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THE TECHNE

LIFE WITHOUT LABOR IS A CRIME, LABOR WITHOUT ART AND THE AMENITIES OF LIFE IS BRUTALITY.—RUSKIN.

VOL. XVI MARCH-APRIL, 1933 NO. 4

THE UNDERLYING PHILOSOPHY

The process of interaction is circular and never ending. We plead for a better, a more just, a more open and straight-forward, a more public society, in which free and all-around communication and participation occur as a matter of course in order that education may be bettered. We plead for an improved and enlarged education in order that there may be brought into existence a society all of whose operations shall be more genuinely educative, conducive to the development of desire, judgment, and character. The desired education cannot occur within the four walls of a school shut off from life. Education must itself assume increasing responsibility for participation in projecting ideas of social change and taking part in their execution in order to be educative. The great problem of American education is the discovery of methods and techniques by which this more direct and vital participation may be brought about. We have conceived that the office of a philosophy of education at the present time is to indicate this pressing need and to sketch the lines on which alone, in our conception, it can be met. The method of experimental intelligence as the method of action cannot be established *within* education except as the activities of the latter are founded on a clear idea of the active social forces of the day, of what they are doing, of their effect, for good or harm, upon values, and except as this idea and ideal are acted upon to direct experimentation in the currents of social life that run outside the school and that conditions the effect and determine the educational meaning of what the school does.—The Final Paragraph of *"The Educational Frontier"* by William H. Kilpatrick, John Dewey and Others.

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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 the alumni, school officials, libraries, and, on request, to any person interested in the progress of education.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

THE DECLINING SUBJUNCTIVE

R. Tyson Wyckoff, Department of English

The treatment of the subjunctive mood in modern English grammars is so misleading and so directly contrary to usage as found in the content of literature that there should be reexamination in order to determine what should be the proper distribution of emphasis in teaching the subjunctive.[1] The purpose of this paper is not to indicate what should be the relative stress, but rather to suggest that there is need for reconsideration of emphasis and for the recognition of distinct types of the subjunctive as a basis for intelligent teaching.

As exemplifying the usual grammar statement of the subjunctive's brief, two grammars, the first elementary and the second of high school grade, will serve adequately:

"The subjunctive mood was once used very commonly; but in modern English it is used in only a few special constructions. The most important of these are as follows:

1. To express a wish, a prayer, or a desire.

2. To express a doubt, or a condition contrary to fact, or a condition of present or future uncertainty. In such cases it is usually preceded by *if, unless, though, although.*"[2]

"The subjunctive is occasionally used after *that, lest, before, until,* etc. in subordinate clauses expressing purpose or expectation. This construction is confined to poetry and the solemn or formal style."[3]

The first statement leaves the impression in the student's mind that the subjunctive is not sufficiently important to deserve his attention. The list of types is admittedly incomplete.[4] When the text book author expresses himself in airy generalities, the student may well heave a grateful sigh and say to himself, "Well, at any rate, this is not something that has to be learned."

The second statement, which deals insufficiently with purpose and anticipation, overlooks all other subjunctive types, unless one is to consider them defined in the marvelously inclusive abbreviation, "etc." Here too, the seeming unimportance of the subjunctive suggests to the

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1 This paper is confined entirely to the field of interpretative grammar, which should be able to differentiate between moods and within mood. Although in most phases of grammar more effective than interpretation, diagramming is not concerned with mood analysis and not in any way in conflict with the author's viewpoint.

2 Pearson and Kirchway. *Essentials of English, Second Book.* 241.

3 Kittredge and Farley. *Advanced English Grammar.* 122

4 Cf. supra "—only a few— —The most important of these—it is usually preceded by—."

student that he should not clutter his mind with information concerning it.

Both of the quoted statements are so weak and so ineffectively expressed that entire neglect of the subjunctive is preferable. In addition to lack of definiteness in classification and insufficient explanation and illustration by example, there is failure to recognize the subjunctive types of the indirect question, the indirect command, the indirect wish, the clause of proviso, and the clause involving comparison. One may even feel justified in demanding that the verb following a verb of willing obtain separate identity in the subjunctive classification.

In modern English, the only forms of the subjunctive that vary from the indicative are those in the second and third persons, singular number, present tense[5] and the forms *were*[6] and *be* in all persons and both numbers of the present tense. Merely because the subjunctive forms of some persons are indistinguishable from the indicative, it is not to be inferred that the subjunctive does not exist in both present and past tenses and in all persons. Nevertheless, since many people prefer using form or spelling as criterion rather than meaning, it is desirable for present purposes to consider those forms which differ from the indicative not only in use or meaning but also in spelling.

What is the distinctive nature of the subjunctive mood? The word, subjunctive, has developed from *sub, under* or *by* and *iunctum iungere*, to *join*. The subjunctive mood, therefore, is one which is adjacent to, assists, or helps in the clarification of the indicative or finite mood. It is the mood which not merely states a fact but reveals shades of meaning which vary to allow for shift in the quality of the essential verb aim. In general, the subjunctive is a refinement of the indicative and implies possibility, impossibility, probability, and power. The flexibility of the subjunctive makes the indicative more easily adaptable and permits emotional play upon hard, unyielding fact.

The very meaning of the connective and of the subjunctive clause, as they are related to each other and as they occur in numerous variations, requires differentiation between classes of the subjunctive. The modal force of the subjunctive verb and the function of the subjunctive clause as it affects either the sentence as a whole or the context are consequently standards which make evident distinct types of the subjunctive.[7] Why then should one ignore them or attempt to conceal them by means of an *et cetera* or an inaccurate listing in series?

Upon the bases of modal force and clause function, the subjunctive

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5 Reed and Kellogg. *Higher Lessons in English.* 328, Note.

6 Apparently Reed and Kellogg do not attempt to classify the conditional, the desiderative, or possibly the potential uses of this form.

7 Since the consideration here is by modal meaning and clause value, it is unnecessary to deal with the question of auxiliaries vs. independent verbs as

may be divided into independent and dependent types. The independent subjunctive may be classified as hortatory or jussive and desiderative—two types interchangeable in that optional meanings may be derived—and the potential.[8] The dependent subjunctive may be subdivided into concessive, conditional, subjunctive implying comparison, purpose, indirect command, indirect question, anticipatory temporal, result, indirect wish.[9]

In the following classification the items are defined by explanatory terms, and the specimens of types are limited as far as possible to examples containing the *be* form, the *were* form, and verbs of the second or third person, singular number, present tense. The subjunctive verb illustrating a given type is in italics.

INDEPENDENT USES

1. Desiderative or optative. Wish, desire.

"Angels and ministers of grace *defend* us!" Hamlet

"Hallow'd *be* Thy name." Luke 11, 2

"Thy kingdom *come*." Idem

"Thy will *be* done." Idem

God *bless* you.

Long *live* the king

2. Hortatory. Command in the first or second person.

"*Bear* we both the culprits to the magistrates." Bulwer-Lytton: The Last Days of Pompeii

"*Refer* we this insolent blasphemer to the proper tribunal." Idem

"*Return* we to our story." Byron: Don Juan

8 Reed and Kellogg consider the potential a mood. Cf. *op. cit.*, 318.

9 The general plan of this classification is comparable to that of the optative in Anglo Saxon and the subjunctive in Latin. Cf. the Latin grammars of Hale and Buck, Allen and Greenough, or Harkness and the Anglo-Saxon grammar of Sievers-Cook.

concerned with the modal determination of certain subjunctive-indicative forms. Cf. Reed and Kellogg. *Op. cit.*, 324-6.

It is hardly reasonable to treat a subjunctive as an indicative with a subjunctive meaning without assuming that the subjunctive and the indicative are comparable in modal force and that one may be influenced and interpreted in terms of the other with no loss of meaning or suggestion. It is no more easy to manipulate the subjunctive meaning than the subjunctive verb. One does encounter difficulty if he insists upon ascribing the name of something to something else which is antithetical. The resulting simplification in nomenclature seems to be an achievement in spite of the tangle which it conceals and pretends to ignore. For an opposing view cf. Reed and Kellogg. *Op. cit.*, 328, Note.

3. Jussive. Command in the third person.

Cf. any of the examples listed under *Desiderative.*

4. Potential. Power, possibility. *May, might, would, should* are distinctive forms when they do not refer merely to fact.[10] The potential occurs frequently in the apodosis, conclusion, or main clause of the complete or abbreviated conditional sentence.

".....that soil *may* best ....
Deserve the precious bane." Milton: Paradise Lost

"The distaff *were* more fitting for you."
"Perchance there *may* come a vision true."
"Without this negative called darkness, how little *should* we suspect the awful grandeurs that compass us about!" Burroughs: The Summit of the Years

"An observer—*would* have said that the tactics—were premeditated." Idem

"I find that one *may* be the principal actor in a little comedy, and not see the humor of it at all the time." Idem

"Then *were* it not well, could you.....pay them in any sort of fairy money." Carlyle: Sartor Resartus

"Were you but riding forth to air yourself, such conduct *were* too petty." Shakespeare: Cymbeline I, I

"If he had really been guilty....., he *would* have expressed some remorse.....?" Macaulay: Essay on Addison.

Dependent Uses

1. Concessive. The subjunctive occurs after *though, although,* a conjunction understood, or incorrectly after *while* to express an admission or a concession not as a fact but as a supposition.

"Though he *slay* me, yet will I trust in him." Job

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10 Cf. some indicative or factual uses of *would* and *should* in

1. Customary action in past time
"He *would* rush up and over the roof of the house with a nut in his mouth." Burroughs: The Summit of the Years
"And one that at his mother's looking glass
Would force his features to a frowning sternness."—Coleridge: Remorse
2. Determination
In spite of all hindrances, John *would* return to school that fall.
3. Obligation
"He *should* see that he can live all history in his own person." Emerson: History

Although *necessity and obligation* may be included as phases of the potential subjunctive, it seems best to omit them here in order to avoid like indicative-subjunctive verb forms and the modal uncertainty which is frequently present in verbs of necessity and obligation.

11 Also to be construed as potential in an abbreviated conditional combination.

"Abruptness, jagged lines,....., while they *may* add an element of picturesqueness, interfere with the feeling of ease." Burroughs: The Summit of the Years

"What if Pride *had* duped him into guilt?
Yet still he stalked a self-created God." Coleridge: Remorse

"Though she *hath* hidden what she after finds." James Russell Lowell: The Cathedral

"Though taste *be* ultimately founded on a certain.....sensibility to beauty, yet reason assists taste....." Blair: Lectures on Rhetoric and Belles Lettres

"Although none *be* wholly devoid of this faculty, yet the degrees——are widely different." Idem

2. Conditional. Possibility or contrary to fact.

A. Less vivid future. Implies possibility.

"It is the duty of the competent lexicographer to reduce..... to order....., if he *do* not find that the tie is.....undiscoverable." Whitney: The Life and Growth of Language

"If the king *come*, I shall incur.....his displeasure."Shakespeare: Cymbeline

"If he *should* write....., 'twere a paper lost." Idem

"For if this *be* the feeling....., it signifies that you have separated your religion from your life." Ruskin: A Crown of Wild Olive

"....but if so *be* a man's nabbed....." Goldsmith: The Good-natured Man

If he *be* dead, O come!" Coleridge: Remorse

"If it *be* a sin to make a true election, she is damned." Shakespeare: Cymbeline

B. Contrary to fact. Implies impossibility.

"If Isabell's quick eye *had* not been wed
To every symbol on his forehead high,
So once more he had wak'd and anguish'd." Keats: Isabella

"If he *were* a mere doer of deeds, his story would read....." Mabie: The Art of Arts

".....*were* Teufelsdroeckh made like other men, might..... subvert it." Carlyle: Sartor Resartus

"*had not* reason's light totally set,.....
thou hadst an amulet....." Thomas Moore: Lalla Rookh

"Bedlam would be comic, perhaps, if there *were only* one madman in it." Ruskin: A Crown of Wild Olive

"Thus if it *were* stated to be a law of nature that all heavy bodies fall to the ground, it would probably be said that the resistance of the atmosphere, which prevents a balloon from falling, constitutes the balloon an exception....." John Stuart Mill: A System of Logic

"I wish not so; unless it *had* been the fall of an ass" Shakespeare: Cymbeline

" If my shirt *were* bloody, then to shift it." Idem

3. Clauses of comparison.

"For why is all around us here
As if some lesser god *had* made the world."
Tennyson: The Passing of Arthur

"As if *'twould* to a second spring
Resign the season." Byron: Don Juan

"It looks as if there *were* something in the man that is not in his cells." Burroughs: The Summit of the Years

4. Purpose. Intention. *May*, *might*, and *should* are subjunctive forms common in purpose clauses.

"Keep thy head light
Lest it *make* thee sink."Shelley

"Give me leave that I may turn the key,
That no man *enter* ....." Shakespeare: Richard II V, 3

".....I closed mine eyelids,
Lest the gems
Should blind my purpose." Tennyson: The Passing of Arthur

"I feared to show my father Julia's letter,
Lest he *should* take exceptions to my love."
Shakespeare: The Two Gentlemen of Verona

5. Indirect command.

".....I charge thee
That thou *attend* me." Shakespeare: The Tempest I, 2

"Go bid thy mistress, when my drink is ready,
She *strike* upon the bell." Shakespeare: Macbeth II, 1

"Give me leave that I *may* turn the key,
That no man enter....." Shakespeare: Richard II V, 3

6. Indirect question.

"When I ask her if she *love* me,
She will not tell me if she *love* me." Tennyson

"But who may know
Whether smile or frown *be* fleeter." Tennyson

"....Till I know not....
....nor whether I *be* king." Tennyson: The Passing of Arthur

"And I shall inquire whether there *be* any standard." Blair: Lectures on Rhetoric and Belles Lettres

7. Anticipatory temporal. Introduced by *ere, before, till, until.*

"The tree will wither long before he *fall.*" Byron

".....to shape it as he would,
Till the high God *behold* it from beyond." Tennyson: The Passing of Arthur

"And one last act of kinghood shalt thou see,
Yet, ere I *pass.*" Ibid
"And he.....
Has mingled many a dedicative vow
That holds him, till thy last delight *be* known." Alan Seeger: An Ode to Natural Beauty
"Me, from sweet slumber underneath green boughs,
Ere the stars *flee*, may forest matin rouse." Idem
"Freeman, come!
Ere your heritage *be* wasted". Bret Harte: The Reveille

"Ere it *break*,
Receive my heart." Owen Meredith: The Wanderer

"'Twas like the note, half ecstasy, half pain,
The bulbul utters, ere her soul *depart.*"
Thomas Moore:Lalla Rookh

8. Proviso.

"There is no harm in anyone's rating....., provided he *do* not let his sanguineness warp his judgment." Whitney: The Life and Growth of Language

9. Result.

"He that smiteth a man so that he *die* shall surely be put to death."
'.....and Messer Satanas will rake in the just and the unjust alike, so that he *need* no longer fast on Fridays." F. Marion Crawford: A Roman Singer

"But in his verse, and in his prose,
The essence of his dulness was
Concentred and comprest so close,
'*Twould* have made Guatimozin doze
On his red gridiron of brass. Shelly: Peter Bell The Third

10. Indirect wish. See also negative clauses listed under *Purpose.*

"Yet still be afraid.....

Lest aught in that palatial solitude
Lurked of most menace to a helpless maid." Alan Seeger: An Ode to Natural Beauty

Examples illustrating this classification, which is only suggestive, occur in profusion in English literature and in American literature, in the productions of modern as well as older authors. So long as such literature provides the materials for teaching, it ill becomes secondary instruction deliberately to ignore the subjunctive.

The simplification of the subjunctive forms, which has outstripped tendencies of this mood to become confused with the indicative in modal force, has probably been the source of the current misconception of the subjunctive. Whatever inflectional decline the subjunctive may have suffered, it is still a force to be reckoned with and still a construction necessary for exact and meaningful expression.

MEASURING RESULTS IN SHORTHAND

Willa M. Dush, Department of Commerce

Shorthand is written by sound. A letter that isn't sounded isn't written. In order to use shorthand the student must hear the word, analyze it into its sounds, recall the shorthand character that represents each sound, and then execute those characters, all in a half second's time, if he is to write at the rate of 120 words a minute.

Shorthand is, therefore, both a content subject and a skill subject, and we must measure both his knowledge and his skill. Or is it skills? Is it a skill to hear dictated material correctly? Is it a skill to write shorthand at the rate of 100 or 125 words a minute? Is it a skill to read shorthand after it is written? Is it a skill to read shorthand and at the same time operate a typewriter at the rate of 40 or 50 words a minute? Then to that add the skill necessary to place a letter attractively on the page and the knowledge required to spell, paragraph, and punctuate correctly and you will begin to sense what a complicated problem we are facing and how inadequate our ordinary shorthand tests are.

What does the usual shorthand test measure? Knowledge of the system, do you say? But there are two types of knowledge, the simple recall of some six hundred or more brief forms (or word signs) and phrases, and the knowledge which leads to the application of the word-building principles to the thousands of words for which we have no special form. Should we try to differentiate between the two types of knowledge in our testing or can both types be measured in exactly the same manner? Personally, I believe that we should differentiate, because the brief forms and phrases must be memorized while the application of the principles requires reasoning. One can dictate the brief forms and phrases as rapidly as the students can write and measure their ability to recall the proper outline and write it, but how well will words dictated at even 30 words a minute measure their knowledge of the application of the principles. Would it not be better to give them a principle and a list of words to which the principle applies and see if they can apply the principle sufficiently well to write the words correctly? But someone objects to using "just words." They believe that connected matter should always be used since that is the way the student will evenually use his shorthand. True enough, but there are so many principles needed to write any connected matter, except perhaps nonsense jingles, that the average first-year student is wholly confused and is unable to write even what he really knows.

If one wants to test knowledge of several principles at the same time, it is advisable to arrange the words in sequence. For example, if there are ten principles, the first, eleventh, twenty-first, thirty-first, forty-first, and fifty-first words illustrate the first principle and the second, twelfth, twenty-second, thirty-second, forty-second, and fifty-

second words would illustrate the second principle, and so on. If, when scoring, the pupil has written a word incorrectly, the teacher should check the other words illustrating the same principle. If two or more are written incorrectly it is safe to assume that the student does not understand the principle thoroughly; but if he has failed on only one word and has five or more words on the same principle written correctly, it is probably due to carelessness, rather than to lack of knowledge.

Then the question comes up, "should a grade of 70 of 75% be considered a *passing grade* in the knowledge of shorthand? How long will a stenographer hold her job if she gets but ¾ of the dictation down or transcribe with only 75% accuracy?

When should we begin to measure the skills that are being developed, the first year or the second? We can answer this question by asking another,—When should we begin to build skills? Surely when we have begun skill building, we need to measure the results of our efforts.

Skill in hearing may be quickly tested by having students repeat words pronounced to them orally. Skill in writing has two phazes to be measured, viz., *speed* and *accuracy*. In the office the stenographer must take dictation accurately and fast. Speed may be easily measured by dictating counted material at definite pre-determined rates. The testing of accuracy is not so quickly done as the teacher must examine the shorthand notes, which is a tedious time-consuming process. A transcript will not answer the purpose because skill in reading would be likely to affect the score or grade. Sometimes material is typed or printed with a ruled line below each line of material. The student must write the shorthand below the printed words and the work is scored by the use of the Hoke Scale for Shorthand Penmanship. Legibility rather than beautiful or artistic notes, it seems to me, should be the criteria upon which the grade is based.

Two methods may be used to measure skill in reading shorthand. Some teachers prefer to have each student read aloud, for from two to five minutes, from engraved shorthand and others prefer to have them read aloud from their own writing. Perhaps a good plan would be to use engraved shorthand for the first-year students and have the second-year students read from their own notes.

Most teachers agree that transcription test should not be given until the second year because the students have not mastered either shorthand or typewriting sufficiently before the latter part of the first year to be able to do the two at one time.

Why do we need to measure the results of our shorthand teaching? Some would say "As a basis for grades"; others would say "To show the student where he stands and to spur him on to greater effort"; still others would say "To show the teacher how well or how poorly he has

taught." But if we stop here, it seems to me that we have missed a most important opportunity, that of using the results of our tests as a basis for remedial teaching.

In order to be of value as a basis for remedial teaching, tests must be scored or graded, each student's weaknesses analyzed and recorded, and the papers handed back to the students at the next meeting of the class. If the same weaknesses are apparent on several of the papers, class time should be taken to reteach the work and eliminate the difficulties; but if only one or two students had a paticular difficulty, individual attention should be given.

THE MEASUREMENT OF CHARACTER

Edgar N. Mendenhall

I. The Importance of Character in Social Progress and Adaptation

We live in an ever changing universe. That everything within this universe has happened, is happening, and will happen and that the history of mankind is one infinitismal phase of this going concern seem highly plausible. Social progress, human relationships, the activity of every human being is a part of this movement. The climb of primitive man to his present status has been possible to the degree that he has been able to adapt himself to the universal forces which bore in upon him. This adaptation has always been one of great complexity. It has consisted not alone of the adaptation to the physical forces of nature but has included the multiple relationships with his fellow beings. Better human relationships have always been the dream of the great moral leaders of all times. It is still a dream. The poet could today write with truth, "Man's inhumanity to man makes countless thousands mourn."

Every community witnesses the need of a finer adaptation of its individual members to each other. Not only frequent overt acts of crime occur but bickering, dishonesty and under-handed dealings are far too common. It is probable that the remark of the prison chaplin when asked by a visiting clergyman of a fashionable church to suggest what he should say to the convicts when requested to address them was not far from the truth. "Talk to them as you would to your own flock," said the chaplin. "Just remember that the only difference is that many of your own people have not yet been caught."

It is not crime—the violation of the law—that is the best index of a disjointed social life. A far better criterion is found in the attitude of each member of the family to each other and the attitude of each towards those without the family circle. The process of social regard when normally developed begins in the family circle, passes to the neighborhood, then to the community, then to the state and nation and lastly is world inclusive. With many this regard remains for the self and the family circle.

It is these facts, patent to the common wayfarer, that force attention upon the need of character of a high type. There is need that the character of every individual of the social group be developed to its highest level. If we knew much more intimately than we do the intrinsic nature of character and understood just what stimuli would produce character of the best type in the varied individuals which make up society our social ills would be largely solved. Any effort therefore which may tend to throw light upon the nature of so important a factor

for human welfare—in a way isolate it so it may be studied and measured—should receive every encouragement.

II. The Need of Scientific Measurements for Social Progress

The present-day material civilization has reached its present stage of development because of the application of scientific principles. The core of scientific procedure consists in the careful study of concrete phenomena, its classification and organization and the deduction of basic principles which govern the activity of the phenomena observed. Such procedure has been given impetus by the application of exact measurement and such measurement has made possible by the invention and use of measuring instruments.

The refinements of these instruments and the determination of standards have been followed by an advance in science and this in turn has contributed to the material welfare of society As an example in one field alone, withdraw ampere, ohm, watt and the exact means of determining these units of measurement and the utilization of electricity would near the vanishing point. Multiple instances might be given in practically every science of the value of exact instruments of measurements and of the use of exact standards.

Since the developement of scientific measurement in the material field has proved its worth it seems reasonable to conclude that a somewhat similar process applied to moral and social relationships should also be fruitful of results. In fact there is no distinct line of cleavage between the moral and physical realm. There is no sound reason why the two should be absolutely separated. Character and morality might well be considered as another dimension—a phase of the physical life. Hence the measure applied to physical conditions and activities would have their bearing and some use in the measurement of complex and abstract qualities.

III. Some Difficulties Involved in the Measurement of Character

To measure anything more or less isolation is necessary. To th degree that such an isolation can be made the more nearly accurat will be the measurement. It is here that we encounter a tremendou difficulty when we attempt to set character apart to itself in order tc measure it. We are overwhelmed when we begin to study it with its vagueness and complexity. We experience the hangover of our religious teaching and of traditional thought and our thinking is muddled. Roback says, "Character is an enduring psycho-physical disposition to inhibit instinctive impulses in accordance with a regulative principle." . . . . "Firmness is the quality which typifies character at its best; and firmness goes particularly well with inhibitions for the greater the firmness the greater the inhibitions." And Roback takes the posi-

tion that character cannot be measured except through inhibitions. In C. K. Ogden's book, The Meaning of Phychology this statement is made: "By a man's character at any time we may mean either his dominant sentiments and complexes, consious and unconscious alike, the entire organization of his dispositions." From these definitions and from others that might be quoted it is seen that the isolation of character as a definite entity capable of being measured presents a seemingly insurmountable problem.

The fact that the seeming best interpretation of character is also to regard it a complex action pattern making of it a more or less inconstant phenomena adds another difficulty to its measurement. An illustration of such complexity is the discussion of the word "good" as applied to some specific function of the human organism. Givler in his book, The Ethics of Hercules, lists the uses of this word from Murray's New Oxford Dictionary, The Century Dictionary and Encyclopedia, Webster's and the Standard Dictionary. From these references he discovers seventy-nine distinctions in the use of this word. Such a varying representation of desirable human attitudes and conduct in the definition of a word having to do with character is indicative of the intricacy and complicated nature of the meaning of the word character itself. As I conceive character it may be likened to a stream ever moving, ever changing with a certain constancy of relationships. This stream presses against obstacles in its onward movement and adjusts itself, let us say, more or less fittingly. Now if we could think of this stream in cross section and within this cross section different rates and movements—different pressures with surges and ripples, the difficulty of contriving an instrument to measure this composite action is suggestive of the difficulty of devising an instrument to measure character. If my figure itself is obscure and inadequate it further illustrates the intricacy of the problem.

Another difficulty which attends the attempt to measure character has in a measure already been indicated. How are norms or standards to be determined? Where are they to be found? Are these to be determined by social usage? Should one determine the best of the group's thought so far as this is possible in arriving at standards, or is *right* and *wrong* a matter to be referred to the principles developed within the life of each individual? Shall we attempt to arrive at standards by a combination of those of the individual and the standards of the group or society? Further, can standards themselves remain constant or will it be needful from time to time to revise them and develop new ones? Can common standards be determined that fit all situations, all types of peple in any sort of group? Can there be only one right way? May an act be right for one person and the same act be wrong for another? May the same act of the same person be right at one time under certain environing conditions and wrong under others? These knotty questions plunge us deeply into the difficulty of character measurement.

"The criterion" (of conduct) says Everett Dean Martin, "must

be relevant to the situation at hand. The good must be something which has to do with the case. There must be a sense of connection between an act and its end. In other words we cannot escape the fact that good behavior, as Dewey says, is intelligent action. Intelligence is the best guide to conduct. . . . .Morality has as much to do with the environment as with the will. Man is at his best when he comes to understand himself as a creator of value and the author of the moral criteria by which his life must be guided to ultimate success or failure, a success or failure which may involve both himself and his world." Such a point of view, and it seems to me correct, would indicate the practical impossibility of setting clearcut norms for character.

Among the most usuable scales of measurements in the educational subjects are those constructed similarly to the quantitive scales in science. The meter, the foot-rule and the yardstick, measures of weight are constructed so that equal units are used. The Thorndike Writing Scale, theWriting Scale of Ayres, both very useful and helpful scales in this particular subject, are constructed with equal steps from the lowest quality of writing to the highest. This characteristic adds much to their value. Composition scales in general are more difficult to use because of the absence of this feature and because the subject of composition is more intangible and hence more difficult to measure. The nature of character is such that it would seem an impossibility with our present knowledge to construct a scale with determinable units.

Some of the problems in the administration of character scales have been already implied. If character is in large measure an individual composite function perhaps character tests similar to the Binet Intelligence Test need to be used. That is, it might be desirable to measure the character of every child separately. This of course would add to the difficulty of administration. The administrator would need to be more expert and it would be time consuming. It also seems to me that the administration of character tests in general would be more difficult than the administration of other types of tests because of the difficulty of having the situation at the time of giving such tests life like. The complexity of character is such that it would seem to me extremely difficult to bring about a situation where the child would act normally.

It might be the contention of some that since it is impossible to construct exact scales for the measurement of character and because no measure even approximately correct can be made we should abandon the attempt to plumb such an "airy" thing. To this we can reply that we already crudely measure it. This is done by practically every individual throughout his life of all with whom he comes in contact. I just came from a drug store where I made a small purchase for the first time. I entered into a short conversation with the proprietor and I, perhaps roughly, but I did it, formed an estimate of his "square-dealing." Any rough judgment of a person's character is a measure. Since this is an inevitable practice in human relations, it is the part of wisdom

to develop more exact methods. The development and the application of character scales should help define more clearly the nature of character and ultimately lead to better practices in securing its training even if perfection is not reached.

It may be further argued that instruments of measurements in other fields were once exceeding crude. The first timepiece was no doubt very inaccurate as no doubt was practically every other now commonly used measuring device. Even if the character scales now used are likewise inaccurate it would seem that in time they too would be refined. "Nobody," says Thorndike, "need be disturbed at these unfavorable contrasts between the measurements of educational products and measurements of mass, density, velocity, temperature, quality of electricity and the like. The zero temperature was located only a few years ago, and the quantity of units in the temperature-scale rests upon intricate and rather subtle presuppositions. At least, I venture, to assert that no one in four, say, the judges of the Supreme Court, bishops of our churches, and governors of our states could tell clearly and adequately what these presuppositions are. Our measurements of educational products would not at present be entirely safe grounds on which to extol or condemn a system of teaching reading or arithmetic, but many of them are far superior to measurements whereby our courts of law decide that one trade-mark is an infringement on another."

Anyway, we must deal with character as a reality. It is a constant presence in our life. Since it does exist there should be some way and constantly better ways of determining the degree of its potentiality. Even slight steps in this direction should bring valuable social returns.

IV. Steps Needed in the Scientific Procedure of Character Measurement

I have already mentioned the desirability of the definition or isolation of this complex trait called character as needful in order to measure it. I have also pionted out that this is tremenduously difficult. It is the same difficulty that has been faced in the effort to measure intelligence and although "intelligence" has been an "object" of study for many years psychologists even yet are not agreed as to what constitutes this trait. Character, as I conceice it, is an individual dynamic behavior pattern, or attitudes, conditioned by innate characteristics interacting with environmental forces, and revealed in life situations as either good or bad in the degree that the consequences or issues at stake in behavior affect present or human welfare for good or ill. Such a definition, so it seems to me, might set apart for workable purposes the nature of character for a beginning in measurement. In order to begin this measurement it would be needful to set up in aseries of scales challenging life situations having the consequences indicated. Such a conception seems to be brought out in "First Steps Toward a Scale for Measuring Attitudes," an article by professors May and Hartshorne, published in the March, 1926, number of

the Journal of Education Psychology. They select "dishonesty" as a phase of character to be measured. Dishonesty is likened "to a particular form of energy, such as heat, and is to be measured by the amount of work done, that is by the dishonest acts performed.....the resistance overcome in doing it." The scheme seems to be logical and well conceived. I see no reason why, as they suggest, that scales well validated and meeting the criteria which they set up in games and play situations, situations involving business transactions and in fact every possible situation of typical life problems, might ultimately be constructed and the character patterns of individuals and groups be in a rather high degree disclosed or measured.

Before scales measuring character can be generally used they must be constructed so that they may be applied to subjects living under all sorts of social conditions and under practically any environment. One difficulty that has attended the validating of scales for the measurement of school subjects and intelligence has been the presence of this defect. Language handicaps as well as social handicaps has made it difficult to use acceptable intelligence and achievement scales with different nations and races. Rugg experienced this in the Philippines and in Porto Rico. Trabue in a Phi Delta Kappa meeting admitted that it was questionable whether the results of the use of the Intelligence Tests in the South were altogether valid. A colored student in one of my classes felt that the present intelligence tests did not fairly measure the intelligence of negroes. Hence in the construction of character scales to the degree that a universal common core of situations could be selected that would be equally challenging to all individuals and groups to this degree would the scales be valuable for general use. To do this would of course require much research and experimentation but I believe it could be done. The article referred to before, "First Steps Toward a Scale for Measuring Attitudes" states, "Unless we succeed in getting down to the basic dynamic factors underlying attitudes, it is doubtful if such scales as are here proposed can ever be as universal as the intelligence scales. They will forever rest upon the performance of the group for which they are made. But at the best, they would serve as useful instruments for the quantitive description of individual behavior in relation to stated groups." It would seem to me that it is possible to get down to these basic attitudes and thus increase the range of their use. But, as I have indicated, to construct such scales would not be an "over-night" job.

Another limitation in the developement of a character scale is the difficulty of setting up a natural life situation. Various scales have endeavored to this with perhaps measurable success. Nevertheless, it is questionable whether this criteria has been met to the fullest possible degree. For example the trait of deception or honesty may perhaps be stimulated under many exceedingly diverse conditions. There are such an infinite number of life situations with such a complicated varitey of stimulating forces that it would seem almost impossibe to select or concoct situations which would select enough common and enduring ele-

ments to insure a test situation. The type and manner of the administrator might invalidate the findings. This is to a degree true in the administration of the Binet Tests and in several achievement tests. It would seem to me that character tests would be even more difficult to properly administer. Hence exceeding care must be used to neutralize such a posibility. It is highly essential that the subjects tested be placed so far as possible in a natural setting and caught as it were "off their guard."

V. Some Studies and Contributions Upon the Measurement of Character.

The consideration of character goes back into the earliest writings of history. The ethics of Confucius, Brahma, Zoroaster, the philosophers of Greek and Rome had to do with the moral conduct of man. Likewise the Bible has been the outstanding book among the "so-called" civilized nations as a source of information for the guidance of individuals in their relations with each other. Perhaps the Ten Commandments might be considered as a rude sort of character scale. But it is only fairly recently, perhaps under the influence of the modern scientific spirit that attention has been directed toward he study of character in a scientific way.

The most scientifically complete account of "Testing the Knowledge of Right and Wrong" that has come to my attention consists of a group of six articles by Professors Hugh Hartshorne, Mark May and others. This compilation covers a general description of a test used by the General Education Inquiry which is attacking the problem of character measurement, the administration of the tests and preliminary statistical results, the code value of moral knowledge scores, some probable sources of moral knowledge of children, the relation of standards to behavior in individuals and group standards and group conduct. This account indicates the care being taking by this character inquiry group to base their findings upon definite objective data. It evidences slow thoughful procedure. The tentative conclusions of the article, Some Probable Sources of Moral Knowledge in Children, were of special interest to me. In brief these conclusions were:

1. The home reveals by far the highest relationship between children's knowledge of right and wrong and that of the major influence groups, viz., parents, friends, club leaders, public school teachers.

2. There seems to be little evidence to lead us to believe that there is a Moral Age corresponding to the Mental Age of Children.

3. A child does not have a general code of morals but varies according to the situation in which he finds himself.

Another interesting study has been made rather recently under the direction of Dr. L. M. Terman of the character and personality

traits of gifted children. A complete account of this study is given in the first volume of his "Genetic Study of Genius." From this study I quote:

"A battery of seven 'character' tests was made up, composed of two of the best tests from Cady' series and five of the best of Raubenheimer's series. The battery was given to 532 children of the main gifted group and to 533 unselected children of a control group.

"Comparison of the mean scores of the gifted and control groups by age shows a significant superiority of the gifted group of both sexes at all ages."

"The gifted child of 9 years reached a level of character development corresponding roughly to that of unselected children of 14 years.

"In most of the tests the gifted girl makes a better average score than the gifted boy, while in the control group the sex difference when they are found, are considerably smaller. In the test of honesty, however, the boys of both groups make a better showing than the girls."

"Girls begin their adolescent spurt in character development about a year earlier than boys."

"Sex differences in the variability of scores earned in these tests are for the most part small and inconsistent."

"Although these tests do not make possible a very reliable comparison of individual children, they warrant the conclusion that in the traits that they measure the gifted group is decisively superior to the control group, and that this superiority is greater for girls than for boys."

Some bibliographies of tests of personality and character are "Personality and Character Tests," by Mark A. May, Hugh Hartshorne and Ruth E. Welty, in The Psychological Bulletin, Vol. 24, No. 7, July, 1927, "Personality and Character Tests," by Mark A May and Hugh Hartshorne, The Psychological Bulletin, Vol. 23, No. 7, July, 1926, and a bibliography of "Character and Personality," by A. A. Roback.

In the first bibliography cited we find the following interesting groupings:

A. Summaries.

B. Batteries Including Various Assemblages of Tests Intended to Measure More Than a Single Trait.

C. Tests and Techniques Intended Primarily to Measure Objectively (and mainly in terms of conduct) Certain Personality Traits and Types of Behavior.

1. Aggressiveness.
2. Deception.

3. Carefulness.
4. Persistence.
5. Resistence.
6. Social Perception.
7. Social Recognition.

D. Tests and Testing Techniques Intended Primarily to Measure Affective Aspects of Personality.

I. Instincts and Emotions.

a. Laboratory Techniques for Measuring the Relative Strength of Emotions and Instincts.

b. Paper and Pencil Tests of Emotionality and Emotional Instability.

c. Records as Basis for Study of Affective Differences.

II. Mood and Temperament.

III. Attitudes, Interests, Preferences, Prejudices, etc.

a. General Attitudes and Interests.

b. Specific Attitudes and Interests.

1. Attitudes toward Deception.
2. Conservative-radical Attitudes.
3. Cribbing.
4. Racial Attitudes.
5. Social Distance.

c. Tests of Specific Interests.

E. Tests and Techniques Intended to Measure Primarily Social-Ethical Ideas and Judgement.

I. Test Requiring the Rating of Social Situations.

II. Tests Requiring Various Sorts of Responses to Imagined Situations.

F. Ratings.

I. Techniques and Applications.

II. Self-Ratings.

G. Experiments Involving Quantitive Studies.

I. Trait Studies.

1. Confidence.
2. Deception.
3. Leadership.
4. Popularity.

II. Studies of Moral and Social Concepts and Ideals.

III. Miscellaneous Studies.

This Bibliography lists one hundred and fify titles.

The grouping of the tests under the several headings is very informing since they indicate the tremendous difficulty and range of the subject studied.

Some of the problems needed to be further investigated in connection with the measurement of character have already been indicated. As I see them they are:

1. A clearer isolation of its nature.

2. The isolation of the traits making up its composite "character."

3. The development of type natural social situations to be used in character tests.

4. The development of tests which can be used ar administered by the relative inexpert.

5. The determination of the environmental situations and the methods most desirable for character development.

TRUE EDUCATIONAL ECONOMY

By Theo. W. H. Irion, Pres. M. S. T. A.

To All Citizens of Missouri interested in Education

I. I HOLD THESE TO BE FUNDAMENTAL TRUTHS

True economy is always positive in nature; it always implies conservation and saving. Rarely is it negative, that is, a process of elimination. It is constructive rather than destructive.

True economy is beneficial for all times; it is not temporary in nature. The real economies of the present must prove beneficial even twenty-five years from today.

True economy is always planned; it is never the product of hysterical frenzy.

True economy in education must always prove beneficial to childhood and youth. It is profitless, if it holds only temporary benefits for the matured citizens of the present.

True economy always means a sacrifice on the part of someone.

II. ON THE BASIS OF THESE FUNDAMENTAL TRUTHS, I WOULD JUDGE THE FOLLOWING TO BE INCORRECT PRACTICES

To think only of slashing and cutting. When circumstances leave no alternative, but compel the elimination of real educational enterprises, we should not proceed with the gleefulness attendant upon the extermination of a nuisance. We should accept the inevitable only with a heavy heart.

To be rushed into economy measures because of the clamoring of unduly excited individuals. Hastily drawn up economy measures are usually deeply regretted later. They always carry with them only doubtful temporary benefits.

To think only of saving money and to forget the saving and developing of human lives and the future stability of the State.

To shift the burden of sacrifice from the present generation of citizens to the future generation. If we think only of our convenience, we will find the future citizen of our State more poorly equipped than we are to meet problems which are apt to be even more complicated than those of the present.

III. ON THE BASIS OF THESE TRUTHS I WOULD JUDGE THE FOLLOWING TO BE ESSENTIAL ECONOMICS

To make extreme sacrifices in order that every child of school age be kept in school.

To make every sacrifice to supply the physical needs of children from homes where real want exists. This can usually be done most systematically through our schools.

To make every effort to provide a varied instructional program in order to meet the needs of children of all kinds and conditions. Do not be too hasty to condemn things as *frills* or *fads*. Some of these may possibly prove to be more useful in the lives of our future citizens than certain so-called fundamentals.

To put forth every effort to maintain the training and morale of teachers. If ever exceptional teachers were needed, it is today.

To put forth every effort to create some educational and recreational contact between school and parents. For many of them their homes have become bleak places of want and care.

To maintain our faith in Education as the most effective way yet discovered to improve mankind.

A PRAYER FOR TEACHERS

By Glenn Frank

O Lord, of Learning and Learners, we are at best but blunderers in this godlike business of teaching. Our shortcomings shame us, for we are not alone in paying the penalty for them; they have a sorry immortality in the maimed minds of those whom we, in our blunderings, mislead.

We have been content to be merchants of dead yesterdays, when we should have been guides into unborn tomorrows.

We have put comformity to old customs above new ideas.

We have thought more about our subject than about object.

We have been peddlers of petty accuracies, when we should have been priests and prophets of abundant living.

We have schooled our students to be clever competitors in the world as it is, when we should have been helping them to become creative co-operators in the making of the world as it is to be.

We have regarded our schools as training camps for an existing society to the exclusion of making them working-models of an evolving society.

We have counted knowledge more precious than wisdom.

We have tried to teach our students what to think instead of how to think.

We have thought it our business to furnish the minds of our students, when we should have been laboring to free their minds.

And we confess that we have fallen into these sins of the schoolroom because it has been the easiest way. It has been easier to tell our students about motionless past that we can learn once for all than to join with them in trying to understand the moving present that must be studied afresh each morning.

From these sins of sloth may we be freed.

May we realize that it is important to know the past only that we may live wisely in the present. Help us to be more interested in stimulating the builders of modern cathedrals than in retailing to students the glories of ancient temples.

Give us to see that a student's memory should be a tool as well as a treasure-chest.

Help us to say "do" oftener than we say "don't."

Help us to realize that in the deepest sense, we cannot teach

anybody anything; that the best we can do is to help them to learn for themselves.

Save us from the blight of specialism; give us reverence for our materials, that we may master the facts of our fields, but help us to see that all facts are dead until they are related to the rest of knowledge and to the rest of life.

May we know how to "relate the coal scuttle to the universe."

Help us to see that education is, after all, but the adventure of trying to make ourselves at home in the modern world.

May we be shepherds to the spirit as well as masters of the mind.

Give us, O Lord of Learners, a sense of the divinity of our undertaking.

BOOK NOTES

Street, Claude W., Ph. D. *State Control of Teacher Training in the United States.* Educational Monograph Number 2, 1932, Bureau of Research, Kansas State Teachers College of Pittsburg. 103 pp. $1.00.

In this monograph is reported an intensive study by means of analysis and evaluation to determine the relative merits of the various methods of state control of teacher training in the United States.

The data are collected from the constitutional and statutory laws of the forty-eight states, forty-six state surveys of educational systems dealing with the problems of teacher training in thirty-four states, and various other studies in the fields of education and American government. In addition, check lists calling for judgments on some of the important questions concerning the state control of teacher training were filled out by eighty-one outstanding men representing three fields of educational administration as well as the field of American government.

After making an analysis and tabulation of the various elements entering into the state control of teacher training in the forty-eight states, the author classifies state control as follows:

"Various methods have been devised for the control of the state institutions engaged in the preparation of teachers. While these differ very much in detail, there seem to be five fairly distinct types of state control in use at present. These are:

I. The type in which each of several state institutions engaged in the professional preparation of teachers is under the major control of its own separate board of trustees.

II. The type in which the several state institutions devoted exclusively to the professional preparation of teachers are under the control of a single board which does not have jurisdiction over the public school system or other state institutions of higher learning.

III. The type in which all state institutions engaged in the professional preparation of teachers are under the major control of a board of higher education which does not have jurisdiction over the public school system.

IV. The type in which all state institutions devoted exclusively to the professsional preparation of teachers are under the major control of a state board or department of education, which has jurisdiction over the public school system, but does not control other institutions of higher learning.

V. The type in which all state institutions devoted exclusively to the professional preparation of teachers are under the control of a state

board of education which has jurisdiction over the public school system and also controls other state institutions of higher learning.

All of the states may be classified under these five types with the exception of three, Delaware, Nevada and Wyoming, which have but one state institution of higher education."

The preponderance of evidence presented by the surveys, other educational literature, and by the authorities on American state government, relative to the five types of control, is favorable to a strong board of education (Type IV) having jurisdiction over the public school system, with a commissioner of education, chosen by the board, as its executive officer. The judgments of the jury of eighty-one experts also supports the Type IV plan of state control of teacher training.

The final conclusions of the author on the basis of the study are well stated by him as follows:

"1. The provision of an effective plan for the control of teacher training in any state is dependent upon having a properly constituted state organization for general administration of education.

2. The general policies of a state in educational matters, including the form of educational organization and provisions for educational institutions and their control, should be determined by legislative action rather than by constitutional enactment.

3. A State Board of Education should be established by law and vested with general supervision and control over the whole state school system. This board should consist preferably of seven members, appointed by the Governor without the approval of the Senate,—one member to be chosen each year for a seven-year term. The Governor should not be limited in his choice of members by any requirements as to age, sex, residence, occupation or political affiliation. Members should receive no compensation for their services, but should be reimbursed for necessary expenses incurred in attending meetings of the board.

4. The law should further provide for a State Commissioner of Education to be chosen by the State Board of Education for an indefinite term at a minimum salary ranging from $7500 to $10,000 according to the rank of the state in population and wealth. He should be chosen solely because of his fitness for the office, without any restrictions as to previous residence.

5. The State Commissioner of Education should be the executive

head of the State Department of Education, and the executive secretary of the State Board of Education with a voice in its deliberations but no vote. He should also be an ex-officio member of all other boards provided for the control of state educational institutions. His duties

should be defined by law, but he should be subject to the general supervision of the State Board.

6. A specialist in the administration of teacher training should be employed as director of teacher preparation to serve as an assistant to the Commissioner of Education. In cooperation with the heads of the teacher-training institutions, and members or committees of the faculty, the director should carry on research studies relating to various problems of teacher training.

7. The State Board of Education should be given direct control over all state institutions provided especially for the preparation of teachers.

8. The State Board of Educaiotn should also be vested with general supervision over teacher-training work of other state and private institutions in a sufficient degree to bring about a well- coordinated or integrated state program of teacher training based upon the needs of the state. Such supervision should be broad in scope and based upon leadership of the highest type. It must not be of the petty or arbitrary sort which tends to interfere unnecessarily with local initiative and to reduce everything to dead uniformity.

9. In the case of state institutions of higher education, other than teachers colleges or normal schools, there is probably no one type of control that is suitable for all states. In some states, especially the smaller ones with only a few educational institutions of moderate size, a Type V plan of direct control by State Board of Education will probably be the best ulitmate plan. In others with a comparatively large number of such institutions, it may be desirable to consolidate them as a greater university or to place them under the control of a single board of higher education.

10. Boards which may be provided for the control either of single institutions or of a number of institutions should be constituted as suggested for the State Board of Education in the matter of appointment, qualifications for membership, and compensation. They should, in addition to the Commissioner of Education as ex-officio member, consist of approximately eight members,—one to be chosen each year for an eight-year term.

11. Special coordinating or curricular boards do not offer much promise as a means of coordinating the teacher-training work of various institutions within a state.

12. Whatever the general type of control, provision should be made for conferences of the chief school officer and the executive heads, presidents or deans of education, of all state institutions engaged in the professional preparation of teachers, for the consideration of general policies relating to teacher training.

13. The functions of the State Board of Education and the other boards having control of state educational institutions should be defined by law in broad, general terms giving them wide discretionary powers

and the necessary authority to carry out the purposes for which the institutions were established. Detailed legislation restricted the discretion of the board in administering the institutions under its control is usually undesirable, except for curative purposes, where the public welfare may require it.

14. It would seem that under a unified plan of control, such as that outlined above, conditions would be favorable for the development of an efficient and economical program of teacher training. Much would depend, however, upon the character of the men appointed to the board, and upon the ability and leadership of the Commissioner of Education."

This educational monograph is well written and there is every indication that the investigation has been both careful and thorough. The study should prove both interesting and valuable to educational administrators and those directing future legislation relative to state control of teacher training in the United States.—Ernest M. Anderson.

MARIO ROUSTAN. 17 *Mois Rue de Grenelle.* Paris: Bibliotheque des Educators. 1932. i+319 pp.

In a preliminary exposé Roustan submits a plan of instruction, derived from his experiences and observation as Minister of Public Instruction, which he believes will better coordination of studies, greater chance for shifting from one type of preparation to another, lessened retardation, and increased holding power of the school. There follow twenty-two addresses made by Roustan on various occasions during his ministry. The author urges humanistic studies as a philosophical background to give direction and to counteract shortsightedness in materialistic education, and democracy in education as a protection against mass ignorance. The author's style is rich in colorful words and figures and ornamented with suitable classical allusions and quotations which demonstrate that the experience of the past is valuable in solving problems of the present. This book, the French of which is of only average difficulty, deserves the careful examination of earnest American educators.—R. Tyson Wyckoff.

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