated from the truth. Edwin’s editing of Pope, for this reason, is a rank literary sin and blunder. To keep within a reasonable and just mean, we would urge Othello’s injunction to Ludivico and Mantano:

"When you shall these unlucky tales relate,
Speak of me as I am; nothing extenuate,
Nor set down aught in malice."

Evil is, however, so mixed with good in all strong
personalities that it should be given its fair place in the biographer’s portraiture; and while we do not choose the evil course with a realization that it is not the best for us, yet our mistakes are large influences in our lives and form an important element in our views of life, as well as of our accomplishments; the over-trite saying, “that the best of men are but men at best”, can never have a more important bearing than upon the biographer’s work. A portrait, moreover, would hardly be a picture with the shadows left out. Suetonius gave us a model in his representations of the Caesars; in his pages they are shown with the same freedom with which they lived.

The attempt to whitewash his subject should be recognized universally as sufficient to condemn any biographer. He most assuredly mistakes his office who thinks his attitude toward his subject is that of a lawyer towards his client. “De mortuis nihil nisi bonum” may be a very good precept for those who have no obligation to fulful with respect to what is said of the dead; it can, however, never be a motto of a real biographer. A like danger besets the autobiographer; posing before his ‘audience’ is almost irresistible. When the pose is discovered, however, the pendulum is quite apt to swing to the other extreme from admiration and interest. It is indeed high time that we have an appropriate cataloging of biographic myths, common place and bad biographies, that we might have less confusion in the public mind as to the true object and right sphere of biographical writings of all kinds.

The effects of a systematic study of biography, under the principles that control departmental teaching, would doubtless be extensive and lasting. It would tend to bring life and literature into more obvious relations, and would furnish the key to a better appreciation of each. If there is, indeed, any department of learning that stands in need of definition, of clearer standards, and of more safeguards for the protection of both subjects and the reading public, it would be difficult to establish its claims above those of biography. A department of biographical literature would very soon, it is believed, justify itself in the tremendous aid it would bring to its more closely allied departments of history
and pure literature thru the emphasis of the human relation of the material which these last make use of. Vitalizing the pursuit of letters is, in reality, the chief means we have of broadening the culture we can get from contact with things; and this is possible only thru the use of subject-matter that will permit a more modern viewpoint than that furnished by the associations of the methods and materials of the older humanists.

JAMES C. JOHNSTON

THE OLD, OLD SONG

RUTH R. CONN

A singer there was, with a golden note,  
And the words of an old, old song,  
With a laughing lilt, and a careless sway;  
And under my window, at close of day,  
He sang, as he passed along.

It rose to my window, and drifted in,  
A melody haunting, sweet;  
Till suddenly I at my work was aware  
That something was filling and thrilling the air,  
With a music my heart would repeat.

The singer was gone. But he passed a child,  
A fair little, dear little, dimpled thing,  
Who caught the music, and down the street,  
She danced the time with her baby feet.  
I smiled as I heard her sing.

The shadows deepened. A man of toil  
Came out of the restless throng;  
Came with a hearty swinging pace,  
And the light of cheer on the furrowed face,  
Humming the old, old song.

I know not the singer; the song was sweet  
As the breath of a rose in June;  
And oft at a crossing, it helps me still  
To keep my road with a steady will,  
That magical old, old tune.
It was but a few years ago that the way to a recognition and fostering of Bible study on the part of American institutions of public instruction seemed hopelessly blocked. From the primary schools to the state universities the doors were closed to the Bible; it was neither taught in the schools nor accredited when studied elsewhere. Friends of the book hardly ventured to do more than strive to get a few choice passages from it into the readers or labor to have a chapter read at the opening exercises of the schools. Legislatures obstructed it, secularists opposed it, even churches thought to serve the interests of denominational schools and colleges by keeping a monopoly on biblical instruction and denouncing public institutions as godless.

A great change in attitude has come about. To those acquainted with nothing but the developments of recent years, the change seems revolutionary, and might well raise the question of how permanent or valuable it can prove. But those who have been in touch with the problem for the past quarter century know that it has been an evolution, and they have confidence that the years’ slow-bought gain will be enduring. A chief factor in the change has been the rediscovery of the Bible as a book of history and literature. That has been the contribution of specialists in great universities. They have enabled all to see that the book is no mere treasury of proof texts, or magical formulas for use in theological battles and for warding off ‘lightning and tempest, plague, pestilence and famine, battle and murder, and sudden death.’ As a book that grew out of life and ministered to life, it is now known to have living interest, the religious value of which is all the more potent because enshrined in immortal literature. Another factor has been interdenominational organizations that have drawn into Bible study groups and classes young men and women who have discovered that it is possible to go thru the book in company with adherents of all creeds and sects and yet find no occasion for sectarian strife. That has been the contribution primarily of the Young Men’s and Young Women’s Christian Associations. In cities, schools, and
colleges they began such classes years ago, and passing from the haphazard ways of the times, gradually built up a series of textbooks and a method of procedure that swelled the numbers in their classes to tens of thousands yearly. No doubt the lack of competent teachers, and the absence of credits and other school incentives to regularity of attendance and thoroughness of study made the movement more productive of impressive statistics than of substantial knowledge of the Bible. Nevertheless there must now be hundreds of thousands of people in America who learned in such classes that the Bible has vivid interest for others besides little children and aged saints, and that it is possible to study it in interdenominational groups with no sinister effort to proselytize from one church to another, and with no danger of sectarian debate.

Yet another factor has been broad, spirited fostering of Bible teaching on the part of individual denominations. Such has been the work done in universities like Yale, Harvard, and Chicago; institutions founded by or for particular religious bodies, and yet welcoming students of any faith, and teaching the Bible in a scientific way free from all partisan bias. No doubt a similar work has been done in scores of less conspicuous church institutions. Even more notable has been the attempt of certain denominational organizations to do unsectarian Bible teaching for the benefit of students in state universities. Most prominent of such experiments was that begun about twenty-five years ago in connection with the University of Michigan by a denominational society, the Christian Woman's Board of Missions of Indianapolis. It later opened like work at the universities of Virginia, Kansas, and Texas. Its plan was to support at each point a capable man who would organize among the students as many Bible study groups and lecture classes as possible. There was hope that the universities might give credit for the classes and so encourage thorough work, —failing that, the classes would meet once a week and receive what could be imparted by an hour's lecture study. For a church organization, whose main task was to nourish home and foreign missionary activities of a purely denominational sort, to be able to raise thousands of dollars for such unselfish work was very remarkable and deserves to be chronicled. With the later develop-
ment of denominational guild houses, student pastors, and the general activities of university churches, it was inevitable that the students would receive their Bible teaching from their own church worker, and the older work become, willy-nilly, identified in the popular judgment, if not in fact, with the particular denomination that supported it. But the work is still maintained at Michigan, Kansas, and Texas. At Virginia a yet more remarkable demonstration of devotion to the Bible rather than to sectarianism was given six years ago when the Christian Woman's Board of Missions set aside $50,000 to be held in trust as a perpetual endowment of a Chair of Biblical History and Literature whose professor was to be appointed by the Board of Visitors of the University regardless of denominational affiliation, it being expressly decreed "that its teaching and class instruction shall never, in any wise, be sectarian or denominational in character." Anything of that kind was sure to add to the accumulating evidence that the Bible is not necessarily a sectarian book.

The last factor to be mentioned here in producing the new attitude of the public towards the Bible has been the modern reconstruction of the Sunday school. Perhaps it would seem that the Sunday school should be regarded as the first factor, since it has existed for nearly two centuries as a school of religious instruction. But it did not begin primarily as a Bible teaching agency, and until recently both its defects and its excellencies tended to foster the error that the Bible is not to be studied and dealt with like any other book. Bible study was subordinated to other important interests of religion, and yet the regular weekly Scripture lesson was prominent enough to make the pupils think they were present primarily to study the Bible. With many classes crowded into one noisy room, with a hit-and-miss skipping from one fragment of the Bible to another, with teachers and taught often equally dependent upon their lesson leaves, with no system of progress or promotion, with but fifteen to thirty minutes a week for class work, what wonder that little was learned, and that ever after the pupils regarded the Bible as a mysterious, uninteresting book? For such reasons the Sunday school had to wait to be influenced from without by the new spirit of historical
and literary research before it could promote serious study of the Scriptures.

At the present time, however, the Sunday school is having a potent influence, partly thru what it is doing, and partly thru its further potentialities. Such schools as have been able to modernize themselves have separate rooms for classes, use carefully graded lessons, have the service of adequately trained teachers, promote their pupils from grade to grade upon examination, and otherwise conform as nearly as may be to standards set by public schools. Many Sunday schools not yet able to follow such a program in full are progressing in that direction, and all are ultimately bound to do so. Consequently, there is more serious Bible teaching going on in the land at present than ever before, not forgetting the days when drill in the catechism and family Bible reading did something to atone for a lack of Bible study. Being an institution far more ubiquitous and numerous than either public schools or churches, it naturally commands public attention, especially when it celebrates days in the interest of its adult classes, and has thousands of men parading the streets of the chief cities of the land bearing Bible banners.

Having indirectly got its ideas of scientific Bible study from the universities, and its plans of class arrangement and conduct from the public schools, it has obtained its standards and methods of teaching from the normal schools. The present day “Teacher Training Classes”, thru which the Sunday school seeks to prepare its teachers, had to await the inspiration of modern pedagogy. Thus have secular and sacred in education met together, and Sunday school and day school saluted each other.

It is not by accident that widespread interest in academic recognition of Bible study came just a few years ago, and stands as the final stage in a long process of development. Nor is it surprising that educators, the men and women of the schools and colleges, have been the ones to formulate and put into successful operation the plans whereby such academic recognition has become accomplished fact. The recognition began at the top of the system of public instruction in the state universities, just as the modern revival of interest in the Bible began with the historical and literary methods
of studying it in universities. Altho the University of Virginia, thanks to the provision already noted above, is the only state university that has a professor devoting his entire time to Bible teaching, in a chair or department on an equality with all others in the institution, and with full credit towards all college and graduate degrees, nearly all state universities now make some provision for teaching or accrediting the Bible. Some do it in their departments of Semitics, or Hellenistic Greek; many others give courses in the department of English literature; others again provide for it along with history or philosophy. Quite a number of state universities recognize courses given by seminaries, or Bible chairs or colleges located in the university town, and no doubt would do the same for students coming from institutions elsewhere with Bible credit. Thus, either by giving Bible courses themselves, or by accrediting their students with standard courses pursued elsewhere, the highest institutions of public instruction in the states are dignifying and encouraging non-sectarian and scientific study of the Scriptures.

From such a beginning it was inevitable that high school credit would follow. It has come precisely along the two lines already laid down in the universities: namely, either by teaching the Bible as an elective subject in the schools themselves, or by giving credit towards graduation for courses successfully completed in other institutions. In one or the other of these ways the high schools are now actually fostering Bible study either in particular communities or through the state, in Colorado, North Dakota, Kansas, Indiana, Ohio, Michigan, New York, Alabama, Texas, Iowa, and Washington. Other states now known to be working towards the same goal are California, Nevada, Mississippi, Virginia, and Connecticut. Quite likely there are others. Hence it is apparent that the movement is nation-wide, extending from coast to coast and from Lakes to Gulf, including the oldest and newest states, adapting itself with equal facility to New York City and the small western town. Even more significant is its ability to enlist the co-operation of Catholics, Hebrews, and Protestants. Yet the earliest of the experiments set in operation began no longer ago than the fall of 1912 and 1913 in North
Dakota and Colorado, the former originating from the state university, the later, from the state teachers' college.

Reduced to their lowest terms, the essentials of the scheme for accrediting Bible study towards high school graduation are found in the North Dakota Plan. That, in union with the Colorado Plan, which is rather more elaborate and difficult, supplies the basis of practically all other plans now in operation. It provides that a simple syllabus of biblical history, geography, and literature shall be furnished to all high school pupils requesting it, and that whenever they shall have sufficiently mastered the work so outlined as to pass a prescribed examination upon it, they shall have a half-unit of credit towards graduation. They may study in Sunday schools, home classes, private schools, or in high schools where local conditions admit of Bible teaching in the school itself. They may use the Douay version of the Catholic Church, the King James version of most Protestant churches, or any other version church preference or private tastes may dictate. Nothing sectarian or even in controversy among different schools of critics is in the syllabus or the examination. Any teacher is free to add all he pleases of denominational tenets or critical opinion to his class instruction; that will not figure in the examination for credit. No pupil is required to take the study or examination; it is purely elective, and the half-unit credit may be obtained by taking some other elective if desired. With so free and simple a plan it is no matter of surprise that hundreds of young people are taking the examinations. The long-vexed problem of how to convey a knowledge of the Bible to the pupils of the public schools seems in a fair way to be solved.

At a Rural Life Conference in the interests of the country church held last summer in connection with the University of Virginia Summer School, the question of

1Those who desire to study these and other plans in detail will find them adequately treated in Religious Education for June and December 1915. The latter also has a very full bibliography of the subject. It is the journal of the Religious Education Association, Chicago, of whom it may be obtained for 65 cents per copy.

2Some states give from one to two units' credit.
Bible credit in public schools was considered. The schoolmen and churchmen present unanimously endorsed the plan, and passed a resolution calling upon the educational and religious organizations of the state to send similar resolutions to the Board of Education. Quite a number of such bodies have done so, and the Virginia State Teachers Association in convention at Richmond, Thanksgiving time, went upon record with the following:

Resolved, That this Association, recognizing the value of a knowledge of the Bible in any scheme of general education, and desiring that Bible teaching by the various religious agencies of the State shall be encouraged and raised to higher efficiency, recommends that the State Board of Education adopt some plan whereby the pupils of our public High Schools who shall master a prescribed course of Bible study and pass on examination upon the same, shall receive credit towards their graduation, such action by the State Board being of a character to protect the sacred principles of religious liberty, and to leave in the hands of our churches and other religious organizations the responsibility for Bible teaching.

The State Board will take up the matter at an early date, and there is every reason to believe that Virginia will soon have a workable plan for accrediting the Bible in the high schools. Already the way is open for using such credit for college entrance, since the University opened its doors to Bible teaching nearly nine years ago. Meanwhile, under a plan formulated by President J. P. McConnell, of East Radford, the State Normal there is this session giving credit for Bible courses taken in the Sunday schools. The State Normal School at Harrisonburg has modified to some extent this plan; two credits on elective work are offered, one for the work of the teacher training class at the Sunday school, and one for Bible study held during the week at the school. This is the more noteworthy as normal schools generally have been very slow to move, either in this matter or in behalf of the related subject of religious education.

Certain of the advantages of such recognition of biblical proficiency by the public schools may be briefly set forth. To some people it might seem that school credit is superfluous if the Sunday schools really equip themselves for effective teaching. But only those who have tried it realize how impossible it is to hold pupils to seri-

\[\text{That is, several years before the consummation of the permanent arrangement noted above.}\]
ous work in purely voluntary classes that lack both the constraint and the credit belonging to regular school and college classes. For instance, last year at one of the largest of state universities an exceptionally able and inspiring teacher got together two classes of young men with enrollments of 200 and 100 respectively. But the average attendance upon the weekly meetings was only 70 and 50. Had they been regular classes for university credit the attendance would have been practically the same as the enrollment, and the work done by the students probably a thousandfold greater and more lasting. That is one of the substantial gains the high schools can confer upon Sunday school and Y. M. C. A. classes. Another is the saving of the Bible from the deadening effects of long association with mere aimless talk about it, and childish ways of teaching it. So-called Bible studies, Bible lectures, and Bible classes have abounded for so many years that most pupils are divided into two groups, one of which is interested, but regards Bible knowledge as a thing to be painlessly absorbed from the profuse remarks of some one who uses a text or a biblical book as a point of departure, while the other group sees the futility of such educational expedients and shuns the Bible as a purrile thing. It will take time, but examinations for school credit will ultimately prove to both teachers and pupils that nothing but honest hard work with the Bible is worthy of it or of them.

"Teens and the Sunday school" is a statement of another problem that will have a chance to be solved. Pupils, especially boys, usually quit Sunday school when they get to high school age. With schools of the old type it was to be expected, and was really an evidence of intelligence on the part of youth. It has taken a long time and much sad experience to awaken the church to a realization of the contrast young people met in passing from day school to Sunday school. There is hope of holding the teen ages when the thoroness and credit of school classes enter the Bible classes. But if any Sunday schools despise the hope set before them, or if any of the lads scorn real study of the Bible, the plan contemplates no interference with the liberty of the churches to continue any sort of Sunday school that seems best to meet their individual needs and desires.
On the part of the high schools and colleges that will be enabled by this plan to get pupils with substantial knowledge of the Scriptures, there are decided gains. Teachers of history and literature have long lamented the abysmal ignorance of the Bible that leaves many otherwise bright pupils blankly stupid before constantly occurring reference to biblical facts and forces and phrases. New points of contact and foundations for knowledge, and new appreciations and enthusiasms may well be created by serious study of our noblest English classic and our richest repository of moral and spiritual power. And that is getting close to the greatest gain of all to arise from bringing youthful minds into living contact with the book of books,—the giving to the state of men and women of sterling character.

W. M. Forrest
SOCIALIZING THE RECITATION

The Nature of Education Among Primitive Peoples. The idea of education among primitive peoples, in aims and method, conforms somewhat to the modern conception. It implied direct preparation for life and a participation in life; at least, the life for which it prepared was not so remote. Civilization was not so complex and therefore its educational organization lacked complexity. The adjustment was more or less simple and hence there existed no occasion for a complicated system of means by which to bring the immature part of the race to a realization of the experiences and values of the past. Indeed, there was no specific institution for the transmission of the race’s possessions. The function of education was performed by the home, the father and the mother being the teachers, and the subject-matter being such experience as related to the life of the child and that life into which he was constantly coming. It was always based upon the child’s daily relations, and the time for teaching was in the evening around the fire, when the father questioned the child on the day’s happenings, emphasizing the important values of those experiences. This is the nearest approach to that phase of the educative process we now know as the recitation. This form of teaching had no highly differentiated technique. The whole educative process was centered about this simple procedure and went on in the current of the life of the child as he grew into the more mature functions of living. Such an idea of education, squares quite fully with the ideals of the educative process of today.

Another type of education less ancient than the one we have just considered is the form of teaching among the Greeks, where a more distinct kind of education worked itself out into more complex forms. As the current of human life proceeded, the activities among the people became more clearly separated and human values and aims broadened and deepened into a more highly developed civilization. So, method of procedure in all lines of life made a corresponding adjustment to these larger aims and functions. The Greeks brought the
forms of civilization to higher modes of control and with this control came a specialized form of educational procedure. The greater variations in the needs of life and the more complicated the values of life become, the more machinery necessary for social control and the more technique creeps into the activities of life. The recitation as a process comes in for its share of additional technique, until it becomes over-burdened with form and even attains a point where form and technique are so emphasized as to pass for the end or goal. The recitation form among the Greeks, because of their complicated civilization, expressed itself in a different form from the older peoples; but even here we see the subject-matter and method adjusted to the more or less direct life of the child. He was trained in the activities that more directly typified the line of life he would follow in his adult procedures. The recitation became a schedule of activities leading to skill in the operations of adult life. In the more highly intellectual period of Greek history, a distinct type of recitation developed with a new technique. The lecture form came into use as the special means of training in the higher intellectual processes. Out of this idea of education and teaching, with its fine culture aim, developed the idea of filling the mind with facts, that has persisted so long. The recitation became a clean-cut form of educational procedure according to this new idea; and so long as this ideal prevailed the recitation maintained this form and developed a very highly specialized technique to carry forward its aims and ends. A literature having arisen, a memoriter method characterized the recitation. There was a divorcing of subject-matter from its direct functioning in the life processes. A body of subject-matter developed that was remote from the direct needs of life and still more removed from the training of the natural impulses and tendencies of the child. These were left out of account almost altogether. Rousseau once said in speaking of this point, that if you want to know what is best to do first, find out what they are doing now, and then do just the opposite and you will not be far wrong. With the coming of the scientific movement the aim of education shifted somewhat and turned its course again toward the processes directly connected with life and its immediate needs. The form of the recitation again
shifted to the process of getting experiences thru experimentation and we got the laboratory method, where the educative processes became more directly connected with life. With this idea the recitation finds a new form and comes more nearly touching the social life of the child. It reaches back and builds upon the experiences of the child in a way that he naturally proceeds in making up the stuff out of which he is to do his thinking, and ultimate acting. Even under this ideal the recitation is conventional and does not conform to the modern conception of the educational process.

Present Recitational Forms. In our present educational practise the recitation has clung largely to the old ideals; and of course it has retained many of the marks of formalism that have characterized it for a century or more. The recitation in its etymological sense means "to tell" or "to say again" what has been learned. Notwithstanding the present day ideals and theories of education, much of the practise in the conduct of the recitation has followed this older conception of its function. This idea comes far short of the demands we are now making, after a more critical study of the learning process as it goes on in the child's mind. Hamilton defines the recitation as "any process or exercise by which the teacher tests or trains or by which the learner acquires knowledge, power, and skill." This is a much more inclusive conception of the term, but it still smacks strongly of the idea of someone doing something to somebody. The emphasis is obviously upon the idea of impression, with little opportunity of the pupil's reaction to the stimuli received. With this prevailing idea of the recitation, two aims have played hide and seek among present day teachers: (1) the idea that the knowledge, however necessary in the life of the child, must be given him while he is young and by hook or crook it will serve him well in his adult life, and (2) the idea that this knowledge, whether directly usable in the life processes or not, will make for mental power and skill. Here is the notion of formal discipline, which is giving so much trouble to the modern educator. It will ultimately go, however, as so many other theories of education have gone, in the process of evolving aims and means. The emphasis still remains on the teaching process rather than on the learning process. This idea of the teacher being an important
factor in the process of education shows itself in the frequent remarks of teachers, that they have made this or that individual who has had remarkable success along any line of endeavor. Children get an education, so called, in spite of teachers, more often than we know. "The child is not a jug to be filled, but a mine to be worked." It was a step forward, when we got the five formal steps as the basis of the method of the recitation. At this point we probably struck an even balance in the shift of emphasis from the teacher and subject-matter to the child as the learner. We are at present in the midst of a transition of the emphasis from the teacher and his highly specialized technique to the child and his ways of learning. Our method is now being squared with a new aim, that of social efficiency. The theories as to this new aim have been pretty well thought out and stated; and we must find a practise that will be consistent; and it is this process that is now being formulated into a method of procedure. So there has come a need for a new adjustment in both subject-matter and method.

Let us describe more definitely the recitation forms as we see them today. They vary much in different types of schools, and in different localities. First, the recitation is in some schools a group of children in a class, in a part of the room, usually in front on a special seat. This plan generally holds in the country schools, where a single teacher has a multiple of grades. It prevails in some graded schools and particularly in high schools where the teaching force and the equipment is limited. Another form is in the well graded or system of schools, where the class includes all the children in the room and each child is called upon to rise and recite. The reasons for these various forms are more or less obvious. It favors class management, brings pupils more directly under the eye of the teacher, is conducive to class interest and sympathy; they feel the warmth of nearness and it minimizes distraction. All these reasons point to the teacher as a manipulator; and this idea always carries with it a certain amount of formal technique. The following recitation practises among teachers demonstrate the highly mechanical procedure which, with some, becomes so heavy as to encumber the ultimate function of the recitation; "ready, rise, march, be seated," or "erase, write, face, explain" etc. This smacks of the
worst form of military control and is deadening and vitiating to the real learning process. The weak teacher is so apt to fall into this way of getting the school work done and then defend it under the guise of order and system. There are other aspects of formalism connected with the recitation, growing out of this superficial attitude toward the educative process, such as "individual method", "concert method", and "topical method."

The main criticism of the present day recitation procedure lies in the fact that it does not provide for natural and free expression, and reaction between the teacher and the learner. The idea of coercion, which characterizes so much of the work of the recitation, fails to bring the whole child to his work. The teacher therefore touches only a part of the child and the most wholesome results are impossible. It tends to move in narrow lines and encourages the child to be satisfied with an intensely artificial environment. The recitation often ends where it should begin; and often results in a form of stupidity rather than greater mental alertness. The recitation is a very necessary part of school room procedure, but it is often robbed of its vitalizing power when it fails to stimulate the child properly, and therefore the child's time fails to purchase its equivalent in educative results. We have thus far set up a sort of background, historical and evolutionary, for a further discussion of our problems.

In our educational thinking up to a decade or more ago, we limited the educational process to the various activities going on within the schoolroom. It included such procedures as are connected with the acquiring of experiences in the various subjects in the course of study. We are now reading a great deal more into the idea. The whole educative process includes the activities on the playground, in the street, and in the home. Educational control is reaching out into the various activities of life and seeking means for using these forces, for bringing the child into his full educational inheritance. The tendency today is for the school to take over the whole educational process. The intellectual process has always been under stronger control than the other processes. This will always be so. In this field, the recitation stands primarily as the organized form of control, the more or less marginal phases of the larger educative process are as yet under less definite control; but the ten-
dency is to organize forms of control for all the various procedures or agencies for education outside the classroom. For instance, the boy, instead of going to the old swimming hole, will now go to the swimming tank at the school. We have come to look upon the child as being buried in a human heap and all this social atmosphere must be taken into account in training him.

This larger concept of education may well be represented by a large circle and other phases of the unitary process by smaller concentric circles including the educational activities that go on within the schoolroom and those that belong to the immediate process of the recitation itself. The recitation is the point of highest concentration of the educative process. It is the spotlight of the process of education. It is the point where educational procedure goes on at white heat, and therefore the point where ignorance and error is most fatal in the teacher. For the ordering of our further thought as to the proper function of the recitation as the important aspect of the educative process, let us examine briefly some of the more or less obvious factors of the recitation.

The main factors of the recitation are (1) the child, (2) the course of study, (3) the teacher, and (4) method. The child is the working soil of education. He is the center of all its activities. The world has progressed in proportion to the interest it has manifested in childhood. The child has always been a child, but the trouble with us is, that we have not always regarded him as such. We have been too eager to see him become an adult and our methods have strained him into all sorts of distorted conditions. We have hitherto gotten our standards from tradition, evolved without taking into account the real nature of the learning process; the only thought of the child was, that he was a listening being, the truth of which is quite the contrary. He is above all an active being, as Dewey says, "spilling over" with activity, impulses and interests, and instincts.

The second factor, the course of study, may be regarded as a body of stimuli for the child's mental and bodily activity. His growth depends upon activity as responses to situations and such situations as most effectively make for social value. The course of study must include something of the past, in order to know the values upon which the present procedures must rest. It
must all swim in the present social conditions. In ordering the material for the course of study it must never lose sight of the dynamic nature of the educative process.

The third factor, the teacher, represents the mature side of the educative process. He brings adult standards of thinking and a line of experience along which the pupil must travel in becoming an adult. He has a body of technique to offer to the learner. The fact that the teacher has learned, and has become an adult, is the best reason for her presence in the school room. She is the personal side of the educational process and the most dynamic factor for the child’s reaction. She is a very important side of the interacting process. The main functions of the teacher are as (1) an inciter, (2) a receiver of the response, and (3) a judge or guide. Professor Strayer puts it in paradoxal form when he says that the chief business of the teacher is to render her services unnecessary.

The fourth factor is method. This is the process by which we go forward in our experiencing. Rather unfortunately, this factor has been differentiated as a distinctive process, with laws, principles, and technique, and forced at times to the breaking point, in making it serve as an end rather than as the means. It is an intermediary process conditioning action. It cannot have any significance except as a means to an end. In every educative process there are two methods, viz., the method of the learner and the method of the teacher. These two are complementary and should move together toward the same goal. They are two different aspects of the same process. The learning process is more completely fundamental than the teaching process, and therefore should take precedence over the latter. The teacher cares more for the course of study; and the child cares for expression. The recitation is the place where personal interaction goes on; this fact gives it its dynamic aspect.

Agencies of the Recitation. These are (1) textbooks, (2) questions and answers, (3) objects, maps, pictures, and language. The text-book is a very important means in the teaching process. The pupil must learn the art of getting thought from a book. But even here there are serious dangers to be noted. Some teachers are satisfied when the pupil gives the words of the text
when he recites. Better teaching requires the pupil to give the thought of the printed page in his own words. Too often the pupil is tested for the mere memory of facts. The pupils should be able to give in an orderly and organized way the thought of the lesson assigned. Pupils have not mastered the thought if they cannot find the solution of a problem in the text. "Ability to express oneself adequately on a topic is a good test for the progress of pupil from grade to grade." The text is often not logical for the pupil because it has been logically arranged by a scholar. Objects, maps, pictures, in the recitation, should be made to serve the purpose of solving a problem for the child, or satisfy a desire.

The Philosophical Aspects of the Recitation. The essence of education is interaction. This interaction goes on in the recitation in a more vital way than anywhere else in the educative process. This idea of education implies two or more persons or things mutually operative, or influencing each other. The teacher acting as a stimulus and the pupil reacting as a response. It is an interplay between teacher and pupil, interaction between the mature and the immature. In its larger significance it is the effort of one generation to transmit the possessions of the race to the generation next following. There is another aspect of this principle. The child makes its contributions to the educative process in the form of interests, instincts, and impulses, while the teacher gives a personality for stimulating these impulses and thereby leads the child to richer and further experiencing. This process goes on continuously, but, as the process becomes more conscious, it heightens the process; it rationalizes education. To know the theory of education is to add another element to progress. Theory and practise are not to be far separated, if at all. The one grows directly out of the other. Rational, logical thinking about the educative process is probably the most urgent demand upon present day educators.

Experiencing Is Development and Growth. This fundamental principle of education finds its best exemplification in the recitation. This has in it the idea of sharing and is social in its nature. The fund of experience received in the classroom and the contact with things and the teacher and his fellows is the source of much of that which James calls "mind stuff"; and it is
this that makes for control and appreciation. The recitation is the place where relative values are realized and this process of weighing values results in knowledge and wisdom. The intellectual life and the moral life are the same; experiencing ultimately works out into conduct and character. Education is a growing consciousness of the meaning of life.

Experiencing Makes for Unity. Unity is mind force acting upon something. The process of relating things to each other is continuous. It will never end until mind has touched everything in the universe and organized it. The teacher who has the larger grasp of this unity can lead the child into it. This idea will determine the basis of all method and material of the recitation. A clear understanding of these basic principles of education by the teacher will economize the child's energy. The teacher needs doctrine and out of sound doctrine will evolve sound activity. Any other procedure is a guess and a groping about in the dark.

Socializing the Recitation. After the foregoing discussion we are now ready to say something about the social standards of the recitation. The aim of education must be distinctly social. The goal or end of any line of activity will determine the method and line of experience to follow in attaining the goal. Life is social in its nature and if the recitation is to keep in mind the methods of the child in getting on in this thing we call life, he must get the practise of dealing with crucial situations. This can come only thru sharp contact, personal and physical. Opportunity must be afforded for the exercise of his own personality in solving the problems of his environment. He may not have all to say about what he shall have in the way of a course of study, but he should have much to say as to the method of dealing with the situation, so that, when the pupil has settled something, he can have the feeling that his own personality has had something to do with the results. This gives to experience something of the feeling of personal possession and not a thing imposed. The recitation is a place, then, where this social aim should be operative in order to give the child methods of procedure in activities that should be as much as possible the responses to his personal self. But the aim of education should be broad enough to include the welfare of society
as well as of the individual. Thru the teacher in the recitation the social welfare can be represented and the child be in touch with society in this representative way. The teacher by means of setting up the ideals of society thru speech and action gets, not a pure social condition as it obtains outside of the school, but a representative form of society. But the school is a society by virtue of its being a group of individuals working together for a common end. There is no opposition between that view of education which declares that the welfare of society is of paramount importance, and that which demands individual well-being. If we are successful in obtaining the one, we must have secured the other. The recitation must never lose sight of this aim of education, in which the individual welfare and the welfare of society can move forward as the same unitary process—the good of the individual is the good of society.

The Recitation Should be Genuinely Social. Problems should stand out prominently and the children as a group set to work them out in a co-operative way. Some time ago I saw a recitation in which the children by habit always addressed themselves to each other, as the discussion went on among them, the teacher having apparently little to do with the forward movement of the thought. If materials are to be handled, what could be more wholesome than to have the work distributed among the children of the class, allowing somewhat for interests and natural impulses. The whole process of such a recitation would follow the line of movement of play among children, yet they would not mistake it for play, but instead they would feel that the experience was serving a purpose in present activity, making for the process of the forward movement of each individual life-current. At every turn of such work there would be opportunity for planning, involving ways and means, and co-operation in the execution of the tasks. Work of this sort is available in all the subjects of the curriculum, such as geography, history, literature, arithmetic, etc. If the recitation proceeds along these social lines, it would affect the subjects of the course of study in such a way as to make the latter conform more nearly to the present day social ideals. The parts that could not well be brought forward by these social procedures might well be eliminated from the course of study.
More Purposeful Work for the Children in the Recitation. The work of the recitation should be more definitely related to the experiences of the child and the activities outside of the school. This would demand on the part of the teacher a knowledge of the various social activities of the community in which she is laboring. She should understand the various values that make for the life in her community and lead the children to an appreciation of them. If, as it is frequently said, teachers more commonly had in mind the needs of the children during the time they are not in school, it would be easier to find situations in which the school activities would be significant because of the genuine needs which are felt by the children.

There Must Be Opportunity for Free Communication. Expression is the fundamental means of the child for progress and growth. The stimulus for expression comes from the environment of the child, physical and personal. In the early life of the child, if he cannot have a real person, he constructs one by his imagination, and proceeds with all sorts of communication between himself and his imaginary personage. The recitation must provide for all forms of communication between himself and his teacher and his fellows. Most people, even as adults, think better when they have someone with whom to discuss the problem at hand. It is difficult to carry on a forum in their own minds. Children can often interpret where teachers fail. "If the children taught are not more able to work for themselves, more ready to take the initiative, more capable in defining their problems, in gathering data, and in finding solutions, than they were at the beginning of the period, then the work has been a failure." Thinking does not consist in answering the questions which a teacher may put concerning the facts recorded in a text. Cooly expresses the function of communication in the recitation so well that I leave him to say the final word on this topic. "The impulse to communicate is not so much a result of thought as it is an inseparable part of it. They are like root and branch, two phases of a common growth, so that the death of the one presently involves that of the other. Psychologists now teach that every thought involves an active impulse with reference to the more complex and socially developed forms
of thought, and takes the shape of a need to talk and so on; and if none of these is practicable it expends itself in a wholly imaginary communication."

There Must Be a Spirit of Co-operation. This term co-operation carries the most vital suggestion in all our social thinking and acting in modern life. It must characterize all institutions in a democracy. So the school, an important institution of our democratic life, must not fall short in this particular. All the marks indicated above of a socialized recitation imply this idea of co-operation. Life cannot go on without it. The recitation according to social standards cannot go on without it. There is no better way to have the child participate actively in the general welfare than to be able and willing to work in co-operation with others for the time being. Democracy depends for its perpetuation and progress upon this type of individual. There is no better situation than the recitation for the exercise of this social virtue. There is no other way in which the school can contribute so certainly to the accomplishment of the aim of all education.

There Must Be a High Degree of Motivation. At this point the recitation probably shows its greatest weakness. Our methods of procedure have provided no opportunity for this virtue to find a place according to natural means. Coercion has long persisted here in school practise, which has no place in the fundamental characteristics of human nature. We have ceased to use to any great extent this incentive in connection with the learning process, but it remains in school practise in connection with the social and the normal activities of the school. The solution of the question of motive in school work lies in the field of the instincts and impulses. It is a psychological question ultimately, but one that has much to do with determining the operation of social activities. Interest is the important factor in settling questions of motive for work. The activities of the recitation must stay within the realm of the interests of the children. At least the initial stages of procedure must sink its roots deep into the soil of interest. The child as he enters school brings his interests from the home and the life closely associated with the home. We must look here for motive for the work in school; and,
as his life here proceeds, we must continually go back to this field of interest in the life surrounding the home for the strongest motive. This takes us to the social life for vitalizing the recitational processes. The social attitude toward life is always in problematic form. We are continually called upon to meet situations that need solutions. The solution of these problems is the characteristic of all progress. Crucial situations imply hostility. This fact gives a stimulus for action. On this point Cooly says that no matter what part one has to play, he can make no progress, except by a vigorous assault upon obstacles; and to be vigorous, the assault must be supported by passion of some sort. "The highest and best form of intellectual life demands a certain amount of hostile spirit for the most wholesome kind of progress."

There Must Be Opportunity for the Personal Self to Assert Itself. Personality is the ultimate goal of all education. The child from a very early age realizes the self-idea, but he often has a great difficulty in expressing it. He grows into a realization of his personal self thru social conditions. Society is the looking glass in which he sees himself. The struggle for survival often takes the form of self-consciousness and is jostled about in all sorts of cruel ways. It often reveals itself in this form in the recitation and the teacher plays havoc with it, if she is not wise in human nature. . It accompanies sex differences and requires the most delicate care in handling. The recitation properly socialized will take into account the nurture of this most important characteristic of the individual. To reach the highest human attainment one must be a person. This is the essence of society.

This discussion would be incomplete without a few statements of the effect such a socialized recitation would have upon present recitational practise. They will be stated in the briefest possible way:
(a) It will be less formal; (b) The emphasis will be placed upon expression instead of impression; (c) The aim of education will be shifted to social efficiency; (d) The child as an individual will move in a larger freedom; (e) Method will not be governed by a set of laws as an intermediary thing between the child and the teacher, but a dual thing including the child's procedure on the
one hand and the teacher's on the other; (b) The recitation will lose its narrow and limited scope in the school activities; (g) The time factor will cease to be an important one; (h) The responsibilities of the school will more nearly correspond with the responsibilities of life; (i) The recitation will become a mighty stimulus to growth, which is the essence of education; (j) The teacher will take a new attitude toward her work, the standards of her efficiency will be raised; (k) The recitation will become a place for conversation and commerce of thought.

Cornelius J. Heatwole
THE STUDY OF HOME ECONOMICS
IN THE SOUTH

Thruout our Southland, it is being daily more strongly realized, that in order to bring about the highest good of the people as a community and a nation the home must be made the starting point, and an education that will make for the best home life must be had. Popular interest in the study of home industries is growing because of the inefficiency of servants, upon whom the housekeepers have hitherto depended so long, and because of the lack of training thus far of the southern woman in the management of the house. In all of the states, industrial art has become a part of the curriculum of both the grammar and high schools of at least half of the cities, and is being introduced into the country and village schools by means of demonstration work.

In this discussion, the work of a few of the representative institutions is described, showing the interest that is being manifested in the different states. The schools here described are used to show, not only the work done in general, but how the various phases of domestic economy as taught in all the other schools is represented and some of the particular phases for which these schools especially stand.

The University of Texas offers one of the fullest and most advanced courses in household economics of any school in the South. The work in this department is open to all the women students except freshmen. For undergraduates, the study of foods includes the simple processes of cooking and the serving of meals, with the prerequisites of chemistry and regular sophomore standing. This is followed by a more advanced course, the preparation of food being placed on a more scientific basis and the principles of physics and chemistry applied. Fuels and the different methods of cooking from the standpoint of economy of time and labor, the state food products, and methods of preservation, are especially emphasized. The study of dietetics includes both an elementary and an advanced course, the work being taken up at length along with the production, manufac-
ture, and adulteration of foods, with laboratory work in
the analysis of food, and experiments in digestion. In
the advanced course, methods used in determining the
nutritive value of foods and the body’s requirements are
investigated and applied. A course termed Home Eco-
nomics is given in which special reference is made to the
industrial and sociological aspects of the home, and the
division of the family income as determined by various
standards of living. In the first year of the domestic
art work the course includes the study of textiles and the
manufacture of cloth, the use of the sewing machine and
patterns, study of the social, economic, and hygienic as-
pects of clothing and the application of art to dress
thru the study of the principles of design. The more
advanced courses consist in the theory and practice of
costume design, laws of proportion and color harmony
as applied to dress, and lectures on historic costumes,
color, and textiles. A course is given in house structure,
interior decoration and furnishings, and art principles
and application. This includes the history of art; and
application is made of the principles involved to prob-
lems in modern life.

Opportunity for observation and teaching is given
in the senior year, which counts towards the teacher’s
diploma and is required for a teacher’s certificate.

The University of Tennessee was the first university
to credit home economics towards a degree and later to
allow entrance credit for work in domestic science done
in secondary schools. At first the aim of the work was
merely to offer, as an elective to women students, prac-
tical and theoretical training which would fit them to be-
come better home makers. But as the movement spread
and the demand for teachers of the study grew, the aim
broadened to include the preparation of teachers by
means of a special four year degree course. After it be-
came well established and was taken over into the Col-
lege of Liberal Arts, a scholarship fund was founded to
be awarded annually to some girl preparing herself to
teach domestic economy in the South. The regular course
is offered, the study of domestic art being taken up first
in the freshman year, followed by domestic science in
the sophomore year. In the senior year the course
includes the study of the household both as an individual
and a sociological problem, house construction, furnish-
ings, care and a general survey of home economics from the teacher’s standpoint. For graduate work advanced courses adapted to the individual student may be arranged in any phase of the subject; laboratory work along special lines is called for during the course, and the student is required to familiarize herself with the literature of home economics. A part of the normal training of the senior class is done in the social settlements of Knoxville.

In the University of Kentucky the school of home economics is a department of the College of Agriculture. Students in this school receive instruction in bacteriology and entomology by the faculty of the College of Agriculture, and the food division of the experimental station gives students an opportunity to receive lectures on food sanitation and adulteration. The course is designed to meet the needs of two classes of students: those who specialize in other lines of work, but desire also a knowledge of the general principles of home economics, and those who take the full course leading to the degree of B. S. in the subject. Much time is given to languages and history; and in the junior and senior years certain subjects may be elected. The course begins with the study of foods and cookery in the freshman year, the serving being taken up in the sophomore year. The course includes chemistry, physics, and physiology, begun in the freshman year and advancing to physiological chemistry and dietetics, and chemistry of textile manufacture. In the junior year courses are given in home decoration and millinery; and practise teaching is required in the senior year.

In Mississippi the regular collegiate work in domestic economy is given in the Industrial Institute and College, beginning in the junior year with prerequisites in chemistry, physiology, and hygiene. The work includes a two-year course in millinery with a special course in bookkeeping, and a course in electricity and bacteriology. In the practise house, a large twelve room house, planned and decorated by the students, the girls live in groups of ten, each group being changed every six weeks. Housekeeping accounts are kept and records of fuel and light are made and considered in a study of the cost of living. Practise in real hospitality as well as knowledge of cooking and cleaning is thus obtained.
To be admitted to the School of Household Economics in the H. Sophie Newcomb Memorial College for Women, of Tulane University, a student must offer one unit in chemistry and one in freehand drawing. In domestic art an applicant must have some practise in the correct use of the tools used in sewing and must give evidence of being able to handle them with some skill. A course of two years leading to a certificate and one of four years leading to a degree are offered under the School of Education. A course in the organizing and administration of home economics is given, including the aim and phases of the work in both America and Europe, the practise work including personal investigation in various schools, giving lectures, planning and equipping departments, and planning exhibits.

In the State Normal School at Harrisonburg, Virginia, after the completion of the sophomore year the work in home economics may be specialized. In the junior year the work includes sewing and textiles, cooking, home cleaning and nursing, house furnishing and decoration. In the home cleaning class, the making of simple repairs and application of paints and varnishes is required, the students applying the knowledge to the care of their own rooms. For the senior year the course includes millinery, dressmaking, costume design, food production and manufacture, advanced cooking and dietetics, and theory and practise in the teaching of household arts, the latter work being done in the schools in the country. The work done at Harrisonburg is typical of the courses given in the smaller schools and junior colleges through the South, and is the first of these schools to include in its curriculum a correspondence course in the study of home economics.

One of the largest schools that is doing such a remarkably fine work is the Tuskegee Institute, Alabama. This is a school established for the betterment of the colored race and its work along every line is made as practical as possible. Here the young women are required to perform all the duties pertaining to their department in the dormitories and schools. One wing of the Girls' Industrial Building is used for the dressmaking, ladies' tailoring, millinery and plain sewing industries; in another wing are located the rooms devoted to laundry purposes, in which is installed all the equipment.
necessary for machine and hand-work. In the second story are the cooking laboratories, the dining and lecture rooms, four large rooms for the training in nursing and child nurture, mattress making and upholstery and for the drying of clothes. On this floor is a suite of rooms including a kitchen, dining room, bed room and sitting room for teaching home keeping. The sewing department is divided into three classes: plain sewing, dress-making, and ladies' tailoring. The Vienna tailoring system is used and three years are required for this work, which includes the study of form, artistic and hygienic principles of dress, of colors, and textiles, and the matching of striped, plaid, and figured materials. The Institute insists that every girl shall receive instruction in cooking and lays special emphasis upon simple cooking. This course extends over four years.

In the junior course, marketing is included in the work, the students buying their materials at the creamery, poultry yard, truck garden and meat market, all of which are in operation as a part of the school system. In the more advanced courses, special practise work is done in the Teachers' Home, the chemistry of foods and nutrition is taught, and special training for teachers and caterers is given. In order to give special work in homekeeping the senior girls keep house in a practise cottage, doing all the work pertaining to house-keeping, including the buying of supplies, and the housekeepers are required to make accurate weekly statements of all expenditures of the home. In the course in laundry, which covers one year, all of the laundry work of the teachers and students is done in the department and instruction is given in the use of modern machinery and the making of soaps. The work in the department of child-nursing and child-nurture is connected with the hospital training school and the school kindergarten. A nursery has been equipped in the Industrial Building, provision being made for the beginning of a child library. Instruction is carried on by means of talks and demonstrations. It includes the study of the infant, extending to the care of children, their exercise, care for simple injuries and diseases, teaching the child to walk and speak correctly, and the nurse and her qualifications.

Another large school which is doing so much for the colored race is the Hampton Normal and Agricultural
Institute at Hampton, Virginia. All of the girls are required to take the course in home economics, but after completing the senior middle year, a girl may, with the approval of the school authorities, begin a course of two years, specializing in either domestic science or art. In the first year the students receive their practical education in laundries, dormitories, and dining halls, when they are paid for their work and attend school in the evening. They receive a liberal education in this way, not only along the lines of domestic science, but of domestic art as well, for the work includes the care of all the students’ clothing, bed and table linen.

Louisiana is doing a wonderful work in the public school system of the state. There are now over sixty-five departments of domestic economy, six of which are in New Orleans, assisted by the state, and probably as many more maintaining their own work. In the Biennial Report of the State Superintendent, he says that not only is the work reaching large numbers of girls and fitting them for successful housekeeping, but that it is proving a strong influence in adding interest to all of the school work. In New Orleans alone, ten new cooking centers, including a splendid equipment in each of the girls’ high schools, have recently been provided for, as well as more ample provisions made for sewing in the grammar grades. In the State Normal School and Industrial School splendid work is being done; in the latter, the four year course has recently been lengthened by the addition of more subjects and time in the various classes.

In West Virginia domestic economy is taught in the State University; and of the ten colleges and preparatory schools allied to it, nine include the subject in their curriculum. In a manual gotten out by the State Board of Education and issued by the Department of Free Schools it is advised that domestic economy be taught in all schools in both town and country, sewing in the seventh and cooking in the eighth grade, showing that the authorities are appreciating the need and value of the work.

The work done in Baltimore County, Maryland, is somewhat unusual in its system and deserves a word of mention. There are no cooking centers, the instructor going to the different schools, one or two a day, and carrying materials for the work. The underlying princi-
pies of cookery are made the basis of the work and the Farmers' Bulletins are used as the text books. The group method is employed, the girls being appointed to the offices of housekeeper, waitress, dishwiper, dish washer, and cook, and work as for a family is thus taught. Note books are kept and carefully corrected, the menus are made by the pupils and several classes are served meals.

The schools of Columbus, Georgia, have made such progress in the work of domestic economy, since it was first introduced into the curriculum, that they have received national attention. The department has been found so essential that a modern building has been especially constructed and equipped for the purpose, called the Industrial High School. It was the first of its kind in the United States. Upon the occasion of the laying of the corner stone, Dean Russel, of Teachers College, Columbia University, said in his address, "You citizens of Columbus, in building this school, are entering upon a solemn obligation to make it a success, not only for the sake of your children, but because you are voluntarily taking upon yourselves the task of leading the American people to a broader conception of public education than they have ever had before." The manual training and domestic economy courses begin in the grammar grades, with sewing in the fifth and cooking in the seventh; then, pupils who complete the work may enter the Industrial High School, which offers a three-year course of two hundred and twenty-five school days a year. A transfer of high schools may be made if a pupil finds, after entering the Industrial High School, that he has made a mistake in his choice. High school work is required in mathematics, English, history and science, but emphasis in these subjects is laid upon the practical viewpoint. The academic work is related as closely as possible to the trades courses, but, with the exception of the languages, students entering higher institutions are received in the same class in the academic subjects as those going from the ordinary high schools.

One of the branches of this system of schools is conducted for the children of the mill operators at the North Highland School, especially established for them. In the absence of compulsory educational laws, few of these children, prior to this time, attended any school and then
stayed for only a short period, fewer than five per-
cent remaining after they became old enough to work in
the cotton mills. The course of study is unique, con-
forming to the conditions and convenience of the people
for whom it was established. Classroom work begins
at eight in the morning, continuing until eleven and
begins again at one-thirty. The long intermission is to
allow the children time to carry hot lunches to the mem-
bers of their families in the mills, receiving twenty-five
cents for each meal carried. The session extends thru
the entire year, in order that a constant touch might be
kept with the pupils, but the instructors are allowed a
vacation of three months, taking it at different times.
They live in the school, which is open to the people of
the community in the evening and at other hours when
not in regular session.

As an illustration of what is being done in some of the
most up-to-date, progressive mill towns of the South, the
Proximity Textile Mills, situated outside of Greensboro,
North Carolina, offer one of the best examples. Graded
schools are maintained at each village at the company’s
own expense, free to the employees’ children, and kept
open nine months. In addition to the regular schools are
the welfare departments under the direction of a social
secretary. Each department is in charge of a teacher of
domestic economy and her assistants, and these have
been organized not only for the school children, but for
the women during the week who are not employed in the
mills, and on Saturday afternoon for the mill girls.
Simple cooking and sewing, basketry, raffia work, and
embroidery are taught; and each pupil is helped and en-
couraged in anything useful which she wishes to take up
that goes toward the elevation of her home-life. At each
village, one of the regular operatives’ cottages is al-
lowed to the secretary for social and recreational pur-
poses and the work of the department is exhibited at
the Central Carolina Fair, held at Greensboro. Work as
improving and uplifting is done for the boys and men
and, as a result of the efforts made, the operatives are
more contented, cheerful, loyal, and efficient than are
found in many other places. Their families, once settled
there, remain and their houses become homes.

In many of the rural communities where no provision
has been made for the teaching of home industries in the
schools, clubs have been formed for the purpose of instruction and practical work along these lines, and, as a part of the work in the state universities and normals, bulletins are issued by the departments of home economics. They contain practical lessons of value to teachers of village and rural schools and to farmers' wives, in cooking, sewing, laundering, and home-nursing; some of them contain helpful suggestions, as well as illustrations, showing just what the cooking equipment for a school of one room, for instance, may be.

Most of the industrial clubs had their origin in the demonstration work begun several years ago by Dr. Frederic Gates, chairman of the General Educational Board. Dr. Gates, who realized that the great need of the people was an opportunity to find themselves, first organized the work for the men on the farm. He was assisted by Dr. Knapp, who was already taking agricultural knowledge to the farmers, in order to teach them better farming and to enable them to earn more per acre. Boys' clubs followed in order to attract the boys to the farms, to keep them there, and to teach the advantages of better farming. When these had been well established, Dr. Knapp began the work for girls in Virginia and South Carolina in 1910, with an enrollment of about three hundred and twenty-five girls. At first, the plan was to develop one-tenth of an acre and to specialize in the beginning with the tomato, as the boys had done with corn, each girl being urged to plant other kinds of vegetables and surplus fruits. In 1911, more than three thousand girls in the different states joined clubs and planted their gardens. During the following year twenty-three thousand or more were enrolled in twelve states. Five hundred quarts of tomatoes were put up by some clubs, besides ketchup, pickles, chow-chow, preserves, and other products, some members realizing a profit of one hundred dollars in addition to winning prizes. In connection with her work each girl has been required to keep a careful record of the year's work; and many attractive, illustrated compositions and booklets, based on the tomato or some other product of their gardens, have been written.

The object of the work is manifold: to encourage rural families to provide better food at lower cost; and
to utilize surplus and otherwise waste products of the orchard and garden; to stimulate interest and wholesome co-operation among members of the household; to provide means for girls to earn money at home, and at the same time obtain the education and viewpoint necessary for ideal farm life; to open the way for practical demonstrations, in home economics; and to furnish earnest teachers a plan for aiding their pupils and helping communities. Teachers have found it advisable to use different phases of the club and garden work for lessons in language, drawing, arithmetic, geography and other studies. By means of these clubs, community spirit is being fostered and relationship between city and country people established. Parents are beginning to give to their daughters a more definite share in the home life, so that all alike are being made better by this work. Thus, to quote Miss Agnew, the Virginia State Agent of the Co-operative Demonstration, "The tomato can is simply a key with which every part of the girls' lives and homes is entered."

In many states, especially in Virginia, much importance is attached to the county school fair. The idea was first conceived by the Virginia Federation of Women's Clubs, about seven years ago, and, in this time, the idea has grown to exhibits in about half the counties in the state. The fair does its work in two directions; it sums up the work of the boys' corn clubs and girls garden and poultry clubs, the sewing and cooking clubs, and promotes these organizations in places where they have made little headway and encourages their continuance and enlargement in districts where they are already doing well. As an incentive to good work, and to promote it in places hitherto not interested, prizes are offered for the best exhibit in the domestic science and art departments, as well as in each of the other branches of industrial work. Another value of the school fair is found in preparing the way for vocational training by means of arousing such interest that will carry over, thru the vacation time, a use of the lessons learned at school.

In West Virginia the same idea of the county fair is carried out in what is called community meetings or social gatherings at rural school houses. Instead of ex-
hibits, programs of interest to all classes of people are carried out, including one for the women for the purpose of studying cooking and other subjects. As an aid to this work, a handbook has been published under the direction of the state superintendent containing suggestions and programs for the meetings.

This review cannot be brought to a close without some mention of the work being done by the Young Women’s Christian Associations in the South. In many cities, such as Norfolk, Jacksonville, Oklahoma City, Alabama City, and Atlanta, regular courses in domestic science and art are given, which in some associations include nurses’ courses, elementary dietetics, basketry, and, in all, a course in millinery. The members of the day classes come from the comparatively wealthy homes; while in the evening the work is carried out for the benefit of the working girls.

In Alabama City a particularly interesting work is being done. Both domestic science and art are taught, the work being especially designed for the employees of the Dwight Manufacturing Company, but classes for school girls are also held in the afternoon, each meeting once a week. Demonstrations are held in the homes, one home in a good center being chosen for the housewives of that neighborhood. The regular classes are very large, made up mostly of “mountain whites”, who came to the village to work in the factories; consequently the work has to be made as light as possible since the members of the classes are too tired for heavy work or too great mental effort. The work from a hygienic standpoint is emphasized particularly and a model home is kept as a part of the practical training. Evidence of the good result of the work being done is seen in the homes especially of the young women who marry, and of the school children in their manner of dress. Because of limited means and for want of volunteers the work done by the associations in a great many of the smaller towns is on a limited scale; but a beginning has been made and, as the interest in home industries spreads, the work done by these associations will necessarily grow.

Bessie C. Leftwich
THE NEW EDUCATION

In the year 1906, there occurred in the State of Indiana, a few miles east of Chicago, a miracle—for that is the only way we can account for even the existence of the town of Gary, so suddenly did it spring up in the midst of this sandy, desert-like country. Just as our friends at the Dupont Plant in Virginia are building us a city at Hopewell, so, only on a larger scale, the United States Steel Corporation erected over ten miles of steel furnaces in Indiana, and, as a result, the city of Gary appeared.

Today, more than forty thousand people are living on the spot that eight years ago was but a stretch of sand hills. And such a people! Practically the entire population is foreign; and many of these people have so recently arrived in America that they have not yet become citizens. Huns, Slavs, Armenians, Greeks, Russians, Jews, Poles, in fact, over thirty nationalities, are found here. A bulletin of the United States Department of Education tells us that in a photograph of a typical group of school children taken there not long ago the nineteen children in the picture represent nineteen different nationalities.

The public school is the home of these children, and it is the story of this school that has brought Gary into prominence today and will doubtless be her source of fame in the years to come. The most effectual, the most democratic school plant in the country is here in this inland city.

"For the first time in the history of education," says David Gibson, "scientific methods have been applied to education, scientific management to a school system, the educational capacity doubled and the cost of education cut in two, all at the same time." But, after all, is it not natural that this educational system should be scientific and show the engineering spirit? The very town, built by an organization so largely concerned with engineering, shows the work of the engineer. What could be expected but that this idea should penetrate the school system as well?
The man who has accomplished this educational wonder is Mr. William A. Wirt, at one time superintendent of the schools of Bluffton, Indiana. He is far from the ordinary schoolman in type, having none of the air, manner, or traits that we usually find among professional teachers. Indeed, it is said that he more nearly resembles the manager of a large factory than a representative of any other calling; that he may be found sitting at a big flat-top desk talking economy, volume, and quality products with the same interest that a steel king would exhibit,—only his product is the next generation and his stockholders are the taxpayers of today. He is still under forty years of age; but he had, nevertheless, done some astonishing things during his Bluffton career. He had been hindered in many respects, however, by school boards who looked ever to the past as a model for the future. Here in Gary he was free; he could try out his plans unhampered.

And what are those ideas and ideals? Why, nothing less than the socializing of the public school; only what our foremost educators have been urging for a decade, merely an enlarged school to meet the educational needs of the twentieth century.

Everyone knows that today the school must educate to produce citizens; that it must supply much in the development of the youth of the country that was formerly given in the home; that somehow the interest of the pupil must be aroused, so that he will remain in school where this necessary training may be given. We know, also, that the best way for the child to gain this modern educational equipment is thru self-activity. In addition to this, we recognize today that our civic administrative system must include public facilities, not only for study, but also for work and play. Mr. Wirt believes that the enlarged school will meet all these needs.

He tells us that he aims to give the child what he likes, not to force upon him subjects to which he may object. He believes that he can help the child to find his own work by the time he is ready to leave school, and that he will be able to do his work efficiently and successfully, whether it be in a factory, managing a great business, practicing a profession, taking care of a fam-
ily, or teaching school. His pupils are enthusiastic. They stay in school because he has given them what they want and they love it.

The basic principle upon which his system is founded is a combination of study, work, and play. The whole ideal can be expressed in three words—“Learn by doing!”

If you want to see forty-five hundred absolutely happy school children, go to Gary, Indiana. You would find here buildings in size and outward appearance much like the traditional school buildings of our eastern cities. But all departments of education, kindergarten, primary grades, grammar grades, high school courses, professional and industrial courses, and two years of college work are combined under one roof.

The advantages of such a system are obvious, for it results in economy of administration and greater efficiency in education. Mr. Wirt realized this when he put an advanced class in the high school course next to one of the primary grades with a full length clear glass panel in the door between the rooms. The small pupils in passing can look in and see the older ones at work; an incentive is thus given the younger children. On the other hand, the older pupils gain a fund of useful knowledge and review by the assistance which they give to the younger pupils. And so, we see, in Gary there is no distinct kindergarten; neither is there a high school; for big and little all attend the same school. This is, truly, preparation for life; for in life all ages mingle.

The Gary system is continuous. There is no break between the eighth grade and the high school department. A pupil does not receive a diploma at this point in the game, a mere encouragement to leave school. He goes to school under the same roof from the time he starts, at four years of age, until he is ready for college, or to leave school to enter upon the serious work of living and making a living.

Even his teachers do not change, for here the departmental system is inclusively used. The same mathematics, English, and history teachers carry the pupil thru his entire course. The advantages of having specialists in each department of education are well known; for the child gets the benefit of expert instruc-
tion in every branch firsthand, and in proper correlation with other studies.

Thus we see, as we follow out the system in detail, unusual features of school operation on every side. The new ideal had already, to some extent, been tried out in certain private institutions. Mr. Wirt, however, is the first who has ventured to introduce it into the public system and produce the enlarged school.

He discarded as a failure the standardized school with which we are familiar, and he has created a new type of institution that has for its fundamental principles the community and social ideals of today. His school is a combination of modern playground, workshop, and classroom. He can accommodate twice as many children in one of his schools as we can in one of ours; for he has his children divided into four groups. While one-fourth of the pupils fills the classrooms and engage in the preparation and recitation of the ordinary school studies, the second fourth is flooding the playground, the third fourth is busy in the shops and industrial departments; and the last fourth is receiving musical instruction, or listening to a lecture in the auditorium, or working in the gymnasium—all of which are essential parts of the Gary System.

Mr. Wirt’s plant is perhaps more expensive than ours; but in the long run he saves money, for he accommodates more pupils. One of his typical plants is called the Emerson school, a description of which will show clearly how he works out his scheme. This building is situated in grounds ten acres in extent. In front stretches a park made beautiful with flowers, fountains, and benches, and maintained by the city as a public pleasure ground for its inhabitants. On each side of the building are school gardens. Every child who attends the Emerson school may have his own plot of land to cultivate, if he desires. At the rear of the building the largest part of the lot is situated; and here lies the splendid playground with its modern equipment. Here both children and grown people may enjoy every known sort of recreational play. There is a baseball diamond, a football field, tennis courts, basketball field, and running track; besides, playground apparatus for children, consisting of everything from sandpiles and see-saws
to wading pools. Here, too, the children’s play is supervised; experts in this line are on the grounds with the children at all hours.

The business men of the city may enjoy these grounds at night; for they are brilliantly lighted with electricity until ten o’clock each evening. The play grounds and also the swimming pool, located inside the building, are not only open to the public during the week, but likewise on Sunday. Gary’s citizens are, therefore, assured of an opportunity to indulge in harmless recreation on this, as well as other days.

The people feel as if the schools really belong to them. They give their local entertainments in the school auditoriums. They attend lectures and concerts there. The schools are the great community gathering places.

The building itself of the Emerson school is a large brick structure. It contains, in addition to the class rooms, a branch of the public library, gymnasiums for girls and for boys, an auditorium seating nine hundred people, shops in which the trades are taught, a large dining room, toilet rooms and drinking fountains, public comfort stations at the principal entrances, rest rooms for pupils, an office for the school physician, and an office for the principal. An extensive plant undoubtedly; but so scientifically is it run that the cost of maintenance is no greater than that required to run any school of the same size under the old system.

The school opens its doors at eight-thirty in the morning and every part of the great plant is in use from then until five in the afternoon. And this goes on for six days in the week. The regular school activities require no longer school hours than do ours. The rest of the time attendance is optional with the children, as is also Saturday attendance. But more than half of the pupils enjoy these additional opportunities, either to make up back work or to hasten their advancement, and are thus kept off the streets and out of harm’s way.

The plant is open again each evening from seven until ten o’clock, and this is the time that the adult school is in session. Every possible subject authorized by State law is offered for the education of Gary’s men and women. More than two thousand citizens avail themselves of the privileges offered in this and the other night schools of the city.
The course of study is much broader and more plastic than any ever dreamed of before. Mr. Wirt has actually made the child the foundation for his school, not the school the foundation for the child. He is attempting to develop the individual power of each pupil; to meet the needs of every personality. He does not cater merely to the average. If he succeeds in this, we can truly know that the world’s foremost educator is here in Gary, Indiana. Too long already have our public schools been grinding forth a type of manhood and womanhood which the world calls average. All were treated with the same chemicals, put thru the same processes, in the end neatly labeled with the proverbial diploma, and turned out upon the market—a tin-canned variety in truth. Brand A, Grade No. 1, of course; but still not the quality product that tomorrow will be demanding of us.

In Gary the use of textbooks is discouraged and, while used as a basis, most instruction is given at first hand. The children study the three R’s plus, just like other school children. But their courses are much broader than this. A great deal of vocational and practical training is given. The girls learn dressmaking, millinery, cooking, and business branches. The boys learn trades such as carpentry, brick-laying, and engineering. The instructors in these departments are not merely trained teachers, they are practical workers in the trades they follow.

If a room in the Gary schools needs repairing, the boys and girls stand ready to do the work. The girls design the interiors of their buildings and plan the decorations. The boys do the work. They made, last year, enough furniture to equip a new building. The boys have a banking system in their school with its penny savings department. The girls prepare and serve all the lunches sold in the great dining hall. Thus, we see, education is distinctly practical.

One of the keynotes of the system is correlation—correlation to life itself. History is combined with geography. Geography, in turn, in its social, political, and commercial aspects, is correlated with other subjects. This idea is carried thru the higher departments as well as the lower.

Mr. Wirt has by no means failed to consider the religious instruction of his pupils. That question, which so
long has been a subject for discussion in the world at large, is no longer a question in Gary. Mr. Wirt has solved it by giving free periods during the week which the pupils may use to attend their own churches. And here, by a member of their own faith, they are given religious instruction in all things needful for the development of their spiritual life.

Such a unique system of education as has been outlined must necessarily have its advantages and disadvantages. The United States Education Department Bulletin gives a very accurate statement of the points in its favor which it might be well to quote in closing. The things that stand out as especially worthy of note as making advancement are such as these:

I. Its economic value; for the entire plant is utilized the year round, making it possible to save large sums of money expended for the purposes that this system serves.

II. Its greater flexibility in adapting studies to exceptional children of all kinds, both abnormal and subnormal; therefore special schools are unnecessary.

III. Departmental plan, making expert teaching possible.

IV. Better use of play time, thereby preventing influences which undo the work of the schools.

V. More realism in vocational and industrial work by placing it under the direction of expert workmen from the ranks of laboring men.

VI. Better facilities for the promotion of the health of children.

VII. Possibility of having pupils do work in more than one grade and of promoting them by subjects instead of by grades.

VIII. Possibility of having pupils help each other.

IX. An organization which prevents a chasm between the elementary and high schools, and prevents dropping out of school by the introduction of subjects at this point which appeal to awakening interests.

X. Saving in the cost of instruction by reducing overhead charges for supervisors, making it possible to pay better teacher salaries, or reduce the number of pupils per teacher, or both.

XI. A plan which brings together in a united way,
with economy and efficiency in management, the other recreational and educational agencies of the city.

Certainly such an array of evidence in favor of the system should make us all interested in it; and yet there is another side to the question, of course. It is said that the tendency is to turn out boys and girls who are equipped for the trades rather than for the professions. If this be so, it may well be regarded, at least, by certain classes of people as a distinct disadvantage.

Then, the pupils are allowed to select entirely their own courses; in fact, the student is expected to try each of the trades until he has found his preference. Such a method might well develop the habit of drifting; for some people certainly never discover their specialty.

Again, in a school where the development of the individuality is so greatly emphasized, and the recreational side held in such high esteem, it may well happen that we shall find a lack of thoroughness in scholarship.

Then, the departmental system might be called to account by many, especially when used with very small children, for though it gives them expert teachers, it removes the disciplinary influences that are so effectively exercised when the child comes under the control of but one teacher during the school day.

However, the system is still in its infancy and though there are many who have serious misgivings as to its efficacy, it seems fairer to let time be the judge. The system stands before the public today and is subject to more discussion and criticism than ever before in the eight years of its existence. This is because the year 1915 saw it introduced, at least in modified forms, into the schools of other cities.

Its social value is beyond question. Its pedagogic merit is still to be demonstrated. The future alone can tell whether this be merely another one of the many visionary educational schemes, or whether Gary methods are going to give to boys and girls a greater realization of the necessity of thorough work. If this be the result, then one of the greatest educational problems of the twentieth century is solved.

HELEN H. HEYL
THE NORMAL BULLETIN

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Rachel Elizabeth Gregg, Supervisor of the Training School.

A Prayer for the New Year,
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The New Education,
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Virginia Association of Colleges and Schools for Girls,
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1When the contributors are members of the faculty of the State Normal School at Harrisonburg, addresses will not be given.
Extension of the Bulletin Service

In addition to the obvious duties which the normal schools must fulfil, there are certain high privileges which rest with the force of obligation upon them because of their peculiar fitness to exercise them. The most salient of these is, possibly, that of rendering real service to those who are facing the actual educational problems of the state. A feeling of satisfaction can, indeed, no longer result from mere classroom instruction, however admirably the work may be done; for it is impossible to escape the conclusion, that there can be no fulfilment of the function of this type of school, unless its activities touch the life of the teacher in the field into the finest possibilities of her profession. The officers and faculty of the State Normal School at Harrisonburg, long imbued with this idea, have stood for the rapid extension of all forms of helpful extra-mural work, and have succeeded in providing many special advantages for a large number of earnest and intelligently ambitious teachers, eager to make the most of the opportunities offered. Not alone, however, in its summer school courses, upon which it has expended time and thought, to reach the maximum of efficiency; but, not content to minister solely to those who find it possible to come here, this school has sought to carry its usefulness to the door of every teacher who feels the possibility of a betterment of her professional career. In correspondence work, lecture extension, special bulletins, normal departments in newspapers, and otherwise, the school has persistently endeavored with all the means at its command to promote the mission for which it exists.

The extension of its bulletin service to its present form evidences the school’s desire to enlarge its sphere of usefulness. No one realizes better than the trained teacher, however long the period of formal education may have lasted, that the side on which the normal school touches her has been all too short, for the great work for which it is intended to prepare her. This development of the bulletin, formerly confined to special reports from one department or another, will make the influence of the school, it is hoped, of more lasting value by continuing the work begun here in the classroom, accompanying those who have been associated with the
school into their professional field and standing ready to serve their needs wherever it is possible to be of the helpfulness that makes for strength.

The Normal Bulletin, in magazine form, is intended to represent a medium for the expression of the best thought on educational matters which the faculty, the student body, thru their societies, the alumnae, as individuals or thru their organization, and other interested friends of the school, believe to be of practical and specific value to their profession. In addition to a sense of having performed a service, the school hopes to gain the further benefits accruing from a more complete solidarity of all the forces of the institution, a closer union of the alumnae, and giving the literary societies and more advanced students a prospect of publication for especially fine work. It is intended, moreover, that the magazine shall give adequate publicity, not only to alumnae news and views of ordinary interest, but, more particularly, to any unusually note-worthy accomplishments of those who have been in attendance here; to present in a brief form the solutions of the educational problems the various departments are working out; to keep the best educational thought, in books and elsewhere, before the attention of its readers; and, finally, to keep the former students of the school and the faculty in close intellectual touch with one another.

The content, to some degree, is suggested in the aims of the publication and in the material of this number; the matter will, as a general policy, consist of articles representing research work; constructive criticism of men, manners, and institutions of educational importance; the handling in a practical way of the daily problems of the teacher in service; special "studies" in the sphere of pedagogy; original devices and methods that have been tried and approved; reviews of new and especially notable books; educational news of vital interest; and, in brief, what may tend definitely to make a periodical of the highest inspirational and educative power. It will be the constant aim to make the work refreshing and abundantly suggestive; and, while serving many practical interests, effort will be put forth to maintain consistently the one aim,—to advance the profession of teaching in personnel, in morale, and in reward.
The Adequate Preparation of Women to Face Changed Economic Conditions

The fact that what we now call "education" is a highly specialized field, requiring particular qualifications, as well as special training, has recently been brought rather forcibly to the attention of those who have found it necessary to gain thru respected occupations a reasonable livelihood. The woman who is confronted with the necessity of becoming a wage earner can no longer turn to teaching, unless she has had the training and the special education that will justify proper official certification. In many parts of the country, even a college education is not all that is required, as is evidenced in the experience of the Inter-collegiate Bureau of Occupations, of New York City. This splendid agency has found it necessary to direct its efforts towards providing for educated women other employments than teaching. The purpose of the bureau is to investigate and do all in its power to develop opportunities for women, to study their particular fitness, to increase their efficiency in occupations, and to insure a free, wise choice of occupation. If they have the special training, the personal equipment, and the inclination, to insure a situation that is suitable and profitable, they are put in touch with a teaching position; otherwise they are diverted to other employments, requiring different qualifications.

No less than thirty-six distinct types of positions were filled during the past year. There were many calls, however, that the bureau was unable to fill, because of a lack of properly trained women to fill them. This phase of the bureau manager's experience demands attention. The bureau lost many opportunities to place women in gainful positions; and the many hundreds of non-registered applicants, who came for advice and assistance, presented an object-lesson too striking to be ignored. The situation is simply this: splendid occupations are open to women; there is, indeed, a large demand for them, a demand that is likely to increase many fold in the next few years; but the women are not adequately prepared to take advantage of them. With respect to this lack of preparation, the situation is not much better
in the case of college women than of those who have a more limited general education. The results of the study of this bureau, indeed, might very properly form the basis for an increase of emphasis on the more adequate preparation for specific lines of work in the training of women, such as the changed economic conditions will surely call them to face.

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**The Determining Factor in Feminine Success**

As a contribution to the ever-interesting topic of feminine psychology, the pronouncements of Dr. Mary K. Isham, a notable illustration of feminine professional success, are of interest and point. In the place of that class of forlorn ladies who, as the Doctor pictures it, "melted gracefully into the background of the family and subsisted on such scraps of privilege and joy as were thrown away after the principal actors in the family had partaken", there has arisen a type which has less religious resignation, but more initiative; and these do not believe in expressing their longings in mental and physical invalidism. These women have simply decided that they, too, are persons, and believe in the possibility of transforming their lives into something that is beautiful and inspiring, even if they do not meekly accept the traditions of their sex. Dr. Isham is very emphatic on one point; that because women choose careers, instead of marrying, is no evidence that they are lacking in those characteristics which we are inclined to single out as "domestic" and "maternal." Such, rather, are women who are endowed with a large amount of creative energy, for which they must find expression; indeed, in a finer analysis, success and achievement are nothing more than what Freud terms "sublimated forms" of sex instinct. Hence, after all, it is a consolation that we can believe that a woman may be leading the life God intended her to live without going in for marriage at any price. The fundamental preference of every woman is, quite probably, for a happy marriage; but a failure to achieve this ideal is not necessarily to her discredit. The reasons for her not marrying are numerous; but the lack of maternal instinct is, according to our authority, not often a real cause. At all
events, if it is a preference for an independent "career", we are led to believe that the basis is the same as that for a happy marriage; that real womanliness is the determinative factor in feminine success anywhere.

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**Is It Contemporary Fiction That Is Wrong?**

One of America's popular novelists recently answered the question, "What is the matter with contemporary fiction?" by stating quite positively, as his belief, that the dullness and insincerity of our novels is due to the taste of the majority of the readers,—which resolves itself, if he is correct in his deduction, into a lack of literary taste in women. The publishers, who have probably the best data on the subject, claim that women are the chief purchasers of works of fiction, and that they are getting exactly what they want, and insist upon having. It appears, then, from all accounts, fiction is quite a success; the publishers, the writers, and the readers seem to be gaining their ends. Are the few men who read novels complaining because fiction does not make a more direct appeal to their tastes? They certainly have no right to a voice in this matter, even if they are writing most of the "more notable" works in this field.

It is true, from the viewpoint of those who have read the masters, of those who have critical standards, of those who would like to see the novelist's work reckoned among the arts, there might be something to say. Fiction writing, of course, has become largely a trade, in which any one who has the leisure can make a fair success. It will, however, never be otherwise, until the critics dare to express their real convictions, instead of giving the usual amiable and perfunctory reviews that publishers print on the loose cover of the works they send out; and the taste of the reading public, whether that means women or not, is on a higher plane.

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**The Working Out of the Ideal in Education**

The more or less confused state of opinion as to many questions of matter, method, and spirit, in the experimental adjustment of the material that has some
bearing on the after activities of men and women to that which has a purely educative value, does not disturb the one deep-rooted conviction, in all the uncertainty prevailing, that, while much energy, time, and means are wasted, and wonder properly exists that such demoralized curricula as may be found in many quarters can continue to flourish in an age so pronouncedly systematic and scientific, because of the curse of inexpert opinion and snap-shot judgment, this very unrest and dissatisfaction hints possibly at an ultimately sound solution of the great educational problems involved. There is, we may assure ourselves, an ideal education, the meaning of which, tho only vaguely felt, has taken such a firm grip on the minds of men, that it must be possible of realization; for, tritely enough, it may be declared, that the settled conviction of a race or a nation is but the evidence of the crystallization of the common sense opinion of a people, and, sooner or later, will find expression in their lives.

**The Proposed Ogden Memorial**

The friends of Robert C. Ogden, the gracious friend of the South, are planning to erect at Hampton Institute a suitable memorial to this great benefactor of southern education, as a testimony of their appreciation of the unique character of his work. That Hampton Institute is a fitting place for a lasting memorial of him will be recognized when it is recalled that it was at this Institute that Mr. Ogden began his work for the improvement of our educational conditions, and it was here that his labors closed. It was, in fact, thru Mr. Ogden's interest in Hampton and the education of the negro that he came to understand the peculiar educational problems of the South. The work of the Southern Education Board, constituted under Mr. Ogden's leadership, marked an epoch in national progress; it brought together men and women of the North and the South who were of such a character as to further greatly the improvement, development, and progress of southern schools. The memorial that is proposed is in the form of an auditorium and is to be of a dignity such as to commemorate fittingly the feeling which the people of all sections have for the wise leadership and splendid character of this man of business and ideals.
Virginians visiting the Panama-Pacific Exposition had nothing to be ashamed of in the representation made by the old mother state. The reproduction of the home of Washington was perfect in detail. It occupied the most beautiful site on the grounds, and contained an excellent collection of charts, maps, and pictures showing the rapid strides we have made in education within our borders. It was presided over by charming hostesses who extended a real old Virginia welcome. A constant stream of visitors passed thru during the entire day. It was not by far the most expensive state building, but few, if any, attracted so much serious attention and elicited so much favorable comment.

The Educational Conference at Richmond during Thanksgiving week proved to be the same gigantic performance that it has been for some years. Little in the way of immediate tangible results can be expected from so large a gathering. Its value lies in its inspirational character rather than in its efficiency as a working organization.

The platform of principles adopted by the Virginia State Teachers Association this year deserves careful attention. 1. More money for schools. 2. Effective compulsory education. 3. Adequate salaries for professionally trained teachers. 4. Higher professional standards for teachers. 5. Medical inspection of schools. 6. Expert supervision for all schools. 7. Adequate provision for vocational education. 8. Minimum salary of $40; minimum term of eight months. Can we beat that for a campaign program?

It is not a credit to us in the East that whenever Utah is mentioned we think only of a certain small group of people who at one time held peculiar views as to marriage. We have much to learn from this progressive state. Eighty-six per cent. of all her revenues are used for public education, and many hundreds of thousands are expended annually by private organizations for the
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same purpose. Consolidation is universal. Textbooks are free. Agriculture is required. Nearly every school has its gymnasium and library. All elementary school teachers must be graduates of four-year high schools and, in addition, have a certain amount of professional training. The great majority of all teachers are graduates of the normal schools. State funds are used to help those counties which have done their utmost and yet are below the standard. A minimum school term of twenty-eight weeks is required, and a minimum salary of $525 per year must be paid to the teachers. Shall we marvel that eighty-one per cent. of all the children in Utah attend the public schools and that there is only two per cent. of illiteracy in the state!

"Virginia spends $11.35 per capita in educating the children of her counties while Oregon spends $32.00, and the average for the entire forty-eight states is $30.00. Thus, from a monetary standpoint, Virginia children are only one-third as well trained as Oregon children, or as the average children of the country at large!" If you have not seen a copy of "Counting the Cost," a striking little pamphlet recently issued by the Department of Public Instruction, get it—ponder over it—then act!

The three greatest needs of our public educational system at present are, namely, 1. Money; 2. More money; 3. Still more money. Is it unreasonable to ask that our Virginia boys and girls have educational advantages which can be supplied by raising the per capita expenditure to a minimum of $20.00 for country children and $30.00 for city children?

Our General Assembly which convenes January 12 will have many matters before it concerning the educational interests of the state. As usual, numerous bills of doubtful expediency will be introduced, and the friends of our educational system must be constantly on the alert. Some good constructive measures will be brought before the legislators. These must be kept alive and not allowed to die on the calendar. Legislative committees have been appointed from the chief educational organizations of the state. All who have the welfare of our public schools at heart should get behind these commit-
tees and do everything possible to aid and encourage them in their work.

"It isn't so much what they know, but it's the spirit in which they go about their work, that makes these normal graduates so desirable as teachers," said a Division Superintendent recently. He struck right at the heart of the matter. To know what to teach, to know how to teach, to have the right attitude to one's work, these three, but the greatest of these is the last.

It is reported that one of our American universities will register nearly 25,000 students the present scholastic year. Large enrollments seem to be universally reported throughout the country. This speaks well for "preparedness" of the right sort. For the next half-century America will have to carry more than her share of the burden of civilization, and the young men and women now in our schools and colleges will be the nation's dependence.

United States Commissioner of Education Claxton has devised a scheme whereby the library resources of the various states may be used to advantage by local communities and individual citizens. Our own state Librarian has declared his willingness to co-operate heartily in the plan and has placed the rich resources of our state library at his command. Teachers and others interested in community development will do well to become informed on the subject.

The small rural school seems at last to be coming into its own. The Department of Public Instruction has assigned one of its inspectors—who, by the way, is the best qualified man in the state by training, experience, and temperament for such work—to the specific task of standardizing schools of this type. Each "standard school" will be awarded a diploma and from $50 to $100 out of a special fund provided by the General Assembly. Is not this a reward worth seeking? A score card and a pamphlet giving full explanations may be obtained for the asking.

"Planted trees, worked road and walks, put new locks on doors, oiled floors, put wire around lot, made gates, put up two sets of basket ball poles, gave books
to library, paid three teachers for one month”—all that accomplished by one School and Civic League during the past year! Is league work worth while? Well, we should say it is!

The annual address of State Superintendent Stearnes, made at the Educational Conference in Richmond, was filled to the brim with interesting facts and bubbling over with encouragement. Hundreds of new schoolhouses have been erected, the enrollment of pupils has greatly increased, school patrons have become interested to an extent greater than ever before, and illiteracy is being reduced at a gratifying rate. The improvement in the colored schools of the state, so much of which has been accomplished by the efforts of the colored people themselves, is one of the great sources of satisfaction. Perhaps the most astounding statement in the Superintendent's report is that the public school enrollment has increased as much in the past three years as during the preceding nineteen years. Mr. Stearnes calls attention to the fact that this great increase demands a corresponding increase in the revenue required to maintain the schools. Increased efficiency and a broadening of the work of the schools also demands larger funds.

The recently reorganized Conference for Education in the South has undertaken, in conjunction with the United States Commissioner of Education a nation-wide campaign for a more efficient school system. It has set for itself the task, "to bring full and equal opportunity of education to every boy and girl in America." As means to this end it proposes: "1. A school term of not less than 160 days. 2. A sufficient number of adequately prepared teachers. 3. Consolidation of rural schools with an average area of about twelve miles for each school. 4. Teacher's home and a demonstration farm from five to fifty acres. 5. An all-year session adapted to local conditions. 6. A county library with branch libraries at the centers of population, with the schools used as distributing centers. 7. Community organization with the school as the intellectual, industrial, educational, and social center." A big program—but who is willing to set a lower standard!

J. A. B.
Among the new enterprises of the past quarter, the thing that stands out, from an administrative point of view, as especially worthy of mentioning is the organization of the Bible study classes on a credit basis. The course of instruction as at present formulated is open as an elective to the juniors and seniors, but is entirely optional. There is, however, an enrollment of 125 members. These classes are conducted by several members of the faculty with groups made up in accordance with church preference. One period of Bible study is held during the week at the school and one on Sunday at the various Sunday schools represented in the week day class; the latter deals with the training for Sunday school teaching. There is a great deal of interest manifested and the students have done a term of splendid work.

A special Bulletin has recently been issued from the school, entitled "Home Demonstration Work in Virginia." It contains an account of the short course in household arts given here last summer to the prize winners of the Girls' Canning Clubs of the various counties of the State. It includes papers written by the girls, recipes used in their work, and descriptions of labor saving devices made by them.

The literary societies have been active in debates, music, and dramatics during the past quarter. The modern Morality play, "Every Woman", "The Courtship of Miles Standish", "Comus", and "The Canterbury Pilgrims" were among the dramatic interests. All three societies will unite in an effort to celebrate fittingly the Shakespeare Ter-Centenary during the next two quarters, reaching a climax in the latter part of April in an elaborate pageant.

Anent the Shakespeare Tercentennial, arrangements have been made with the Coburns, and the Devereaux Players for the production of some of the more interesting and attractive Shakespearean plays during the coming spring and summer.
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The music department is arranging for a folk-song festival, to be held within the next few weeks. The songs of all nations and the Old English ballads will be rendered in costume, and with the settings that will make them most attractive and impressive.

The faculty has recently initiated the custom of giving a five o’clock tea to successive groups of students each Thursday, with the object of adding to the social life of the school and the friendly relation between the faculty and the students.

The following is a list of some of our alumnae and the interesting work they are doing:

Lizzie S. McGahey (Reg. Nor., 1912)—Grade Teacher in Training School at Williamsburg, Va.
Tracie Burtner (Reg. Nor., 1914)—Primary Teacher, Jennings, Louisiana.
Martha Folk (Prof., 1915)—Principal of High School at New Hope, Augusta County, Va.
Evelyn Koogler (Kgn., 1915) and Mary Elizabeth Smith are teaching in the public schools of Newport News, Va.
Mary Virginia Greer (H. Arts, 1912)—Rural Supervisor, Richmond, Va.
Katherine Selby (Prof., 1913)—Grade Teacher, Port Chester, New York.
Ruth A. Round (Kgn., 1912)—Specialized in Physical Education at Columbia University last year and is now an instructor in Physical Education in the Binford Junior High School, Richmond, Va.
Sadie Davies (H. Arts, 1912)—Instructor in High School, Mt. Jackson, Va.
Mrs. Stuart Steger (nee Annie Davis) (H. Arts, 1911)—Supervisor of Manual Arts, Richmond, Va.
Lillian V. Gilbert (Ind. Arts, 1913—R. Normal, 1914)—Supervisor of Industrial Work in Vance County, Henderson, N. C.
Frances I. Mackey (Ind. Arts, 1913)—Instructor of

M. Ledge Moffett (H. Arts, 1911) and Lillian Lavinia Simmons (M. Arts, 1911)—Instructors in State Normal School, East Radford, Va.

Ione Bell, (Prof., 1913), Alma Reiter (R. Normal, 1913), Ethel Sprinkel (Kgn., 1911), Vada Whitesel (Prof., 1912), and Harriet Brown (R. Normal, 1915) are all teaching in the public schools of Harrisonburg, Va.

Edmonia B. Shepperson (M. Arts, 1912)—Supervisor of Manual Arts, Richmond, Va.

Elsie Shickel (Prof., 1911—Ind. Arts, 1914)—Instructor of Industrial Arts, Daleville College, Daleville, Va.

Mary Lancaster Smith (H. Arts, 1914)—Domestic Science Teacher, Young Women’s Christian Association, Richmond, Va.

Mamie Livick (H. Arts, 1914) and Edith V. Suter (Kgn., 1913)—Instructors in Brandon Institute, Basic City, Va.


Amelia H. Brooke (Prof., 1911)—Assistant to Matron, State Normal School, Harrisonburg, Va.

Annie E. Sale (H. Arts, 1913)—Supervisor of Industrial Work in Warwick and York Counties, Denbigh, Va. She won two first prizes and one second prize at the State Fair in Richmond.

Susie D. Madison (H. Arts, 1912)—County Supervisor of Industrial Education, Denbigh, Va.

Mary J. Davis (Ind. Arts, 1915)—Instructor of Manual Arts, Richmond, Va.


Hallie Hughes (Ind. Arts, 1912)—Supervisor of Industrial Education, Burkeville, Va.

Juliet Gish (Prof., 1913)—Supervisor of Industrial Education, Bedford, Va.

Kate Taylor (Prof., 1912)—Primary Supervisor, Hampton, Va.
Sarah Shields (Prof., 1911; Ind. Arts, 1914)—Instructor of Domestic Science, Cincinnati, Ohio.

Vergilia Sadler (Prof., 1911)—High School Teacher, Turbeville, Va.

Mary Thom (Kgn., 1912)—Kindergarten Supervisor, Miami, Florida.

Ruth R. Conn (Reg. Nor., 1912)—Teacher in the Training School, William and Mary College, Williamsburg, Va.

We should be glad to publish here any interesting information about the alumnae and others who have been in attendance at this school.—Editor.
BOOK REVIEWS

**An Abridgment of the Virginia Laws Concerning Education**, by Anna L. Jones (J. P. Bell Co., Inc., Lynchburg, Va.)

A painstaking compilation of the constitutional and statutory provisions of Virginia law for public education is found in this volume, together with an appendix containing a list of public school officials, regulations of the State Board of Education and of the State Board of Health, and other matter of special interest concerning agricultural and home economics extension work. The book is fully indexed, and is a handy reference work for all school officials, teachers, and citizens interested in public education. It should be of special value to members of civic leagues and similar organizations seeking the improvement of the schools. A considerable portion of the material is necessarily of a temporary character, and the author has inserted a number of blank pages at the end for future additions. It is quite probable also that she will find it advisable to issue a supplement after each session of the General Assembly.

J. A. B.

**The Rural School—Its Methods and Management**, by Culter and Stone (Silver, Burdett & Co., New York City, $1.00)

The purpose in this book has been to combine a discussion of the teaching and administrative sides of school work in such a manner as to help the teacher of the small, ungraded, rural school, with practically no supervision. The spirit of the entire book is discovered in a statement in the preface, namely, "A one-room school in the rural districts, taught by a competent teacher, is still a good place for a boy or girl to get the elements of an education." In the first part the authors discuss in a very practical and interesting style the schoolhouse and its surroundings, the teacher, the program, the recitation, the play of pupils, the library, school government, school ethics, the duties and opportunities of the rural teacher, and consolidation. In the
second part the various branches of the rural school curriculum are considered and many practical suggestions given as to methods of teaching them. The only adverse criticism that could be made of this excellent volume is that the authors have attempted to treat a very extensive range of topics in a very small space; but the advantage it presents to offset this fact, which no doubt the authors themselves recognized fully, is that in one small volume, the price of which is in easy reach of the average teacher in the country schools, is comprehensively arranged a variety of well-selected material touching upon most of the problems which the teacher is called upon to face in her work from the first day to the last. No mistake was made in adding this book to the State Reading Course for the present year.

J. A. B.

Educational Hygiene; from the pre-school period to the university. Edited by Louis W. Raper, Ph. D., Professor of Education, Pennsylvania State College. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York.

The title of this book indicates the rank to which the subject of hygiene has attained, how it has broadened its scope and deepened its interest, in that it is now classed with educational psychology, educational sociology, educational history, and the like.

The editor has brought together in organized form the latest information and advice of twenty-eight leading specialists in medical supervision, physical education, the teaching of hygiene, and the hygiene of instruction. Numerous illustrations, charts, and diagrams make more clear and impressive the various facts, statistics, and practical suggestions contained in the 650 pages of the book.

The school is in such close and intimate relationship with the health work of the home and community, that it must be largely responsible for the neglect or attention which this work receives. On this account, teachers should use every means of availing themselves of expert advice as to the best ways of conserving the human resources of this country now being wasted at an appalling rate, mainly thru ignorance.

Teachers cannot usually afford to buy many books
on one subject, and this is an excellent opportunity to secure in one volume and concise form the most recent developments in the study of what is perhaps the foremost concern of citizens and governments today.

M. I. B.

The Art of the Story Teller, by Marie L. Shedlock.

For the story teller and one having any interest in the art of story telling, Miss Shedlock has made a rare contribution. As she puts it, "The art of story telling appeals, not only to the educational world and to parents as parents, but also to a wider public interested in the subject from a purely human point of view." It is this wider public that Miss Shedlock does not forget for one instant in this carefully considered treatment of this world-old theme. Besides the valuable chapters on the method of story telling, she gives a list of the best stories to tell, suggestions in books for the story teller, and books referred to in the lists of stories. The book also contains a hundred pages of stories as typical of the principles the author lays down. An interesting feature is a number of answers to the questions commonly asked by teachers.

M. A. S.


A notable work that has recently appeared in the field of social science is a volume by Edward C. Hayes, professor of sociology in the University of Illinois, entitled "Introduction to the Study of Sociology." It is intended as a textbook in colleges and as a comprehensive manual for the home student. It discusses in detail the practical social problems of our day, shows clearly how the individual personality is shaped by society, including the society of the school, the playground, and the home; and how society is shaped by natural causes and how it may be modified by the cooperative endeavor of individuals. The outline presents four heads: (1) The Causes that Mould the Life of Society and Their Effects; (2) The Life of Society; (3)
Social Evolution; (4) Social Control. The book is offered with the hope that it may promote comprehension and insight and help some of its readers to find themselves with reference to the perplexing problems, the opportunities, and the responsibilities of the life we live in society.


Mr. Sandwick’s book is another contribution to the literature on this newly popularized aspect of pedagogy. In 1902, in one of Doctor Frank McMurry’s classes at Teachers’ College, Columbia University, the question of teaching children “how to study” was raised; attention was called to the fact that how to study was not a conscious problem among teachers; the importance of the question as a teaching problem was emphasized. As a reaction to this class suggestion, a number of the students subsequently took up the matter for investigation and as a result we have since had a few critical studies in published form; and general popularity was given to this aspect of pedagogy. Dr. Lida Earhart’s dissertation on “Teaching Children How to Study,” Dr. Dewey’s book on “How We Think,” and Dr. McMurry’s book on “How to Study and Teaching How to Study” make up in the main the critical literature on the subject.

Mr. Sandwick’s book is the latest contribution to the subject. There is nothing new in the little book. Its main value lies in the treatment of the practical aspect of the problem of teaching children how to study effectively. The book is divided into two parts; the first discusses the principles of effective study, and the second takes up what we study and why.

The book is full of excellent suggestions as to procedure. These are expressed in more or less popular form. The second is probably the most valuable part of the book. In this he takes up the various subjects in the curriculum of both the elementary school and the secondary school and tells in a very concrete way how to attack them. Typical outlines and plans of study are numerously given. The book closes with a discussion of the main characteristics of efficiency.

The book should find a profitable use in Teachers’
Principles of Elementary Education, by Dr. Frank P. Bachman. (Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1915.)

A recent contribution to educational literature has been made by Dr. Frank P. Bachman. This author has had a wide experience in dealing with elementary schools; therefore his recent book, Principles of Elementary Education and Their Application, brings to the student of education a clear exposition of the learning process as applied to the child, the course of study, and the demands of society.

Several books have been written upon the same thesis, but Dr. Bachman's book differs from these in two respects: viz., his approach to the subject and his application of the principles evolved. The approach is thru society's need for an educated individual. Thru an analysis of the problems arising from the relationship existing between the individual and society, the author develops certain social needs with corresponding psychical characteristics which may be developed to satisfy these demands. The most important of these characteristics is the will.

The close organization of the book gives the student a clear view of the relation of certain typical methods of teaching to the learning process which has its basis in the psychical development of the individual. The educational principles, having been developed clearly and illustrated by means of everyday experiences are frequently summarized in definite statements which make it possible to apply them to many situations.

Part II of the book is an application of the principles evolved in Part I. The most significant of these are the following: "Education is a function of society, and the educational system of a given society must be such as will provide for its existence, development, and perfection." "The giving of appropriate expression, control, and direction to the will, or the development of the will, constitute the primary work of education." "The development of the intellect is the secondary work of edu-
cation, and the intellect must be so developed with respect to form and content and only so developed as to give to the will the necessary expression and desired determination.''

The application of these principles to the aims, curriculum, instruction, and organization of the elementary school is thoroughly worked out. In the chapter on Elementary School Instruction, the author has followed in his development of the inductive and deductive methods of teaching the Herbartian "Five Formal Steps." This is also seen in the excellent "Lesson Plans" in the following chapter.

The final chapter on the organization of the school gives a summary of the various principles developed with their direct application to the school system, the instrument of social progress.

The book is written in a readable style, has a valuable bibliography connected with each topic, and is a good text for either classes in education or teachers who have had some experience in educational literature.

R. E. G.

OTHER RECENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

(These may be reviewed at greater length in a later issue.)

**The Art of the Moving Picture**, by Rachel Lindsay, (The Macmillan Company, New York, Price, $1.25.)

A series of vivid, direct, and fascinating chapters on the types of photo plays, the value of scientific films, news films, educational, and political films; and a summary of the points of difference between the film drama and other dramatic forms.


A practical guide for training in its larger sense of training for manhood, an attempt to set up an ideal of vigorous manhood and to supply the youth with the necessary information for its achievement.


Four essays by one of the most witty, incisive, and stimulating of American writers of today; they are filled
with humor, with keen and suggestive comment, and with wisdom set forth with great charm.

**Religious Education**, by W. A. Lambert, (Richard G. Badger, Boston. Price, 75 cents net.)

A plea for co-operation of Protestant Churches, to the end that the child may have its rightful heritage of a proper religious education.

**How to Teach the Fundamental Subjects**, by Calvin N. Kendall and George A. Mirick. (Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston. Price, $1.25.)

The results of unusual opportunities to gain experience and observation in elementary school instruction on the part of the authors, presented in a simple, direct way calculated to render a maximum of assistance to both experienced and inexperienced teachers.

**American Ideals**, by Clayton Sedgwick Cooper. (Double-day, Page & Company. Price, $1 net.)

A thoughtful survey of the higher tendencies of America today. It is a book of present value and inspiration to every citizen at a time when Americans realize more keenly than ever before the meaning and richness of our national life.

**The American College**, by Isaac Sharpless. (Double-day, Page & Company. Price, 60 cents net.)

A valuable account of a peculiarly national institution, the American college.


“The outcome of practical experiments to create an atmosphere of activity and responsibility for the child in the classroom.”

**College Sons and College Fathers**, by Professor Henry S. Canby. (Harper & Brothers, New York. Price, $1.20.)

An examination of the three angles of university education, from the viewpoints of the student, the professor, and the public. The author thinks that the attitude of the average American toward education is in greater need of reconstruction than is the college.

An examination of the most advanced methods now used in a number of the schools of this country. These methods are considered in relation to their educational and social results.

CHARACTER AND TEMPERAMENT, by Joseph Jastrow. (D. Appleton & Co. Price, $2.50.)

The result of the author’s many years of study in experimental and comparative psychology, in which the questions of the psychology of sex, race, class, family, and occupation are ably discussed. He shows how, in the complex life of the day, the natural tendencies of the individual can be discerned and guided, to his own benefit and the advantages of society.

WITH THE MAGAZINES

The English Journal

An editorial in the November number suggests the coming spring, the Shakespeare tercentenary, as an especially appropriate time for initiating the good custom of having annually a civic festival that will unite the whole community, schools, clubs, and organizations of every kind. This time it might be a Shakespeare festival, a whole day being devoted to Shakespearean merrymaking. The morning might be given to a grand parade, the afternoon to a pageant, out-of-door sports, and folk dances, and the evening to an out-door presentation of a Shakespearean play. The expense might be met by a preliminary sale of tags.

At least a part of this plan could be carried out by almost any grade of school, and the initiative in every instance properly lies with schools and teachers. At the present time the United States seems to be the only country on earth in a position to do fitting honor to this anniversary, and the writer thinks we should consider it a duty as well as a privilege to contribute to a perpetuation of world literature.
With the Magazines

School Science and Mathematics

"Some Things Teachers Should Know about the Work of Other Teachers" is the title of an article in the November issue. The writer urges that it is necessary for teachers to keep posted in regard to what others are doing in the same line of work, in order to broaden and deepen their own minds by securing new ideas and perhaps getting rid of some old ones. To this end, school boards should permit teachers to visit other schools not only in their immediate vicinity, but in other cities or towns, as increased efficiency of teachers must result, and also direct benefit to the pupils, from bringing into their school life ideas and suggestions from other educational centers. In some localities it has been found that much good results from an exchange of teachers for several weeks. Progressive teachers should work and push for something of this kind in the schools with which they are connected.

The Educational Review

In "The Boy Scouts", Henry S. Curtis gives an interesting sketch of the history, aims, and advantages of this order which has had such a wonderful growth since General Baden-Powell founded it in England about five years ago. It is said that there are now over three million scouts distributed over every civilized country. As the movement seems to be here to stay, and as it corresponds with a fundamental interest of boys, developing both mind and body in right directions, it is judged to be of sufficient importance to demand some of the school time. The school could well afford to give Friday afternoon in the two upper grades of the elementary school, and the first two years of high school to scouting. Scouting has been on the school program in many private and some public schools in Europe for some time. It is claimed that children will learn more on a "hike" during an afternoon than in a whole week in the schoolroom. The virtues which the order requires of its members are just those which a true teacher will try to cultivate in the boys, and it would seem that such help should be sought by all in the profession. If it be desired to organize a troup of Scouts, application should be made to the headquarters of the order at 200 Fifth Avenue, New York
City, for permission and particulars. Mr. James E. West is the Executive Secretary of the order.

**Manual Training and Vocational Education**

"To Fit Millions for Their Work" is the striking title of the opening article of the December number. The writer, Alvin E. Dodd, explains the nature and purpose of the Smith-Hughes Bill "a natural preparedness plan to equip this country for holding industrial and commercial supremacy in the future." This Bill will come before Congress this winter. It extends to the states the help of the government in establishing vocational education and in training persons to teach it. This is to be done not by establishing government schools, but by helping the various states to develop the work themselves. For each dollar received from the government the state is required to expend an equal amount for the same purpose, besides meeting all costs of plant, equipment, and maintenance. The commission appointed by the President found that almost everywhere in the United States boys and girls leave school at about fourteen years of age to go to work, unskilled, and unable to take responsibility; only one per cent. of the 25,000,000 industrial workers have had adequate training. This condition causes an enormous economic loss; the passage of this Bill will, it is believed, in a large measure prevent this loss, and alter materially the place of the United States in the commercial and industrial world. While Europe is killing off her trained workers, we shall be training ours. The teaching force of this country should do all in its power to influence its state representatives to vote for this bill. The Page Bill, of the same general purpose, was defeated in the House of Representatives in 1912, altho it had passed the Senate.

**Education**

An editorial in the December number comments upon the "Foreword" upon a circular recently sent to the teachers of Boston, Mass., by one of the educational departments of that city. The Foreword is by Dr. Franklin B. Dyer, Superintendent of Schools in Boston, and contains a series of questions to be used by teachers for self-examination. Dr. Dyer believes that the teach-
ing of the schools can be improved only as the teachers themselves feel the need of self-improvement; and that the first step towards improvement is a rigid self-examination thru which each one may see himself as he is, in the light of what he should be, with the result that he will then make a greater effort to strengthen his weak places.

The questions given relate to personal characteristics, and seem especially appropriate in the light of the fact that often the most earnest and devoted teachers become careless in the matter of small details of dress, etc., and unconsciously allow little peculiar ways to creep upon them. Many ideals and practices besides those relating to the use of English grammar are “caught, not taught”, and it would be well for all who have charge of young people to unite with the teachers of Boston in asking themselves:

1. Is my personal appearance as good as I can make it?
2. Is my mien natural and sincere rather than affected and assumed?
3. What mannerisms have I that can be overcome?
4. Is my voice well modulated?
5. What traits are there in my disposition which I should hold in check?
6. Am I careful to keep myself in as good physical health as possible?

Questions from this circular relating to the actual work of teaching will follow in future numbers of this magazine.

*Boston Journal of Education*

The issue for December 9 contains the Code of Professional Ethics adopted by the New Hampshire State Teachers Association, and it is well worth the careful consideration of every one connected with educational work. Some especially valuable provisions of the Code are:

The duty of teachers to the community is to be loyal to those in authority over them. In case of a conflict of educational ideals between teachers and trustees or school boards, while they should recognize the fact that the school authorities must direct the general policy of the school, it is the duty of teachers to be loyal to their
professional ideals, to protest against any violation of professional ethics, and in extreme cases to resign, stating their reasons to the community.

It is an essential part of the ethics of the profession that teachers should constantly familiarize themselves with its recognized and authoritative literature.

It is unprofessional for teachers to criticize collaborators and predecessors, as such procedure tends to weaken the confidence in which the work of our profession is held by the community.

It is unprofessional for teachers to tutor pupils of their own classes for remuneration.

It is unprofessional for teachers to promote the interests of canvassers and other salesmen, either directly or indirectly, by writing testimonials of their wares.

It is unprofessional for teachers to resign during the period for which they have been engaged. They may rightly ask to be released, by giving notice of not less than four weeks, but must in case of refusal abide by their contract. A clear understanding of the law of contracts is incumbent upon all teachers.

M. I. B.
VIRGINIA ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SCHOOLS FOR GIRLS

No other occasion has been to the faculty of this school, perhaps, quite so full of inspiration and delightful social intercourse as the meeting of the Virginia Association of Colleges and Schools for Girls, held here during the first three days of September.

Besides the fifty delegates and visitors who were guests of the school, a considerable number of townspeople were in attendance to enjoy the discussions and to greet old friends. In fact, the Harrisonburg citizens one afternoon whisked the entire delegation away in cars to see the town and the Valley round about.

Miss Mattie P. Harris, of Virginia College, presided with unfailing graciousness and good humor, and the entire conference was marked by great smoothness and harmony.

It is impossible here to mention in any detail the fine talks within the meetings and the equally delightful talking outside. In addition to the faithful stand-bys of the association there were this year an unprecedented variety of new speakers. The address of Dr. W. T. Sanger, of Bridgewater College, on Women's Colleges as Differing from Colleges for Men aroused much animated discussion, especially in private. Dr. J. P. McConnell, of Radford, in an address touched throughout with both humor and deep feeling made an earnest plea for training girls for steady, lifelong social service. He fears the professionalism of the mere secretary, whose philanthropy and leadership are too often dependent on an office and letterheads. Miss Anna Petersen, the new superintendent of the Virginia Industrial School for Girls, convinced all minds and stirred all hearts by her appeal for the type of work among delinquent girls which her institution represents. Dean Eleanor L. Lord, of Goucher College, set forth with equal fairness the pros and cons of making Latin optional as an entrance requirement. She was also of great service throughout the general discussions. Members of the Harrisonburg faculty spoke on Library Work, Household Management,
and Trained Nursing as vocations; and Dr. J. L. Armstrong, of Randolph-Macon Woman's College, and others were ready to help with any question that arose. Of course we always count on Dr. Orie L. Hatcher to bring us something good. On Friday afternoon she explained the purpose of the Bureau of Vocations for Women, and the last evening was devoted entirely to her talk on the Shakespeare Tercentenary and to a reception tendered by President and Mrs. Burruss.

The chief business interest of the meeting centered around the report of the Committee on Standardisation, which is given below. This standing committee, consisting of Dr. Orie L. Hatcher, Dr. Mary K. Benedict, and President Julian A. Burruss, was elected by the association in 1913 to put into operation the twofold resolution then just adopted, namely, (a) That any institution below the rank of a full college shall present within five years at least four pupils who pass satisfactorily the College Entrance Board Examinations; and (b) that any school desiring rank as a junior college shall within five years present at least three students who gain by examination advanced standing of not less than two years (thirty hours) at some one of the standard colleges asked to co-operate with us in this process of standardisation—namely, Vassar, Smith, Goucher, Wellesley, and Mount Holyoke.

At the annual meeting in 1914 this plan met with some criticism on the part of certain members not present when it was adopted. Hence the following report explains the reason for what the committee modestly chose to term its comparative inactivity during the past year.

The chairman being necessarily delayed, the report was read by Mr. Burruss.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON STANDARDISATION

Such opposition as developed last year to the plan of standardisation made the committee prefer to use no further initiative until it had asked the association to reconsider two important questions.

I. Is it necessary or highly important for our Virginia schools and colleges to establish clear relationships throughout the country, by the attainment of generally recognised standards?

II. If we still wish to attempt this, is our present plan capable of improvement?
I. As to the necessity or importance of the generally recognised standard:

1. The present confusion of standards is unjust to Virginia girls who must use training in Virginia schools either as a basis for higher training or, in competition with graduates of standardised colleges, for positions. Even in Virginia we discriminate against our own institutions in selecting teachers, where there is a choice between graduates from thoroughly standardised institutions outside and graduates from our own unstandardised institution. This is fair to the Virginia institution involved, but not to its graduates. Outside of Virginia, graduates from our unstandardised institutions are at a still greater disadvantage.

2. The increasing emphasis on educational standards is sure to cost Virginia institutions more and more patronage from outside Virginia, if we do not make ourselves part of the large educational world. This is true because—

(a) Prospective patrons at a distance naturally tend to compare institutions in different parts of the country. Prospective students are themselves becoming more inquisitive and discriminating as to the comparative value of one school or college and another. More girls each year are planning to go to college and are therefore interested in the power of a school to fit them for college and in the acceptance of that school work by the college in view.

(b) A vastly larger number of girls going to college are planning to do definite work after graduation, and therefore are choosing very carefully the college which will give them a diploma accepted without question of high market value as equipment. There is tremendously increasing interest among educated young women in becoming self-supporting and, even where this is not desired, in equipping themselves to do well some sort of responsible work.

(c) Those who appoint women to positions are becoming increasingly critical of educational pedigrees and degrees. The opening to women of new fields of activity requiring high training, the rapid increase in the number of women workers, and the critical spirit of the times are all contributing to a steadily rising standard for the equipment of the woman worker.

Our schools and colleges must answer both the ambitious practical student and the many people who use educated women's work, in terms which will be clear and convincing. If we have a standard which is understood and interchangeable in California, Missouri, Louisiana, and Massachusetts, we may reasonably expect to get creditable students from these states and to send them out provided with educational assets that will enable them to compete with graduates from standardised institutions. If we still insulate our standards and ask countrywide patronage, we must expect for the future from a distance chiefly the idle rich, the mediocre, and the unambitious. Those who think clearly and constructively will seek institutions where they can see more definitely the relation of means to end.

Co-operation in standards by no means involves uniformity of subjects taught. Probably no two colleges in the country have identical curricula. Each of the colleges which have been co-operating with us has many differences in curriculum from the others, and will continue to have them. Our committee presented suggestion last year from co-operative colleges as to subjects best suited for junior college
work only because their larger equipment and experience had shown what subjects can be most safely taught with small equipment and would therefore be safest for a standard junior college to adopt. When we have found a group of subjects in which we maintain standard interchangeable values, however large the group, our choice among them would naturally be independent. If we are attempting a real junior college, however, it is illogical for us to include subjects for which the equipment is inadequate from the real college point of view, whether the junior college students involved are to continue college work or not.

II. The second question which we bring back to the association for consideration involves inquiry as to ways in which the present plan is capable of improvement, granted that a universally recognised standard is still to remain our goal. It is this question which has chiefly occupied the minds of the committee this year, and it offers these results of its consideration.

1. Other measuring rods for our standard than the colleges chosen in the original plan.

(a) The Standard of the State Board. The State Board, with all its good work, is not attempting to define a universally recognised standard and has not attained one. Its problem, with reference to private Virginia institutions, as explained in its communication to our committee, is only to determine the requirements which the graduates of an institution must meet in order to be certificated as public school teachers. It expressly affirms the right of private institutions or groups of institutions to work out their own standards, and busies itself with local standards flexible enough to be met by the average school of its type.

(b) The Standard of the University of Virginia. This is not practicable, because women are not admitted and there is, therefore, no machinery for co-operation and no time allowed in the official schedule for formally assisting us in the work. Missouri has worked out excellent standardisation, especially among junior colleges, by the aid of the State University, but this course is not open to us.

(c) Some Virginia College of Recognised Standing. This is an exceedingly delicate point to discuss, but the committee has been so often criticised for not including any Virginia college on its list that it feels impelled to make some explanation and it asks the association either to indorse its action here or to give instructions as to what should be done in this connection. Two reasons have prevented the committee from recommending the inclusion of any Virginia college. The first is that, although a few of our Virginia colleges are of high rank, still, so far as the committee is informed, no one of them has yet secured that full right of interchange which forecloses all discussion as to its having the universally accepted standard. A second reason for the omission of any Virginia institution from the list—if a second reason is needed—has been the constant advice to the committee that it would be very unwise, under any conditions, to recommend this discrimination among Virginia institutions offering the A. B. degree. When some of our Virginia colleges by their privileges of interchange shall demonstrate the right to be included in the group furnishing us a universal standard, the only fair course for the association to follow will be open recognition of this fact, whether the association feels it
expedient to suggest one Virginia college as the measure for others or not. But at present such a course would be more justly open to criticism than any other, because inconsistent.

(d) The Standard of the Southern Association. The Association of Colleges and Preparatory schools of the South is not working even yet on the basis of a universally recognised standard, and its rejection of entrance examinations and adoption of a system of certification for schools in its own membership makes it doubtful whether its present plan could ever lead naturally to this country-wide recognition, although it has accomplished wonders in raising our Southern standard. Further, the Southern Association contains a very large proportion of schools and colleges for men, of state universities, etc., where women are not admitted, and must therefore include in its generalisations many forces not operating upon our women's colleges and schools for girls. Also, we have in our own state the woman's college in the South which has thus far secured the highest recognition; hence we cannot look to the women's colleges south of Virginia to furnish us with standards.

We are therefore thrown back upon the question as to where we may find a universally recognised standard for women's colleges, and we cannot escape the conclusion that it is to be found in a small group of eastern colleges which have stood the test of long scrutiny and country-wide acceptance. Moreover—and this is a vital point to us—they are, whether we agree to it or not, the measuring rod used by the public in estimating the value of other women's colleges throughout the country, and will continue to be so unless their standards decline or the standards of other women's colleges fully overtake theirs. Without intending to be so, they are the arch rivals of all other woman's colleges when the thoughtful girl, free to choose, is making up her mind where she will go. They are not to be ignored as measuring rods. Our own students—those who know of the wider educational world—are constantly measuring our schools or colleges by what they know of these and they will continue to do so. These colleges themselves have offered to try to show us, as far as possible, however, how we can compete with them successfully. If there are better measuring rods, or safer ones, to be found for a generally recognised standard, the association should welcome knowledge of them. It sees the present plan, however, as a third stage in the development of the process of standardisation,—the State Board working for certification of teachers in Virginia public schools; the Southern Association, for uniform standards among Southern institutions in its membership; and the Virginia Association or such of its schools as choose, for a national recognition. If the three plans marked different stages of progress along one clear path, the variety of management would be ideal; but they are all thus far independent. And yet, just as the State Board standards have no relation to those of the Southern Association and yet several of our schools wisely desire to have the sanction of both, so the third and highest standard may be combined with either of the others. Our schools must clearly have the right of certificate for their graduates and must therefore meet the requirements of the State Board for obtaining them, but with attention early enough to the Board's requirement in science, and one or two other points, that need not militate against the wider standards. So with membership in the Southern Association; it leaves certain requirements still to be met for the national standard, but does not prevent compliance with that.
Seeking for weak spots in the plan as adopted two years ago, the committee wishes to acknowledge the practical difficulty of sending girls out of Virginia to take examinations at colleges which they do not expect to attend. This arises both on account of the difficulty of persuading those not interested in further study to go for the sake of the college being standardised, and also from the expense and nervous tension involved. The committee proposes three solutions, to be considered for a year, along with any others which may be proposed during the meeting. The first it prefers not to emphasise at present.

(a) That these examinations be given in Virginia. This plan has already been suggested, but has not been pushed at all for reasons given at the beginning of this paper. The committee has been unwilling, in the present situation, to do much to develop relationships that might only result in embarrassment to itself. It is still unwilling to do so, under existing conditions.

(b) That the association itself appoint a board of examiners for advanced standing—the examinations to be held at convenient points in Virginia—but that such a board include experts identified with the highest standards, and able to help us in maintaining these for ourselves.

(c) That an institution prove its right to the rank of a junior college by furnishing to standard colleges—whether our own which may have demonstrated their right of interchange or those outside the state—within five years three graduates who each shall complete the work for the A. B. degree in two years. This plan involves no examinations other than those required by the college to which these candidates are sent—that is, it allows for all credits obtainable from the college involved—and throws the burden of proof upon the student's power to make good in the senior college work, rather than upon examinations. It necessitates the attainment of the A. B. degree by three students. If it is objected that a junior college might not be able to muster in five years three students willing and able to go on for the A. B. degree, this is unfortunate evidence. There is no magic in the numbers three and five as applied to students and years; the stipulation is, in fact, almost unconvincingly small. A junior college which could not, in five years, stimulate three of its students to overcome all difficulties and push on to the completion of the college course must inevitably be lacking in the intellectual and energising spirit which are the indispensable marks of the real college atmosphere. And although an institution of fine possibilities might need more than five years from this date to furnish even so small a proportion of adequate A. B. students, this only goes to prove that it needs a longer time to attain a real junior college standard. At a recent national conference in the interest of college standards the view prevailed that the number of students passing from the collegiate to post-graduate or university work is the best possible test of the standards of any college, because it shows the amount of quickening which has been given to the desire for further knowledge. If this test is needed even at the point where the liberal education is being formally completed, it is infinitely more necessary at the half-way station in the college work. If a junior college cannot incite a considerable proportion of its students to further study, it must be in spirit
a finishing school, and the spirit of the finishing school is the antithesis of any real college, whether junior or otherwise. It can only help a girl working to be “finished’ to have the stimulating disciplinary work which should characterise a junior college, but a junior college will inevitably be diluted and over-ornamented by combination with a finishing school; and the greatest danger of our undertaking lies just at this point. Nor is this necessarily a criticism of the finishing school—certainly not of those of the better sort— which have their definite place in the social economy.

The College Entrance Board Examinations, as an important part of our plan, have been a great stumbling block to some of our schools, which have felt that certification was the natural and reasonable method. Those who have followed the history of standardisation in the secondary schools of the country know that it has brought, first, a college requirement of entrance examinations, and later, in the wake of these, everywhere, a system of certification by which schools approved by certain colleges could send their graduates without examinations. This system has long prevailed in Wellesley, Vassar, Smith, Mt. Holyoke, and Goucher, although entrance examinations have also been needed and continued. Bryn Mawr has been the only one of the six colleges insisting upon entrance examinations for every candidate. Since these colleges began the custom, it has spread widely through the western colleges and more recently through the South. It has been evident in the East for several years that both schools and colleges were feeling the evils of the system. In many schools it has become the custom to divert to some other college where certification was offered, a pupil who had started to prepare for Bryn Mawr, but seemed too weak for the examinations. This was manifestly unfair to the other college. Also, it has become more and more clear to the heads of schools that students expecting to be certificated accomplished less in the way of preparation than those preparing for examinations. The result is that, within the past year, the Association of Preparatory Schools, which includes the sixty-three best schools of the East, has asked to have the college entrance examinations held in May, so that all candidates for college entrance may take them, and certification be abolished. The same movement is at work in the eastern colleges. Vassar has, for two years, been studying the question, chiefly through a comparison of the grade of students admitted by examination. Other colleges, too, have been restless over the unsatisfactory results of admission by certificate, and there is to be held next year a conference of the colleges of this group to consider, from their own side, the entire abolition of the certificate privilege. The committee has been told, by one of the presidents involved, that if certification is abolished, the form of entrance examinations will probably be changed to those involving less detail and a more comprehensive basis for judging mental development. The pertinency of all this lies for us, of course, in the fact that the pioneers of certification are, on both sides, admitting that it is unsatisfactory, and trying to get away from it back to examinations. They are finding that examinations, with all their own need of reform, are after all the indispensable tests. May we not learn from their mistakes, without losing so much time in making the mistakes ourselves?

In proposing new plans for consideration by junior colleges desiring to be standardised, the committee reminds the association that, even in the two years since our plan was formulated, interest in the junior college problem has spread widely through the country, and that the proper content of a junior college curriculum is being widely discussed. We are much more likely to arrive at a satisfactory solution
for ourselves, if we keep the subject open long enough to get all possible light on it from experiments and from a broad study of the question. The effort is being made by the U. S. Department of Education and other large educational forces to bring some sort of cooperation into the chaos of junior college formulas which have been multiplying throughout the country. There is no reason why we should not incorporate into our Virginia plan all that is especially desirable for us and still keep in touch with the larger currents.

The committee feels, on further study, that the association could very helpfully make suggestions as to the minimum equipment of institutions of the various types. It wishes to repeat its reminder of last year that really collegiate work, whether for junior colleges, or for the last two years of college work, involves broad equipment in the way of books, adequate laboratories for such scientific work as is attempted, and specialists with adequate academic training in charge of all teaching. It asks the association to consider carefully during the coming year the question as to how this necessity should be expressed in the plan of standardisation, whether by suggestions for a definite minimum equipment, or merely by vague and repeated emphasis. The Southern Association meets the difficulty by admitting to its membership only institutions which seem to its executive committee, on careful examination, to be satisfactory in equipment, as well as in other ways. Membership in our association, however, is open to all Virginia institutions for educating girls, and our plan of standardisation is optional for each institution. It is therefore all the more important that adequate, clear, and practical suggestions be available for those institutions desiring them.

The committee has several times been asked to explain why the association has interested itself in the standardisation of junior colleges and apparently not at all in that of colleges awarding the A. B. degree. The explanation lies in these facts. The association began at the bottom with secondary schools, and the committee feels that these are in a large sense a solution for the whole problem of standardisation. If we can have a sufficient number of schools, giving themselves to college preparatory work, adequate both in quantity and quality for the highest standards and meaning to be only schools, we shall be able to furnish all our junior colleges and A. B. colleges with enough well-prepared students for them to maintain with adequate equipment standard college work; also the line between secondary school work and the real college work will define itself in a clearer and more practical way. In the same way, if the junior college work first builds on thoroughly standardised secondary school work and then hands on to the upper college classes students who have done two years of thoroughly standardised junior college work, the A. B. colleges can do adequate senior college work. The undertaking is not an isolated one for any of these institutions. Our junior colleges are carrying secondary school work in combination with junior college work and ought to meet the standards of both, with clear lines of demarcation between them. So with the A. B. college: whatever the association recommends for a junior college is, by force of logic, recommended to an A. B. college for its junior college work, although a separate junior college might find it wise to choose differently from the A. B. College in a group of elective subjects for the first two years of college work.

The committee has also been asked to explain why no junior college is represented on a committee so largely concerned with the interests of these institutions. The answer must be given by the association. The committee was nominated two years ago from the floor of the association by the head of a junior college, who recommended that none of the institutions most closely involved in the plan be represented on the committee, and the association unanimously concurred.
in her recommendation. This accounts for all the absences of representatives of junior colleges from conferences on standardisation.

The committee further reports that the College Entrance Board Examinations were held under the auspices of the association at two points in June—at Virginia College and in Richmond. It points to the much greater probability than obtained last year that the examinations can be given in May, and also to the fact that they are likely to be made much less taxing physically to the candidate, if the thoroughly standardised eastern colleges change their own type of entrance examinations.

Finally, the committee announces a scholarship offered by Hollins College, one by Sweet Briar College, and one by Virginia College—all open to candidates who have successfully completed the required number of College Entrance Board examinations, that is, the fifteen points generally recognised as adequate. The scholarship in each case involves full tuition for one year. It is hoped that other institutions in the membership of the association will follow the example of these three. Such action cannot fail to be beneficial both to the institution and to the successful applicant for the scholarship.

The foregoing report was fully discussed and many questions were raised. After the difficulties and advantages of the present plan of standardisation had been generally sifted, the following resolution, offered by Dr. J. L. Jarman, of Farmville, and Dr. James Cannon, of Blackstone, was adopted:

RESOLVED, that the thanks of the association are hereby extended to its Committee on Standardisation for the careful and thorough investigation of the problems connected with this subject and said Committee be requested to continue its work for the coming year and report again at the next meeting.

The president of the association for the current year is Dr. J. P. McConnell, of Radford, the vice-presidents being Miss Katherine R. Glass, of Fort Loudoun Seminary, Miss M. H. DuVal, of St. Anne’s School, and Miss Nellie V. Butler, of Fauquier Institute.

The next annual meeting will be held June 13, 14, and 15, 1916, with the Chatham Episcopal Institute.

ELIZABETH P. CLEVELAND
Secretary
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The Victor In The Schools

Ever since its introduction into the schools, when the Victor first demonstrated its value in school work, it was a foregone conclusion that the school boards would eventually furnish their buildings with the Victor, just as they do with various other articles of school equipment—and that is just what is happening.

Heretofore each individual school has usually installed its own Victor, but now school boards have become so impressed with the usefulness of the Victor, and the fact that it is in daily use in the schools of more than one thousand cities, that they are including it as part of their standard equipment.

The school board of Dallas, Texas, has just appropriated two thousand dollars and added twenty-six more Victors (and appropriate records) to the number already in the schools, and they will eventually have two Victors in every school in the city.

Another indication of the increasing influence of the "Victor in the schools" is the endorsement and approval of the Victor Book "What We Hear In Music" by the Supervisor of Music and Board of School Superintendents, which has resulted in the school board of New York City placing it on the regular list of textbooks for use in the New York schools.

You have only to hear the special school records for marching, calisthenics, folk dancing, to realize the valuable field and boundless possibilities of the Victor in school work.

If you desire it, we will place a machine in your school for one week for demonstration purposes, or we would be glad to have you call at our store and talk the proposition over with us. Write to us for booklets and full information.

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