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THE TECHNE

Life without Labor is a Crime, Labor without Art
and the Amenities of Life is Brutality.—Ruskin.

Vol. XIII

MAY JUNE — 1930

No. 5

There is no teaching until the pupil
is brought into the same state or principle
in which you are; a transfusion
takes place; he is you, and you are he;
there is a teaching; and by no unfriendly
chance or bad company can
he ever quite lose the benefit.

—Emerson.

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THE TECHNE

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MAY—JUNE

No. 5

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The *Techne* publishes, for the most part, papers on educational subjects, though articles on closely related fields are also used. Part of these papers set forth the results of research; others aim at interpretation of current developments. Though some of the discussions will interest the specialist, it is hoped that in every number there will be something useful for the average teacher.

The *Techne* is sent free to alumni, teachers, school officials, libraries, and, on request, to any person interested in the progress of education.

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THE PRYOR HEALTH TEST FOR JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

By H. C. Pryor, Ph. D., Head of Department of Education

The Pryor Health Test is an outgrowth of a project which has been carried out in several classes in three different institutions. The author's original purpose was not only to develop a test but also, by so doing, to motivate for students the work in educational measurements and to give them some insight into the principles of test making.*

The preliminary work was done at the University of Virginia, summer school, 1925. The author divided a class in educational measurements into several committees, each of which was held responsible for studying and reporting on the available tests in some elementary subject. Inasmuch as no health tests had been constructed at that time, one committee undertook the problem of analyzing several standard textbooks in hygiene with a view to finding what health facts were emphasized as a basis for test making. Their report is summarized herewith in Table I, which shows what texts were checked and the major and minor facts listed. No attempt was made to determine how frequently each topic was mentioned.

The next step was undertaken in the author's seminar in education at the Northern Normal and Industrial School, Aberdeen, South Dakota, during the year 1925-26. This group made an analysis of twenty-two textbooks in hygiene for all grades from the first to the eighth, inclusive. The books were numbered and the health facts in each were tabulated. The total number of facts, including repetitions, was 7,165. The data are shown herewith in Table II, an abridgment of the original checking sheet giving only the main topics, frequencies and percents.

*Note: The principles involved in the making of this test will apply to others.

TABLE I

*Showing Health Facts Emphasized in Certain Tests.

TEXT	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H
CLEANLINESS								
Skin	†	†	†	†	†	†	†	*
Teeth	†	†	†	†	†	†	†	†
Hair	†	*	*	*	†	*	*	*
Hands	†	†	†	†	†	†	*	*
Clothes	†	†	*	*	†	†	†	*
Nails	†	†	*	*	*	†	*	*
CARE OF ORGANS								
Digestion	†	†	†	*	†	†	†	*
Respiration	†	†	†	†	†	†	†	*
Excretion	†	†	†	†	†	†	†	*
Eyes	†	†	†	†	†	†	†	*
Nose	†	†	*	*	*	†	*	*
Throat	†	*	†	†	†	*	†	*
Ear	†	*	†	†	*	†	†	*
FRESH AIR								
FOOD								
Kinds	†	†	†	*	†	†	†	*
Care	†	†	†	†	†	†	†	*
DISEASE GERMS								
Infections	†	†	†	†	†	†	†	*
Germs leave body	†	†	*	†	*	†	†	*
Germs enter body	†	†	†	†	*	†	†	†
Flies	†	†	†	†	†	†	†	*
Mosquitoes	†	*	†	†	*	†	†	*
Preventions	†	†	†	†	†	†	†	†
WATER								
Water	†	†	†	†	†	†	†	†
Tea—Coffee	†	†	†	*	†	†	†	*
SLEEP								
Sleep	†	†	†	*	†	†	†	*
POSTURE								
Posture	†	†	†	*	†	†	†	*
EXERCISE								
Exercise	†	†	†	†	†	†	†	*
EMERGENCIES								
Fire	†	*	*	*	†	*	†	*
Streets—Crossings	†	†	*	*	*	*	*	*
Drowning	†	†	*	*	†	*	†	*
Broken Bones	†	*	*	*	†	*	†	*

* indicates that the fact was not treated in the text.

† indicates that the fact was treated in the text.

TABLE II

TOPIC	FREQUENCY	PER CENT
I. Cleanliness	760	10.4
II. Accidents and Dangers	639	8.7
III. Rest and Sleep	204	2.8
IV. Air	520	7.1
V. Sunlight	56	.76
VI. Food	1255	17.2
VII. Water	230	3.1
VIII. Stimulants	488	6.67
IX. Teeth	266	3.6
X. Enemies	923	12.6
XI. Exercise	571	7.8
XII. Clothing	214	2.9
XIII. Sense Organs	282	3.86
XIV. Public Health Administration	176	2.4
XV. Health Organization	141	1.9
XVI. Industrial Hygiene	4	
XVII. Values of Health	76	1.
XVIII. Child Care	47	.6
XIX. Defects Including Malnutrition	28	.38
XX. Physiology	203	2.7
XXI. Anatomy	149.	2.
XXII. Names of Scientists	74	1.

The third step was taken during the summer session, 1927, in a class in Educational Measurements at the Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg. The project undertaken was the construction of a series of health tests based on the data presented in Table II, paralleling the textbook work of the course. The class was divided into the following four committees, each of which was to construct a tentative test: (a) kindergarten-primary; (b) intermediate; (c) junior high school; (d) senior high school. The objective of the committee at each level was to prepare a test emphasizing the facts shown in Table II, to administer it to a group of pupils, score the papers, tabulate the data, and revise in the light of the results. Each committee prepared a test, although not all of them succeeded equally well in carrying out all of the other steps.

The kindergarten-primary committee prepared a picture test to be used in kindergarten and first grade and a simple objective examination for grades two and three. These tests were given to small groups of children and the pictures and exercises arranged in ascending order of difficulty. They are now being revised and extended to cover the essential health facts included in the curriculum for these grades.

The intermediate committee also prepared a test which was given to small groups of pupils in the fourth, fifth and sixth grades of the training school and treated as explained above.

The junior high school committee prepared an objective examination including thirty-two true-false and eighteen multiple-choice exercises. This test was given to forty-six junior high school pupils, the papers were scored, the results tabulated, and the exercises re-arranged in ascending order of difficulty. This committee also provided eighty true-false and thirty-six multiple choice exercises which were not used until later.

The senior high school committee prepared a test consisting of 136 true-false, 13 multiple-choice, and 5 completion exercises, administered and scored it, but did not have time to complete the work.

During the school years 1927-1928 and 1928-1929, and the summer session of 1928, the seminar in education extended all of the foregoing tests and administered them to several groups of pupils at the different grade levels.

The rest of this study has to do with the junior-senior high school test, which is an outgrowth of the work of the junior and senior high school committees. In connection with their task the groups concerned carried out the following steps:

1. The unused exercises prepared by the junior and senior high school committees in the summer of 1927 were given to 110 pupils in the junior and senior high schools at Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg. The results were then tabulated and the exercises were arranged in ascending order of difficulty. After this, two mimeographed forms, "A" and "B" of approximately equal difficulty, were prepared. These were given to 208 pupils, including classes in Pittsburg, Kansas, Senior High School, the two Pittsburg junior high schools, Neodesha, Kansas, Junior-Senior High Schools, the seventh and eighth grades in the Bronaugh, Missouri, school, and the sixth grade of the Horace Mann Elementary School, Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg.

2. All of the material prepared by the junior high school committee was finally thrown into one test containing 161 true-false and 30 multiple choice exercises. This was given to 111 pupils in South and East Junior High Schools, Joplin, Missouri. The papers were scored, the results tabulated, and the exercises arranged in ascending order of difficulty.

3. The material for grades nine to twelve prepared by the senior high school committee during the summer session of 1927 consisted of 136 true-false, 13 multiple choice, and 5 completion exercises. It was given to twenty-five students in the high school at Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg, and treated statistically in the same manner as the junior high school material.

4. All of the material prepared for both junior and senior high schools was thrown into two mimeographed forms, "A" and "B", of approximately equal difficulty. The two tests included 228 true-false and 64 multiple-choice exercises after the elimination of duplicates, easy forms, poorly worded forms, etc. These exercises were again arranged in ascending order of difficulty. It was found that there were still a large number of easy exercises which were missed by no one or by 1, 2, 3, or some small per cent of the students taking the test. Others were missed by higher and higher per cents. The most difficult exercise was missed by 74 per cent of the students.

5. Finally, an experimental printed edition of five hundred copies each of Forms "A" and "B" was prepared. Each form consisted of Part I, containing seventy-five true-false exercises (seventy-seven in Form "A") and Part II containing twenty-nine four-response, multiple choice exercises. The first exercise in each true-false test was of "zero difficulty", that is, it had been missed by no one. The second item was missed by only 1 per cent of the students tested; the third, by 2 per cent; and so on to the most difficult items. The items in the two multiple-choice tests were arranged in a similar manner. Thus, two forms of approximately equal difficulty were provided. Explicit instructions for administering the tests were prepared.

These tests were given to junior and senior high school students in Joplin, Missouri; Pittsburg, Kansas; Neodesha, Kansas; and Minot, North Dakota; and to small groups of college students in Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg. Owing to the fact that only small groups of senior high school students were studying hygiene in the co-operating schools at the time the tests were sent out, the returns for this group cannot be considered very satisfactory. This is compensated for, at least partly, by the fact that preliminary mimeographed editions had been taken by larger numbers of senior high school students. The results of the test are shown in the following table.

TABLE III

Showing Scores on Pryor Health Test for Junior-Senior High School

Grades	VII		VIII		IX		X		COLLEGE	
Number of Cases..	232	233	62	64	16	36		18	53	34
Form	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B
Upper Quartile ...	58.43	59.2	57.5	61.6	69.99	63.25		69.25	81.37	76.25
Md	46.25	50.33	50.9	54.4	61.66	56.5		62.5	75.6	71.6
Lower Quartile ...	38.6	40.4	42.8	45.55	54.99	47.5		52.0	68.5	65.2
Range	78	78	62	42	59	68		38	49	32
Highest Score	78	78	75	74	77	85		77	90	84
Lowest Score ...	0	0	13	32	18	17		39	41	52

Each student was permitted to complete the entire test so that the amount of time to be allowed in the final form might be determined. In order to save space, these data are given for Form "A" alone. The figures for form "B" are approximately the same.

TABLE IV

	Part I				Part II			
	College	IX	VIII	VII	College	IX	VIII	VII
Q3	9.7	10.5	11.65	11.84	13.45	7.66	7.45	7.7
M1	8.7	9.6	9.9	10.5	6.7	9.7	6.56	6.57
Q 1	7.48	8.66	8.4	9.16	4.79	6.14	5.6	5.57
Highest	12	15	17	15	15	9	12	10
Lowest	2	2	4	1	3	5	1	3
Range	10	13	13	14	12	4	11	7

Three hundred eight students took both forms of the test. In order to determine the coefficient of reliability, the product moment formula was used. It was found to be $+.655$ + or $-.0221$, which is considered fairly high.

This question arose, "How would doubling the length of the test affect its reliability?" It is possible to answer such a question theoretically by applying Brown's prophecy formula, $r_{nn} = \frac{nr}{1+(n-1)r}$

in which r equals the coefficient of reliability already found and n equals 2, i. e., twice the number of exercises in the original test. Applying this formula, r_{nn} was found to be $+.79$. This indicates that throwing the two forms together in one test would increase reliability from $+.665$ to $+.79$.

6. All true-false exercises in both forms were arranged in one series, in ascending order of difficulty, and later divided between two new equivalent forms, according to a commonly used statistical method. All of the multiple-choice exercises were treated in a similar manner. Quantitatively, at least, it appears that these new "A" and "B" forms are much more nearly equivalent in difficulty than were the old ones. This can be determined only after the tests have been printed and re-administered. It is hoped that the new coefficient of reliability will be much higher.

As the tests now stand, they still contain some exercises the validity of which is questionable and there may also be some slight statistical errors. However, the tests are worth trying. The next step will be to administer them to a large group of junior and senior high school students and to establish state or nation-wide standards.

An examination of textbooks for the same grades and of courses in health or hygiene shows a surprising lack of agreement as to essentials of content. The tests described are based on the consensus of opinion of several textbook writers, all of whom are authorities in the field of health. The use of these tests may well result in a greater uniformity than now exists. If such a purpose is accomplished, their preparation will have been justified.

Another benefit which may be derived from the use of such tests is an effort on the part of schools using them to raise their own standards by extending or improving the quality of health instruction.

As the tests stand, they are a measure of students' knowledge concerning health. Some research worker can make a valuable contribution in the field of health education by finding to what extent the health activities suggested in the tests are actually practiced and by finding for a group of students, the correlation between knowledge and practice. This would throw considerable light on the problems of health teaching and would place the subject more nearly on a plane with others which have been investigated more thoroughly.

Space does not permit printing either of the forms in full, so the introduction and a few exercises of Form "A" are presented herewith:

Name Date of Birth.....
 Grade School Teacher
 City State Date of Test.....

General Instructions

To be read aloud by the teacher with pupils following silently:

This is a test of what you know about health. Do the best you can. Work as rapidly as you can and still understand the meaning of each exercise. Keep on working until you are through with each part.

PART I

Directions

Read the following sample exercises and directions. *Do exactly* as the directions tell you to do.

- ⊕ — Water is a healthful drink.
 + ⊖ Freezing kills all disease germs.

Notice that the first statement, which is true, has a circle around the plus sign ⊕.

The second statement, which is false, has a circle around the minus sign ⊖.

On the following pages are more exercises similar to the above. Read each statement. Draw a circle around the plus sign \oplus if the statement is true. Draw a circle around the minus sign \ominus if the statement is false. *Omit* any exercises if you do not know the answers.

When I say "Go!", turn the page and do the exercise as rapidly as you can. *Remember!* Read as rapidly as you can and still understand

Have you any questions?

Ready! Go!

(Tester should write time of starting on the board for convenience)

- + — 1. Properly brushing the teeth helps keep them from decaying.
- + — 21. Drugs should be taken only when prescribed by a physician.
- + — 41. Cancer is a disease of youth.
- + — 21. One should not take cold showers in the winter because they will make one susceptible to colds.
- + — 61. We should take vigorous exercise just before eating.
- + — 71. One cannot massage the scalp too little.

Part II begins on the back of the booklet. Close your booklet and turn it over.

Number right

Number wrong

Score (subtract)

FORM A—PART II

Do not open the booklet until you are told to do so.

Directions:

Read the following sample exercise carefully. There are four ways in which it may be completed. One of these is best. "C" is best and so this letter is written on the line to the left.

Sample exercise:

-C.... One should eat
- A. whenever one is hungry.
 - B. three hearty meals every day.
 - C. moderately.
 - D. no breakfast.

On the following pages are a number of exercises similar to the sample above. When I say "Go!" turn the page and do the exercises just as rapidly as you can. If you are not sure how to complete any exercise, omit it and go to the next. Do not stop until you have finished the test.

Have you any questions?

Ready! Go!

(Tester should write time of starting on the board for convenience)

-1. When you see a quarantine sign on the home of a friend you should
A. visit him.
B. keep away.
C. ask friends to call.
D. help with the house work.
-15. Disease germs are resisted best by
A. sleeping out of doors.
B. eating only vegetables.
C. keeping the body healthy.
D. taking a tonic.
-29. Shallow well water is likely to be impure because of
A. underground streams.
B. in-running surface water.
C. mineral matter.
D. impurities in the soil.

Close your booklet and wait until all have finished their work.

Score=Number right_____

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THE NEXT STEP IN FRESHMAN COMPOSITION

(Colin C Alexander, Baker University)*

Since one's attitude toward any practical matter must be determined largely by the angle from which he looks at it, I hope that I may be pardoned for stating my personal points of contact with freshman composition. For several years I taught this subject; for a number of years since then I have not taught it, but have been teaching advanced classes in literature. To these classes come students who, in preparing reports and papers, must make use of the training in writing which they have received in freshman composition. Whatever may have been my ideas at one time, I now look upon the required composition as a means to a very practical end, and I believe that that end is best attained through thought composition.

The term "thought composition" is used for want of a better term, with a full knowledge of its inadequacy, and of misconceptions which may arise in connection with it. We are all agreed that no rigid formal division of writing into the four categories of exposition, argumentation, narration, and description is practicable, and that if it were prac-

*Reprinted from the April, 1930, number of the Bulletin of the Kansas Association of Teachers of English.

ticable, it would be of little value. Most of us are agreed also that many of our textbooks have a tendency to place too much emphasis on the forms of discourse as such.

But this is by no means to say that all kinds of writing are alike and that the results arrived at and the means employed to get these results are identical. It is plain that if a student is told to write a mystery story with a surprise ending he must proceed in one way, and that if he is told to explain Poe's theory about poetry he must proceed in quite another. If he is asked to write a description of an imaginary scene in Mars he employs quite a different method from that required to set forth reasons for believing that Mars is not inhabited. In the one case he is expected to exercise his imagination, or to make use of his power to affect emotions; in the other, he is expected to think out a question and to trace the steps which have led him to his conclusion. I suppose that there is no one present who holds that the differences between the objectives aimed at and the methods employed by, let us say, Lowell in his essay on "Democracy" and Poe in his "The Fall of the House of Usher" are not of enough importance to be noted by a student of writing. If there is, we shall have to agree to disagree, because this discussion is based on the recognition of a practical difference. At any rate, when in this discussion I use the term "thought composition," I mean composition which has no concern with the writing of the short story, nor of fiction of any kind, and which excludes all description which is primarily artistic, or imaginative in purpose and method.

Throughout America today tens of thousands of young men and women on entering college are required to enroll in classes which we call rhetoric and composition. This universal requirement entails a huge budget, an army of instructors, a mountain of themes, and a decade of theme-reading hours. It is the only study required of all students everywhere, and we may be quite sure that any subject given this right of way over all other subjects is going to be subjected to some close scrutiny and criticism by the other departments. They ask what justification or reason there is for placing freshman composition in this unique position and giving it these special considerations—and they have an answer; because it is a necessary tool for use in all other work, a tool without which the student cannot do efficient work in other classes, English included. For this reason other departments not only tolerate, but urge, the requirement of freshman composition; but they do so for definite and strictly practical purposes. They expect and demand two results:

(1) That the student be able to write with a reasonable degree of accuracy;

(2) That he be able to say something definitely, and to express his thoughts in some orderly, systematic, and logical manner.

This is a minimal essential for the discussion in writing of any other subject in any other class. The other departments, as well as the other classes in the English department, demand this result; and they have a right to demand it. Are they getting it?

There is no doubt whatever that there has been an advance--as far as Kansas is concerned, a very definite advance--in composition during the past few years. In the judgment of the present speaker, the most notable concrete achievement of this Association of College Teachers of English has been its securing the co-operation of the high schools in working for a better knowledge of the fundamentals of English on the part of high school students who enter our colleges and in the maintenance of these standards in the freshman work.

Yet, in spite of the undeniable improvement in this subject in recent years, there is the general feeling that the results here and elsewhere are not commensurate with the time, money, and effort expended--that the improvement is not rapid enough. At the recent meeting of the National Council of Teachers of English, a speaker from Ohio State University declared emphatically that in his state the results were not reasonably satisfactory, either to his department or to the other departments of the university, and he gave specific evidence in support of his declaration. If you will take occasion to talk with your professors of history, of economics, or of education, you will find that this feeling exists rather generally. The two complaints that are often heard are (1) that students do not write accurately and (2) (still more emphatically) that even when they have something to say cannot say it in an orderly way with a logical sequence of ideas.

You will not, on the other hand, hear any complaints from these departments that students cannot write thrilling narratives; that they are not experts in the construction of imaginary plots for stories. None of these departments are complaining that students are not adept in writing impressionistic descriptions, or that their aesthetic, emotional, and artistic powers of expression are not what they should be, or might be. These teachers know quite well that where a subject is required of all students, there must in the nature of the case be many who never will and never can develop these qualities. But these teachers know just as well, what you and I know, that the student can and must learn to express his thoughts clearly and to write them accurately--that if he cannot, he is wasting his time and his parents' money in continuing in college.

Please do not misunderstand me. There is no intention of belittling the value--of detracting from the great importance--of the cultural phase of training in writing, of the training of the aesthetic, the artistic, the imaginative nature of such as are capable of receiving such training. There is a place for such things, and they are important; but the class in freshman composition, which is required of all students regardless of their natures and capabilities, is assuredly not the place for them. That there is a considerable proportion of students on whom such efforts

are a waste of time is what every experienced teacher and a great many college students are coming to realize, especially when many of these students are unable to write clearly, or even accurately. It was a wise saying of the historian that those who attempt more than they ought, often accomplish less than they ought. Having observed that colleges, east and west, in Kansas and out of Kansas, are accomplishing in the required freshman composition less than they ought, I submit it to you as my conviction that it is because they are attempting more than they ought. To be specific, they are trying in vain to develop the creative or imaginative, the artistic, the aesthetic, in young men and women who need more than anything else a working tool for use in other classes. They are requiring students to spend time in the practice of short-story writing and in attempts at artistic description; time which is needed to obtain results in thought composition, especially in exposition.

In freshman composition I find that here in Kansas we are already undergoing a definite but rather slow process of change in this matter. Our instincts are better than our system. A decade ago most of the colleges were proceeding methodically with the four forms of discourse, and many of them gave about an equal amount of time to each of the forms, except perhaps as regards argumentation. Most of the colleges gave a good part of their time to attempts at short story-writing, as a number of them still do. They have been, of late, however, slowly developing two tendencies:

(1) A breaking away from the formal treatment of the "forms of discourse," as far as separate emphasis is concerned;

(2) A tendency to emphasize exposition and to subordinate description and narration.

With the object of finding out how far this progress has gone, and to learn approximately what the situation is at present, I sent a questionnaire to the colleges and junior colleges of this state. Answers were received from about 75 per cent of them. The results in brief are as follows:

All colleges and junior colleges, of course, require five or six hours of freshman rhetoric and composition. Most of the junior colleges require five, most of the colleges six.

24 out of 29 teach the forms of discourse as such; five do not. Of the 24 which teach the forms of discourse, 12 omit argumentation, generally because a special course in argumentation is offered--in a few cases required.

Most colleges offer, and a few colleges require, an advanced course in composition.

Some divide the time equally among the four forms of discourse; some equally among three, omitting argumentation.

A considerable number, about a third, give half the time to exposition.

The smallest proportion of time given to exposition was one-fourth of the total. The largest proportion, three-fourths of the total.

It is clear, from the foregoing, that even now our colleges are placing less emphasis on artistic and imaginative writing, such as description and narration, and more emphasis upon thought composition in general, on exposition in particular. This tendency it seems to me, is in the right direction. Of course, if a student describes the construction of a radio, he is practicing thought composition. If he compares Hawthorne and Poe as writers of short story, he is employing exposition, and not narration. Much narration is, of course, expository in nature and in purpose. There is no necessity to narrow the subject matter; it may be about art, or fiction, or music, or anything else under the sun. The sole consideration is that the student learn to think, and to explain his thought in writing in some degree of logical clearness, as well as accuracy.

Why not take the next step along the way on which we have been cautiously and slowly advancing? Let us, in the required course, confine our efforts to the homely but essential thought composition and leave off our attempts at short-story writing, at fiction, and at artistic description. The one prudence is concentration; the one evil is dissipation of efforts. No new method is here proposed. Our English Journals are full of suggestions of new methods of many kinds—all of them interesting, and some of them helpful. It seems to the present speaker that we must “go behind the returns” and ask not how? but what? Not what new way to continue the same attempt, but what training is of most service?

We need to give our freshman students more practice in securing and sifting information; in finding a subject; in narrowing the subject to the point where it can be discussed with some degree of completeness within definite limits; in presenting it, not only with some system and method, but with some degree of skill in the arrangement. In short, we need to train them so that we shall not be ashamed of the papers which they may be called upon to present in advanced English classes, or in any other classes. To accomplish this we shall need more time for thought composition than we now have.

My conclusions are as follows:

(1) In spite of the definite improvement of the past few years, the results in required freshman composition are not commensurate with the time, money, and effort expended upon it.

(2) This is partly because

We have been trying to teach all kinds of writing to every student, a procedure which involves waste motion.

(3) We should boldly take the step which we have been timidly “feeling out,” and limit our required freshman work to that kind of training which is of most worth—to what I have called “thought composition.”

THE REAL TASK OF THE PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATION

By L. H. Petit, Superintendent of Schools, Chanute, Kan.

In the early days of our national life education was pretty largely a matter confined to the home. Here children were taught practically all of the duties and responsibilities that fitted them for usefulness in the social organization of their time. The work of the schools, such as they were, was very limited and meager. This was the era when in education the home reigned supreme.

Towards the close of the nineteenth century public schools had begun to develop at an amazing rate. Teachers were better and better prepared for their tasks. Scientific study and approach had been made to the problems of curriculum and courses of study. New buildings were appearing on every hand. Equipment for use within these buildings was the last word in efficiency and usefulness. The public schools were coming into their own.

Then the responsibility shifted from the home to the school. Parents saw that the schools were doing a splendid piece of work, better than they could ever hope to do in the home. Parents said in effect to the schools, "Here are our children. You take them and give them an education, train them in all of those duties and responsibilities that fit them for life and for usefulness in society." In a manner of speaking, the home washed its hands of its responsibilities towards its children.

The first era of education within the home had its limitations. Parents themselves were busy carving a home out of the wilderness, meeting all of these pressing necessities of life in a virgin wilderness. Few of them had any preparation for teaching. In most instances their education was meager and limited. As a consequence they had little to offer their children. It is not much wonder that they turned with eagerness and delight to the effective work done for children in the public schools. Education through the home alone was not altogether a success.

Nor was education altogether successful when entirely confined to the schools. They were not the panacea for human ills. Effective as the schools may be there are still some things that they cannot do. Chief among these things which the schools cannot accomplish is the provision of that degree of parental responsibility and home nurture which is uniquely and typically the work of the home itself. Thus the schools failed in a large measure working alone to accomplish the thing the public expected of them.

We are now in a third era, that of working out a proper spirit of co-operation and mutual understanding and good will between the home and the school. This is the task of organization known as the Parent-Teacher Association. This organization has assumed a large respon-

sibility in seeking to bridge the gap that exists in too large a degree between the home and the school. There is seen clearly the need of whole souled and loyal co-operation between these two important agencies.

How to make this co-operation most effective is the function of this new organization. It is a matter that can be accomplished only by earnest study of the problems involved, by a spirit of give and take on both sides, by an earnest desire to provide those conditions and facilities which in the last analysis make for the ultimate welfare of boys and girls.

In the early days of the Parent-Teacher Association there was considerable failure and disappointment due in a large measure to the fact that the organization had not set up proper objectives for its work. It conceived itself to be a medium of criticism, of fault-finding, of nagging. There are two main dangers which confront the Parent-Teacher Association, dangers which it needs carefully to avoid. In the first place the Parent-Teacher Association is not the Board of Education. This needs to be clearly and carefully kept in mind. The Board of Education is a body corporate provided for by state statutes. The provision for its election, its organization, and its duties are clearly set forth in the laws of the commonwealth. It is legally entitled to purchase and own property. It may sue and be sued. It has all the functions of other corporations. It has the duty of organizing and maintaining a system of schools within the school district. Within the provisions of the state statutes the board of education is the ultimate authority on matters pertaining to school affairs within the district. The Parent-Teacher Association must be very circumspect that none of its actions come in conflict with these clearly specified duties of the Board of Education.

In the second place the Parent-Teacher Association is not the teaching staff. Boards of Education are delegated with the authority and responsibility of electing teachers. These teachers are assigned to a certain school or a certain room and are given authority by state statutes and by the board of education to assume certain work. Here again the Parent-Teacher Association may co-operate and advise but it must be careful not to usurp.

On the constructive side the Parent-Teacher Association does have a large and important task to perform. Such an Association may be thought of as a first line of defense behind the public school itself. Its most important task is that of creating a body of favorable public opinion behind the schools. Some student of affairs has made the statement that "the public schools are the most backward social agency in our national life"—a rather strange and startling statement. Public schools, however, are the creatures of public opinion. They can go no farther and rise no higher than public opinion permits them. The kind and nature of schools in any given community is a positive barometer of the character of public opinion in that community. Our social organization is such that no advance can be made in a community until public opinion is be-

hind it sufficiently strong to demand its acceptance. By the same token no reform or advance step can be taken in a community until public opinion is made ready for it.

Clearly, then, here is the great task for the Parent-Teacher Association, one that is unique, that no other organization is able to accomplish. It is a task that is much needed if the home and the school are to meet and respond to the needs of the young life of the nation. It is one that cannot be sidestepped or evaded. It is one in the doing of which the Association will find full and complete outlet for all of its energies, its interests, and its effectiveness. It is a task that can be accomplished only by setting up certain definite objectives and then working in season and out towards the accomplishment of these things which the association has set for itself.

Within the brief compass of this paper these objectives may be outlined as follows:

1. To create among association members a proper understanding of the objectives and methods of modern education. Clearly a parent cannot effectively aid in the proper development of his child unless he understands the ideals and aims of modern education.
2. The Parent-Teacher Association is charged with the duty of teaching its members to apply these objectives and methods of modern education within school environment. If a parent understands the psychology of habit formation he may do much to develop habits effectively.
3. The Parent-Teacher Association has the opportunity to give to school officials under certain conditions judgement as to whether the school fails or succeeds. This calls for infinite tact and courtesy and good judgement on the part of parents, teachers, and school officials.
4. Next the Association has the opportunity to facilitate acquaintance among parents and teachers. In her school room the teacher stands in the place of the parent. The legal expression is "*in loco parentis*." Since the teacher stands in the place of the parent before the children how vital it is that a parent know the teacher and understand her motives.
5. The association must aid in educating the community as to the desirable aspects of the school's program, explaining the need for a new building, for modern equipment, for introducing changes in the curriculum, or introducing some activity elements.
6. And lastly, the Association may raise funds under certain conditions. Generally speaking, an Association should not attempt to raise funds for school purposes except to demonstrate the value of school work or it supplements the tax in a community that is too poor to finance a reasonable school program. More Parent-Teacher Associations have broken down and failed in their effectiveness because there has been a constant urge for money contributions. There are other and more vital things for the Association to do than continually to indulge in money-raising activities.

Every school needs tremendously this co-operation between the home and the school. Every teacher and school administrator welcomes the organization of a Parent-Teacher Association when it approaches its task with something of the ideals herein set forth. It is all a matter of understanding, of attitude, and of good will. In the last analysis it must be kept constantly in mind that the work of the home and school is toward the same ideal, that of properly fitting boys and girls for useful functioning in life.

THE NATURAL VOICE

By Otto Booker, Instructor in Voice

Students are consistently urged to sing and speak because the natural tone is correct. This is exceedingly indefinite. It is natural for a child to imitate the first sound it hears, whether it be correct or incorrect. In either case the child imitates it and for the child it becomes the natural tone. The child reared in the wilderness, beyond the hearing of a human voice, will imitate the notes of the whip-poor-will, the chatter of the monkey, the hoot of the owl, and for him they are natural tones.

To be natural is the most difficult lesson to learn, and it is only the result of imitation or prolonged discipline. Untrained naturalness is the perfection of awkwardness. The involuntary functions of organic life are the only ones naturally performed correctly. Nature's method of breathing, circulation, and digestion can be depended upon until disarranged by subsequent conditions, but unless proper vocalization is established by imitation and discipline this function is sure to be corrupted by false examples.

Vocalization, like every other art, is most easily learned by imitation and the advantage of the early years should not be lost. In olden times the importance of this was fully realized. More than three centuries ago old Roger Ascham wrote: "All languages, both learned and mother tongue, are begotten and gotten by imitation. For as ye used to hear so ye learn to speak. If ye hear no other ye speak not yourself; and of whom ye only hear of them ye only speak."

Nineteen centuries ago Quintilian wrote: "Before all let the mothers and nurses speak properly. The child will hear them first and will try to shape his words by imitating them."

If the right way of using the voice is early taught it will be a guard against the contraction of bad habits which can only be corrected later with infinite trouble. It certainly would be unwise to put a young child under continued training but even in the kindergarten the right method of voice production can and should be taught. Teachers of the primary

schools should be familiar with the principles of voice training and be able to start the pupils at once in the right direction. If, during the pupil's school life, proper attention is paid to these primary principles and to correct articulation, a large majority of students will graduate from our common schools prepared to advance in the art of singing, speaking, or reading without being obliged to unlearn a vast amount of error and to correct a long list of bad habits.

If in the public schools only a few minutes each day are devoted to the subject by a teacher who understands it and who will call the attention of the pupils to the proper applications of the principles in that daily recitation, the time will be found amply sufficient to develop and establish a good speaking and singing voice. One of the most neglected subjects is that of voice development. It requires study and practice to develop the voice to a high proficiency. Every student should devote some time to this subject.

Of all the expressions of the human spirit in art form, the sublimated speech we call song is the most direct. Every other art requires some material medium for its transmission and even in music, the subtlest of all the arts, instruments are needed, except in singing only.

In song the singer himself is the instrument of free and direct expression. No student of the most human of the arts, singing, need give up if he has burning within him the song impulse, the hunger to sing. This inner impulse is by its strength an evidence of the power to sing: the very hunger is a promise and a prophecy.

TRAINING VALUABLE TO CLASS SPONSORS

In a recent study of the training valuable to class sponsors made by Miss Flo E. Holman, a graduate student at Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg, working under the direction of Prof. Ralph A. Fritz, findings and conclusions were summarized as follows:

1. The qualities essential to an efficient class sponsor are: leadership, judgment, executive ability, initiative, tact, self-control, enthusiasm, physical vitality, adaptability, sympathy, and tolerance.
2. The most common method for selecting a class sponsor is election by the class. This election should be approved by the principal.
3. The activities which all sponsors should be qualified to supervise are: business meetings, parties, picnics, assembly programs, plays, banquets, basketball, receptions, selection of class rings and gifts, class day exercises, graduation exercises, decorating and ushering.
4. The college subjects that are most helpful in training for sponsorship, in the descending order of their importance, are: extra-

curricular activities, public speaking, methods, dramatics, social psychology, parliamentary law, music, home economics, coaching, secondary education, and debate.

5. The college activities that are most beneficial in training for sponsorship are: parties, Y. W. C. A., plays, assembly programs, athletics, "pep" organizations, Y. M. C. A., and student council.

6. The word "considerable" was checked by the greatest number of sponsors questioned as indicating the value of their college training in sponsoring high school classes; however, one-fifth of the sponsors checked the value as little or nothing.

7. The results under statement No. 6 above show that colleges are not giving prospective teachers training adequate for efficient class sponsorship. They should do this by guiding their students into those subjects and college activities which are most likely to develop the qualities needed as a class sponsor and by providing practical experience as a class sponsor in the training school.

The class sponsor has such a large number of diverse activities to supervise and the successful supervision of these is of such great importance that special training should be provided. The two plans suggested for training sponsors are pre-service and in-service training. The pre-service training should be similar to that given for practice teaching. Each prospective teacher should be required to help sponsor a class in the training school one semester. He should have the entire responsibility for at least one meeting or activity and should attend all other meetings or activities of that class. A supervising teacher should be in charge of the group of prospective teachers to guide and direct them in their sponsoring of the activities. Plans for the meetings or activities, similar to the lesson plans required of the practice teacher, should be handed to the supervisor before the event. The in-service training should be under the direct supervision of the high school principal. Each sponsor should outline the activities of the class for the year, and previous to each event, he should hand to the principal a definite plan as to objectives and procedure.

The foregoing conclusions are based upon the information received in questionnaires sent to 188 high schools of second and third class cities of Kansas. The questionnaires were returned from ninety-seven schools; however, a few of those returned were incomplete or inaccurate and could not be used. Five questionnaires were sent to the principal of each high school, one to be filled out by the principal himself and one by the sponsor of each of the four high school classes. The high school principal was asked to rank, in the order of their importance, eleven qualities which he thought essential to a class sponsor and to check the method for selecting sponsors in his school. The sponsors were asked to check the activities they supervised, to check the word or phrase that expressed the value of their college training in preparing them for sponsorship,

and to check the college subjects and activities which had been most beneficial to them as class sponsors.

The qualities listed in the principal's questionnaire were ranked by eighty-seven principals. They are given in conclusion No. 1 as those qualities a teacher should possess to be an efficient class sponsor. The method of selecting class sponsors by class election was checked by ninety-two principals. The sponsor's questionnaire was checked by 330 sponsors.

THE USE OF POEMS IN TEACHING HISTORY

Miss Macie E. Johnson, a graduate student at Kansas State Teachers College of Pittsburg, working under the direction of Dr. Ralph A. Fritz, associate professor of education, presented as her thesis in candidacy for the masters degree a study entitled "Historical Poems as a Supplementary Material for Teaching American History." Her conclusions as to the value of forty-four poems chosen from among 800 examined and tested in the schoolroom, are given in the following summary of the thesis:

This study has attempted to do three things: (1) to select historical poems to be used as supplementary material for teaching American History in the elementary and secondary schools; (2) to determine whether pupils think the selected poems add interest or understanding to their reading of American History; and (3) to determine the grade or school level at which each poem selected should be used.

More than 800 poems were examined from which forty-four were finally selected according to the following criteria:

1. Does the poem deal with a fact that should be emphasized?
2. Does it express ideals worthy to be accepted by the child?
3. Does it express a feeling or emotion that a child should experience?
4. Does it contain details not usually found in history textbooks?
5. Is it interesting?
6. Is it easily understood?

To determine whether or not the poems selected add interest or understanding to the reading of history, a series of reading exercises consisting of prose statements from history textbooks, and quotations from poems were arranged. In each exercise the same historical fact was stated in both prose and poetry. These exercises were read by 378 pupils, of whom 299 were in the public schools of Joplin, Missouri, and 79 were in the Training Schools of Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg, Kansas. The total was made up of 80 sixth-grade pupils, 213 junior high school pupils, and 85 senior high school pupils. The junior high school pupils of Joplin were sectioned into superior, average, and slow ability

groups. The pupils were asked to read each exercise carefully and to write "Yes" after each poem that added interest or understanding to the prose statement, and "No" after each one that did not.

The answers given showed little difference between boys and girls as to their interest in and understanding of the poems selected. The pupils of higher ability found a greater number of the poems adding interest or understanding to the reading of the prose statements, than did the pupils of lower ability; however, the interest manifested by the slowest ability group would justify the use of the poems with slow pupils.

The per cent of "Yes" answers given to each exercise was found for the sixth grade, the junior high school, and the senior high school in order to determine the grade level at which the various poems should be placed. Each poem was placed in the grade showing the greatest interest in it, or in the lowest grade of two or more grades showing an equal interest in it. Thirteen of the poems were placed in the sixth grade, thirteen in the junior high school, and eighteen in the senior high school.

Pupils of the junior and senior high schools were asked to write the reason why the poems did or did not add interest or understanding to the prose statements. Their answers indicated that a few pupils did not care for some of the poems, that some pupils did not understand certain poems, and that the majority of the pupils found that most of the poems added clearness, feeling and interest to their reading of history.

This study has shown that approximately seventy-five per cent of both boys and girls find that the forty-four poems selected add interest or understanding to the reading of history textbooks. It has indicated the grade level at which each poem selected could well be used. It has shown that historical poems may be used as supplementary material for teaching history to slow, average or superior pupils. And it justifies the conclusion that historical poems aid pupils in learning history by adding to the reading of history textbooks.

TITLE OF POEM

AUTHOR

SIXTH GRADE

Columbus.....	Joaquin Miller.
Landing of the Pilgrims.....	Felicia Hemans.
The First Proclamation of Miles Standish.....	Margaret Preston.
The First Thanksgiving Day.....	Margaret Preston.
Paul Revere's Ride.....	Henry W. Longfellow.
Betty's Battle Flag.....	Minna Irving.
Johnny Appleseed.....	William Henry Venable.
Robert E. Lee.....	Julia Ward Howe.
The Cable Hymn.....	John G. Whittier.
Indian Names.....	Lydia H. Sigourney.
The Brooklyn Bridge.....	Edna Dean Porter.
The Call to Colors.....	Arthur Guiterman.
A Song of Panama.....	Alfred D. Runyon.

Junior High School

The Thanksgiving for America.....	Hazekiah Butterworth.
The Fountain of Youth.....	Hezekiah Butterworth.
Roger Williams.....	Hezekiah Butterworth.
England and America in 1782.....	Alfred Tennyson.
Sa-ca-ga-we-a.....	Edna Dean Porter.
The Death of Jefferson.....	Hezekiah Butterworth.
Can't.....	Harriet Prescott Spafford.
Chicago.....	John G. Whittier.
The Ride of Collins Graves.....	John B. O'Reilly.
The Pacific Railway.....	C. R. Ballard.
Panama.....	John Jeffrey Roche.
Flanders Fields.....	John McCray.
The Republic.....	Henry W. Longfellow.

Senior High School

New England's Growth.....	William Bradford.
God Makes a Path.....	Roger Williams.
The Mother Country.....	Benjamin Franklin.
What's in a Name.....	Helen F. Moore.
The American Flag.....	Joseph Rodman Drake.
Song of Marion's Men.....	William C. Bryant.
News From York Town.....	Lewis W. Smith.
The Federal Convention.....	Unknown.
The New Roof.....	Francis Hopkinson.
On the Death of Benjamin Franklin.....	Philip Freneau.
Lincoln the Man of the People.....	Edwin Markham.
Brother Jonathon's Lament for Sister Caroline.....	Oliver Wendell Holmes.
O Captain, My Captain.....	Walt Whitman.
The Blue and the Gray.....	Francis Miles Finch.
Centennial Hymn.....	William C. Bryant.
Bartholdi Statue.....	John G. Whittier.
Britannia to Columbia.....	Alfred Austin.
Those Rebel Flags.....	John H. Jewett.

EYES

If I but had the eyes to see
 The pairs of eyes that look at me
 Here in this woodsy nook;
 Eyes that look from out of trees,
 From blades of grass and shielding leaves,
 Eyes round, intent, by fear so made—
 If I had eyes to see those myriad eyes,
 Then I should be the one to be afraid.

—Edna Homan

OUR UNDEFENDED BOUNDARY

(By O. F. Grubbs, A. M., Professor of European History)

Why the long international boundary line between the United States and Canada does not bristle with forts and why the Great Lakes do not bear fleets of war ships, is told in the following article.

The northern water boundary of the United States was the chief land theatre of the War of 1812. Bitter feeling lingered on each side. Both parties had struggled to secure control of the Great Lakes. If the struggle were continued after the war, it would result in naval competition, useless expense, and a short peace. In such competition, the United States would clearly have the advantage.

The plan to invade and conquer Canada during the war was adopted by the United States only as a feasible plan of breaking the suspected alliance between the English and the Indians. The alliance was broken, and the forcible annexation of Canada has never since been seriously considered. This understanding of the War of 1812 makes it easy to comprehend why England and the United States "buried the hatchet" so quickly after the Treaty of Ghent. The animus was gone.

As a result, limitation of armament on the Great Lakes became an important issue in the closing days of Madison's administration. In January, 1816, J. Q. Adams, ambassador to England, at the suggestion of Monroe, secretary of state, sounded Castlereagh on the question of disarmament, or at least limitation of arms, on the Great Lakes. The prime minister was friendly, but cautious, and directed Mr. Bagot, ambassador in Washington, to listen to whatever proposals the United States might make, *ad referendum*. Madison wished to make a clean sweep of all warlike vessels on the Great Lakes; but Monroe proposed that the force be limited "to one vessel on Lake Champlain, one on Lake Ontario, and two on the upper lakes, each of 100 tons burden, and with one eighteen pound cannon." This proposal was so simple, sensible, and naive, that Bagot suspected it concealed a Yankee trick. Castlereagh acceded to the plan in January, 1817; but delays in the negotiations caused Adams to fear that the English had some concealed ulterior motive and were fooling him. The agreement was not completed until after the inauguration of Monroe. On April 28, 1817, Mr. Rush and Mr. Bagot signed the Convention of 1817, embodying the proposal of Monroe, given above, and closing with the agreement "that all other armed vessels on these Lakes shall be forthwith dismantled, and that no other vessels of war shall be there built or armed." The convention was proclaimed in force one year after its signature.

Under the stress of the Rebellion of 1837, Canada found it necessary to increase her naval defenses beyond the legal limit; but with the return of order the force was reduced.

During the Civil War in the United States, friction between England and the United States became quite acute, so acute, in fact, that Congress

directed the President to give the necessary six months notice for the abrogation of the Rush-Bagot Convention. But Seward, secretary of state, withheld the notice.

During the Behring Sea controversy in 1892, newspapers in the United States reported that Canada was illegally increasing her force on the Great Lakes under the guise of revenue cutters, but the government at Washington took no notice of the reports. At that time, the United States had revenue cutters far in excess of the number agreed upon in 1817.

The precise language of the Convention—"no other vessels of war shall be built or armed"—has caused some contention. In 1892, ship builders in West Bay City, Michigan, through Senator McMillan, demanded the abrogation of the Rush-Bagot Convention, on the ground that it prevented the secretary of the navy from awarding contracts for vessels to lake firms. Or rather, McMillan, referring to the action of Congress during the Civil War, asked if the Rush-Bagot Convention were still in force. Secretary Foster replied that since Secretary Seward had later withdrawn the notice for abrogation, the Convention still existed. Again in 1895, a similar protest was made, but President Cleveland replied that the language of the Convention was so clear that it could not be explained away.

Mutual agreement allowed the United States to exceed the Rush-Bagot quota of ships on the Great Lakes during the World War, for the sake of training the sea forces of the United States.

The Rush-Bagot Convention has kept peace between the people of the United States and the people of Canada for over a century. Or perhaps it would be nearer the truth to say that the peaceful spirit of the two people has kept the Rush-Bagot Convention.

The people of the two countries have many things in common: a common origin, common language, similar religions. Each had domestic strife. Each has had a continent to conquer, prairies to cross, railroads to build, scandals to quiet. But perhaps the greatest agency of peace has been the abundance of land. On each side of the boundary, not more land for the settlers but more settlers for the land, has been the chief desideratum. When the population of Canada and the United States becomes as great per square as it is in Belgium, France and Germany, the Rush-Bagot Convention may go by the board.

The spirit of the border is peace. At Calais, Maine, people cross the St. Croix River both ways daily on their way to work. Where main roads cross the boundary, custom officials, rather than bronze monuments or sentries, inform the traveler that he is passing the frontier. In commemoration of Perry's victory in 1814, and the century that has followed it, the people of Blaine, Washington, a city on the boundary, erected a concrete arch on the line. The Canadian side bears the inscription: "Brethren Dwelling Together in Unity." On the south

side are the words: "Children of a Common Mother." The iron gates beneath the portals are open and bear these words: "May These Gates Never Be Closed."

THE TREND

The Bureau of Reference, Research, and Statistics of the New York City Schools, under the direction of Eugene A. Nifenecker, is giving special attention to the improvement of arithmetic fundamentals. The bureau has issued recently two bulletins, "Diagnostic and Remedial Work in Arithmetic Fundamentals, Inventory of Errors and Remedial Suggestions for Decimals" and "Case Studies." These New York bulletins carry the legend, "Improve your instruction by means of standard tests and measurements."

A study by Wendell W. Cruz of "The Relation of Juvenile Delinquency to Intelligence," a summary of which is given in the April number of *The Phi Delta Kappan*, has implications of interest to educators. Mr. Cruz studied one hundred children at the Knoxville Detention Home, Knoxville, Tenn. These children were tested with the Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon Intelligence Scale. The test gave the following distribution: 4 per cent had an I. Q. below 50; 42 per cent had an, I. Q. between 50 and 70; 43 per cent had an I. Q. between 70 and 90; 10 per cent had an I. Q. between 90 and 110; and 1 per cent had an I. Q. over 110.

Of the total number tested 26 per cent made normal progress in school; 1 per cent was accelerated one year; 34 per cent were retarded one year; 17 per cent were retarded two years; 7 per cent were retarded three years; 6 per cent were retarded four years; 1 per cent was retarded five years; and 1 per cent had never attended school. The number of years of school attended could not be obtained for the 7 per cent.

Truancy led all other causes of detention, being the charge in 27 per cent; running away in 10 per cent; house-breaking in 5 per cent; fighting in 4 per cent; incorrigibility in 3 per cent; prostitution in 2 per cent; speeding in 1 per cent; disturbing the peace in 1 per cent; and association with immoral characters in 1 per cent.

Mr. Cruz offers these conclusions from the study: "It seems that, in Knoxville at least, there is a positive correlation between juvenile delinquency and low intelligence. This correlation seems to be very high and worthy of much serious consideration. This seems to say that the delinquent child is typically of low intelligence and on the borderline between feeble-mindedness and low normality. It does not mean, however, that the child of low intelligence is typically delinquent.

"This positive correlation between juvenile delinquency and low intelligence does not mean that low intelligence, to the exclusion of all other factors, was the cause of a delinquent act in any individual case. It means that low intelligence, working together with certain environmental and physiological conditions, were effective in causing juvenile delinquency in Knoxville."

The May number of the N. E. A. Journal publishes these cautions of Dr. Edward A. Ross, professor of sociology at the University of Wisconsin, under the caption, "The Menace of Private Referendums."

"The taking of nationwide polls under private auspices may be a menace to democratic government for the following reasons:

"First, such referenda being costly will be taken not simply when a considerable portion of the voters call for them but when some private interest with abundant financial resources deems the time favorable to take them.

"Second, the referendum is taken without the safeguards which make it fair and authoritative.

"Third, once taken the interests which it favors, will argue from it as if it was an authentic and official disclosure of voter opinion.

"Fourth, when the result of such a referendum is adverse to a law, it will be used to paralyze the law-enforcing agencies, to justify law breaking, and as an excuse for local nullification."

The colleges of Pennsylvania are attempting to come to some agreement so that the marks issued by their faculties may be more accurate and comparable. A bulletin, *A Uniform Marking System for the Colleges of the State of Pennsylvania*, has just been issued containing the following recommendations:

"1. We recommend the use of a five point marking scale using the characters A, B, C, and D for passing grades, with either E, F, or I marking a failing grade.

"2. We recommend that marks be distributed in a general fashion, so that in classes of 100 or more, or when an instructor's marks are pooled for a five or ten-year period, they shall approximate a probability curve.

"3. We recommend the frequent use of standardized and objective tests in the various college subjects.

"4. We recommend the compilation, at least annually, in each college of the marks by hour credits given by the various instructors;

their grouping by subjects and departments with the percentage frequency of use calculated for the various marks used.

"5. We recommend the use of quality credit points on the basis most frequently found in the 55 colleges in the study using them, i. e., 3 for A grades, 2 for B, 1 for C, with the requirement that the number of such marks received equal at least the number of semester hours required for graduation.

"6. We recommend that it be suggested to colleges that these recommendations be adopted at least in part, if not as a whole."

This report contains the results of an unpublished study of Professor Edgar Mendenhall, Director of Research at Kansas State Teachers College of Pittsburg, upon college marks. This study is an inventory of opinion of a selected list of college instructors and experts. It confirms:

1. That more comparable marking is highly desirable.
2. That marks should be determined by objective tests or methods.
3. That the probability curve best represents actual achievement.
4. That when the distribution of marks of different instructors and different institutions approximate a normal probability curve, similar scholarship requirements are indicated.
5. That such condition is one index of desirable scholarship requirements.
6. That objective tests best determine actual achievement.

Making allowance for duplication, it is now estimated that of an original 1,000 pupils entering the public schools for the first time. 957 reach the sixth grade, 795 reach the seventh grade, and 720 reach the eighth grade. The estimate is the work of Frank M. Phillips, chief of the division of statistics of the United States Bureau of Education.

Indiana now requires public-school teachers and members of faculties of state institutions of higher education to take an oath of allegiance to the state and the United States.

There is much work being done at present in the objective, quantitative measurement of achievement in the various school subjects.

The Milwaukee and Oshkosh State Teachers colleges have been admitted to the North Central Association with class A rating.

The enrollment in colleges the last year has increased only two per cent, while in the several preceding years the increase was five per cent.

The establishment of a four-year course in a College of Merchandising is favored by California business men and executives.

The teachers and students of the Commonwealth College, Mena, Ark., one of the few resident labor colleges, have formed a co-operative government. This plan, proposed as an experiment by William Edward Zeuch, has proved successful enough to be adopted as a permanent feature of the school.

For some time much space has been given in leading educational periodicals to the contributions of John Dewey to educational practice and social reconstruction. The seventieth anniversary of this leading American educator and philosopher has furnished the occasion for the recognition of the debt that education owes to this outstanding leader of thought. The December number of the *Journal of the National Education Association* gives space, besides an editorial, to eight articles made up from Dewey's writings and appreciations of his work by leading educators. The following excerpt is one comment on Dr. Dewey's contribution to education:—

"John Dewey, The Friend of Childhood—No one can estimate the cumulative force of a great thought. It is more abiding than empires or races. The whole life of the world throughout the centuries to come may be colored by it. And so we have John Dewey profoundly to thank for drafting the emancipation proclamation of childhood in a philosophy which demands that children shall live and learn happily and well according to their needs and interests today as the best preparation for worthy lives tomorrow."

The Techne commends to thinking readers Dr. Dewey's recent book, *The Quest for Certainty*.

"Data collected from 1927-28 and compiled in *Rural School Circular*, No. 25, issued by the Bureau of Education, show that 151 of the 185 state normal schools and teachers' colleges in the United States offer differentiated courses or curricula for prospective rural elementary school teachers. Seventy-five institutions offer one or more curricula specifically designed for the preparation of such teachers." Twenty of these institutions offer a four-year curricula and seventy offer two or more years in such curricula. The number of institutions offering such courses of training is increasing and the quality of the course offered is improving.

A recent study by the U. S. Bureau of Education shows that of the 9,876 high schools operating in small population centers, 22 per cent are in villages ranging from 700 to 2,500 in population.

Eleven per cent are county high schools, 33 per cent are high schools organized under some form of consolidation, and 34

per cent are rural or agricultural high schools located in very small towns or in the open country.

Recent statistics show that enrollments in rural high schools have increased 26.5 per cent over a two-year period. About 25 per cent of the rural youth, 15 to 18 years of age are enrolled in high school, as compared with 70 per cent of a similar age group of urban youth.

The most notable progress in state administration and that which has affected the largest number of states has been concerned with financing rural schools, especially in securing more state funds for school support.

Teachers in the school system must maintain their residence within the state, under a new ruling of the school board of Kansas City, Mo. The ruling chiefly affects teachers who have been living on the Kansas side.