Jesuit Educational Quarterly

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THREE STUDIES

SUPERVISION IN JESUIT HIGH SCHOOLS
Lorenzo K. Reed, S. J.

UNDERGRADUATE ACADEMIC WRITING
Edward Shipsey, S. J.

HIGH-SCHOOL PERIODICALS
Wilfred M. Mallon, S. J.

VOL. VIII, No. 2

Contributors

This issue of the QUARTERLY presents three studies made by three men particularly well equipped in their fields.

FATHER LORENZO K. REED'S study of high-school supervision was made at the request of the Executive Committee of the Jesuit Educational Association. Father Reed has his Master's degree in education from Fordham University, and for the past several years has been principal of Canisius High School, Buffalo, New York. Administrators and teachers will be interested in his views on an adequate program of supervision.

FATHER EDWARD SHIPSEY, head of the Department of English at the University of Santa Clara, has always shown a keen interest in the problem of college writing. His interest has resulted in a program at Santa Clara that has drawn the attention of many California colleges. Jesuits in other parts of the United States will be glad to know how he approaches the problem.

Some problems that have perplexed principals and librarians, not to mention treasurers, are the amount a high-school library should spend on periodicals, the number of periodicals that should be found in a high-school library, and the advisability of binding periodicals. The very thorough study made by FATHER WILFRED M. MALLON, Prefect General of the Missouri Province, offers data that will help to a solution of these problems.

The QUARTERLY is particularly fortunate in having a South American Jesuit, Father Jose Espinosa Polit, review Father Peter Dunne's book, *A Padre Looks at South America.* Father Espinosa, a native of Ecuador, is now a fourth-year theologian at West Baden College.

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Supervision in Jesuit High Schools

LORENZO K. REED, S. J.

I. INTRODUCTION

For several years past the Board of Governors and the Executive Committee of the Jesuit Educational Association have been urging a more definite program of supervision in our Jesuit high schools. In the response of the Board of Governors to the 1942 Report of the Executive Director of the Association, it was stated: "To the recommendation of the Executive Director, that scholastics and young priests (and laymen) not only need supervision and direction of their teaching but also have a *right* to it, the Provincials replied that they looked upon classroom supervision as one of the most important duties of the Dean and Principal—far more important than many of the clerical duties that often consume so much of the time of Deans and Principals. For this reason, they strongly urge Principals and Deans to adopt a definite program of classroom supervision and to adhere to it with exacting care. Supervision of teaching applies particularly to high school where so many scholastics have their first experience in the classroom. The Provincials hope that the Principals will realize that this duty of supervision, burdensome though it is, is an essential element of cooperation in the training of scholastics. The Provincials request the Executive Committee to give further consideration to this problem of classroom supervision and to make specific recommendations to the Provincials on the best methods of carrying out a program of supervision in high schools and colleges."

A sub-committee of the Executive Committee of the JEA, composed of the late Father William J. McGucken, chairman, Father Hugh M. Duce, and Father Joseph J. Rooney drew up a set of norms for supervision which was approved by the Board of Governors at their annual meeting held in St. Louis, May 4-7, 1943.

The norms suggested and approved for high schools were these:

1. The Principal should visit all teachers, but especially and systematically the younger teachers.
2. The Principal should have a frank but encouraging conference with the teacher as soon as possible after the visit.
3. Records of visits should be kept.
4. The Principal should spend the major portion of a period, for younger teachers twice a month, for older teachers twice a semester.

5. Supervision can and should be exercised by occasionally demanding from the teachers a set of corrected and graded themes or exercises. A close check should be kept on grades, comparing them with the grades of other teachers and with the grades of the same boys received the previous year. Further, especially in the case of younger teachers, Principals should supervise the types and construction of tests and examinations used.
6. A check list or notes should be used at the time of the visit.
7. The Principal may ask his Assistant Principal or another experienced teacher to help him in the work of supervision.

In their response, made through the Executive Director of the JEA, the Fathers Provincial said: "The Board of Governors thanks the Sub-committee on Supervision and the Executive Committee for the very helpful report on supervision. It approves the report and requests the members of the Executive Committee to see to the adoption of this program in the high schools and colleges of the Provinces."

Again in April 1944 the Executive Committee recommended that studies on supervision be made and published as a stimulus for principals and deans. In May 1944 the Board of Governors approved the preparation of studies on supervision. Father Edward B. Rooney, Executive Director of the JEA, accordingly requested the writer to prepare such a study.

In one sense the time was not propitious for this study, for the manpower shortage has left our principals in more straightened circumstances than ever. The conditions they reported were not normal, and their own added activities left them with little time to assist the study with thoughtful replies to the inevitable questionnaires. The matter was deemed so urgent, however, that it was thought best to carry out the study under existing conditions.

Accordingly, on December 15, 1944, the writer sent a questionnaire on supervision to the thirty-eight principals of Jesuit high schools in the United States. This questionnaire had been prepared by Mr. John W. Kelly, S. J., in connection with the problem of his Master's thesis. It was based on the concept of supervision enunciated by Thomas H. Briggs in his book *Improving Instruction,* and covered many phases of supervision. A number of difficulties interfered with a good response to this questionnaire. With the help of some additional correspondence twenty-seven replies were eventually received.

In March 1945 the writer sent a second questionnaire to all principals. This was less formal than the first and was designed to elicit from the principals the free expression of ideas on supervision. The recipients were urged to make suggestions on the points which particularly interested them, or to offer ideas which they had found

effective in formulating a plan of supervision. The response to this second questionnaire was not very encouraging. Only twelve of the thirty-eight principals responded.

Additional material for this study was found in the excellent minutes of the Conference of High School Principals and Assistant Principals of the Missouri Province, held at St. Louis, July 19-25, 1944, under the direction of Father Wilfred M. Mallon.

If the present study of supervision is to be of value for Jesuit schools, it should not be a conventional textbook treatment of supervision in general. Rather, it should outline a program of supervision based on the provisions of the *Institute* and the *Ratio*. It should show how our present practices can be improved. It should accept what is best in modern secular practice of supervision, while adapting it to Jesuit educational principles and fitting it into the Jesuit system of education. Such is the purpose of the present study. And since in practice the two functions of the principal, administration and supervision, are so closely linked, a study of supervision must actually become a study of the office of principal in the Jesuit high school.

II. The Office of Principal in the Jesuit High School

The office of principal in the high schools of the Society has not changed essentially in the last four hundred years. The *praefectus studiorum inferiorum* of the *Ratio* is the principal of today's high school. But he is a much busier man. In the *Ratio* of 1832 the duties of the prefect of studies are manifold. He is the rector's instrument in directing all the activities in the school, "omni ope atque opera," toward the twofold end that the students advance in learning and in the practice of virtue.[1] He receives from the rector whatever power and authority is deemed necessary for the proper execution of his office.[2] And he is entitled to the obedience of teachers and prefects in scholastic affairs.[3]

The duties of the prefect of studies in the *Ratio*[4] are easily divided into the modern categories of administration and supervision. Under administration fall the preparation of the school calendar, class schedules, teachers' schedules, the order of time. The prefect draws up a list of necessary books, and sees to it that the booksellers have an adequate

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[1] *Ratio atque Institutio Studiorum Societatis Jesu* (1832), Reg. praef. stud. n. 1.

[2] *Ibid.*, Reg. Rect. n. 2. *Instructio pro Assistentia Americae de Ordinandis Universitatibus, Collegiis ac Scholis Altis et de Praeparandis Eorundem Magistris.* Romae, 1934. art. 12.

[3] *Epitome Instituti Societatis Jesu,* n. 400 #1.

[4] Cf. *Regulae Praefecti Studiorum Inferiorum.*

stock on hand in good time. He prepares the seating arrangement in the classrooms. The admission of students is his responsibility. He arranges for the conducting of examinations, appoints proctors and correctors. He determines the promotion or demotion of students. He arranges for awards and determines the recipients. He promotes and arranges the program for declamations, public specimens, and academies. He censors the students' public offerings, of whatever type. His is the responsibility for good order and discipline in the school, although he may have a prefect of discipline *(praefectus atrii)* to assist him.

The *Ratio* assigns to the prefect of studies the following duties in supervision: to help and guide the teachers; to maintain the Society's traditional practices in the classroom; to see to it that the teachers follow their rules, that they complete the work of the year, that they maintain the proper relations with their students; to satisfy himself that the students are doing their work and making progress. The principal means to be used in supervision are frequent classroom visitations, individual conferences, and teachers' meetings.

All of the duties of the prefect of studies mentioned above are specified in Father Roothan's *Ratio.* The Jesuit principal of today recognizes them all as his own. But he can add a much larger list of items neither mentioned nor envisaged in the 1832 *Ratio.*

He must keep much more elaborate and detailed records, must issue many transcripts and letters of recommendation. He spends a full week of the school year preparing annual reports to the Regents, the regional accrediting agency, the JEA, the National Catholic Educational Association. He answers questionnaires about supervision or library or textbooks. He tries to keep up with professional literature in periodicals and books. He reads papers at educational conventions, or at least attends the meetings. He serves as a member of the visiting committee in the Cooperative Study of Secondary Standards. He prepares his own school for the evaluation. He is the moderator of an active Fathers' or Mothers' Club that makes many demands upon his time. He averages an interview a day with salesmen, arguing the merits of textbooks or of floor wax. He supervises the workmen, or, abandoning the workmen, does the job himself. He chaperons the senior prom or the football dance, being the first to arrive and the last to depart. His office door is always open all day long, welcoming students, parents, graduates in uniform. And his office lights burn half the night as he tries to catch up with the day's work. In spite of this multifarious activity, the principal must also provide himself with periods of quiet reflection for long-range planning and policy making.

All these are the responsibility of the principal of today. They

must remain his responsibility if the school is to function smoothly. But since the duties of the principal have multiplied so enormously, he must assign more and more duties to clerks and must delegate more and more of his functions to other staff members, while keeping a guiding hand upon all the school's activities.

III. The Problem

The most general function of the high-school principal is to provide educational leadership for all the individuals within the school, and to direct all their activities which center in the school. This is a much more complex task than it was formerly, because the individuals have multiplied and the activities have been expanded and extended.

In order to keep the complicated machinery of the modern high school in smooth running order, the principal should have learned many things through training and experience. Many of our principals feel that they have not had adequate training through study and apprenticeship. Some schools suffer from this lack of experience.

Likewise, to provide educational leadership the principal must have time at his disposal. He needs time to step out of the rushing stream of daily events and to look quietly ahead; time to think out the broader problems of school administration, to formulate policies. He needs time to maintain personal contact with the teachers and to discuss their work; time to talk with the students and with their parents. Principals almost universally deplore the lack of time to do what they would like to do in the school. And in explaining the lack of time, they most commonly adduce as the cause the lack of adequate help.

These, then, in very general terms, are the two greatest obstacles to more effective supervision in our schools—lack of training, lack of time. Later both the causes and the remedies will be discussed at length.

Earlier in this study it was said that the study of supervision in Jesuit high schools becomes a study of the office of principal. The duties of the principal may be roughly divided into the duties of administration and the duties of supervision.

When the average schoolman speaks of supervision he thinks of the observation of teaching and the direct improvement of the teacher's classroom procedures. That is a true concept of supervision and the more common one. In its fuller and more important meaning, however, supervision is the sum of all the principal's activities which promote the improvement of instruction and the improvement of learning. Such a concept of supervision includes the improvement of instruction and of learning by such means as classroom visitations and individual conferences, faculty meetings, improving the materials of instruction, use

of educational tests and measurements, study of the causes of pupil failure, conferences with students and parents, and any other activities that tend directly to improve the methods and results of teaching and learning.

Administration, on the other hand, is concerned with setting up and directing the machinery of school management. Such activities as planning the school calendar, arranging class schedules and teachers' schedules, organizing guidance services and extra-curricular programs, supervising clerical procedures and building maintenance, preserving good public relations, are among the activities which fall into this category.

Eleven of the twelve principals who answered the second questionnaire considered that supervision in the broader sense set forth above was their most important function, while only one believed that his most important duty was supervision in the narrow sense of classroom observation and follow-up.

It is the view of the writer that the problem of supervision in Jesuit schools can be expressed in the following statement: The Jesuit principal today is both an administrator and a supervisor. As an administrator he must take care of the details of "running the school," all the way from preparing the teaching schedule to arranging the program for commencement. As a supervisor he must make continual efforts to effect the improvement of teaching and learning. The problem of the principal is so to organize administration (the part of his work which is more immediately pressing) that time will be available for supervision (the more important part of his work in the long-range view).

The twelve principals who answered the second questionnaire all endorsed the above statement of the problem. One added, "Yes; and the supervisory aspect suffers every time in conflict; partly because of lack of time, mostly because of lack of training."

IV. The Program

1. *The Preparation of the Principal*

It is a rare man who can step into the office of principal and begin at once to guide its manifold activities with no more experience or training than that ordinarily acquired by teaching in a Jesuit school. Serious mistakes almost inevitably result, or at least a cautious period of "watchful waiting," during which the school marks time to some extent. These slack periods, during which the new principal gradually gets a grip on the activities of the school, are very costly in terms of progress and accomplishment, especially if they are frequent.

The writer found little in official Jesuit sources concerning the

preparation and training of the principal, probably because in earlier times, when the office of prefect of studies was less complex, the experience acquired in teaching did suffice and little special training was needed. The *Instructio* of 1934 declares: "Prefects of Studies in high schools should be prepared for their office by suitable academic studies and by practical experience in administration."[5] In the digest of the responses of the Board of Governors to the 1942 Report of the Executive Director of the JEA the following statement is made: "The Provincials recognize the importance of having a long-range plan for the preparation of high-school principals, particularly through special studies and assignment as assistants to more experienced Principals now in service."

Training

The preparation of the principal should consist in a judicious combination of training and experience. The training must include a study of the theory of administration and supervision. Our principals generally do not seem convinced of the value of courses in administration and supervision, either because of lack of familiarity with their scope, or unfavorable impressions derived from casual reading, or, perhaps, from an unwarranted sense of superiority. Answering the second questionnaire, six considered these courses desirable before appointment as principal, while four did not, and two were doubtful. Four declared that the principal should take these courses during his incumbency, either by extension or summer work, while six opposed this plan and two were doubtful. Of the twenty-seven principals answering the first questionnaire, only seven had taken courses in supervision.

In the opinion of the writer, who had the benefit of a full course in the field of administration and methods, such a training is extremely valuable. It is perfectly true that in a course designed for school administrators in general, Jesuits will find less value in some phases than in others, and in some no value at all. It may also be true that some courses are spread very thin and could be concentrated into a much smaller compass. But the course as a whole has real value. It provides a complete background and a framework into which the Jesuit principal can fit traditional Jesuit practices and his own ideas. It gives him an insight into the many problems of administration and supervision and shows their interrelationship. It informs the principal on modern theories of education, so that he can take an intelligent part in discussions and conferences with secular educators. It gives him a start on a program of study and reading which will foster his own professional growth.

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[5] *Instructio pro Assistentia Americae,* art. 10.

And, lastly, it gives him a professional attitude toward his work, an attitude which many of us seem to lack.

The average principal will find it extremely difficult to take these courses after his appointment. Few will be able to attend late afternoon or evening classes regularly, or to manage the necessary reading and research. A certain amount of leisure is required if one is to make the most of these courses—leisure for reading and thinking.

The same difficulties will keep many from a summer-school course of the usual length. The first part of the summer is usually spent in catching up with details of the year just completed, registering new students, instituting a cleaning and renovating program. And then there is the school calendar to draw up, teachers' and class schedules to arrange, books to order, and the like.

Some principals like to "get away from the office" for the summer for various apostolic ministries. In the opinion of the writer, this is a case of misdirected zeal. Maintaining the best possible Jesuit secondary school is apostolic work, the particular kind of apostolic work to which the principal has been assigned, and it is a full-time job, twelve months a year. It would be more profitable for the school and for the Society if the principal were to audit a course in administration, supervision, or methods in the nearest Jesuit university, even though he were not able to take the entire course. Or the time could be well spent in systematic private study in his field, or in visiting the neighboring Jesuit principals in search of new ideas or better procedures.

Most Jesuit principals who have taken courses make every effort to keep abreast of the professional literature in their field, at least through regular reading of the best periodicals. Their experience has convinced them of the value of this practice. Those who have not taken such courses are less likely to make up for their deficiency through reading. It is the healthy people who take the vitamin capsules.

There is one other form of training for Jesuit principals which perhaps has more to recommend it than any other, and that is the annual, or occasional "Institute" for Jesuit principals, similar to that conducted so successfully in St. Louis during the summer of 1944 under Father Wilfred Mallon's direction, or the national institute held at West Baden in the summer of 1940 under the direction of Father Julian L. Maline. These can be relatively short; a week's work would accomplish much. Being confined to the Jesuit principals and assistant principals of a Province, a small group with similar positions and problems, a concentrated attack on a series of related topics would serve both to train the less-experienced men and to assist and stimulate all.

The institute should be well planned in advance, and should not try to cover too many topics the first year. The agenda should be announced well in advance, to give principals a chance to read and to think out their ideas on the subjects. The prefect general of the Province would ordinarily be the director of the institute. The writer feels that the best way to conduct the institute would be to have the chairman give a complete exposition and treatment of the topic in the style of an informal lecture, and then direct the round-table discussion which follows. Only one of the twelve respondents to the second questionnaire failed to approve Province institutes of principals, and most were enthusiastically in favor of them. Regional institutes attended by principals of several Provinces did not meet with the same hearty approval.

Experience

The other branch of the principal's training is experience. The experience can begin in the regency. In every school some scholastics show a willingness and an aptitude for assisting in the office. These men can become familiar with office routines and at the same time can demonstrate their capacity for handling details, an important phase of administrative ability and one not too commonly found in our men.

Four principals thought that prospective principals should be appointed as office assistants during regency, while seven opposed this plan. The writer would suggest that those who showed the aptitude and the inclination might assist unofficially. Certainly they should not be removed from teaching for this purpose, as the experience of the classroom is invaluable for the future principal.

Ten of the twelve cooperating principals favored the plan of having a prospective principal act as assistant under an experienced man for a year or so after tertianship. This seems to be an excellent plan. A man has a chance to see the workings of administration and supervision from the inside. He shares in all the phases of the principal's work, and yet is spared the necessity of making important decisions before he is prepared for that responsibility. The costly mistakes due to sheer inexperience are avoided.

In spite of the adage to the contrary, there is a substitute for experience, albeit an imperfect one. That substitute is the experience of other men. A new principal acquires that experience by attending principals' institutes and by acting as assistant principal. There is another way. If the incumbent principal will keep a full diary of the daily procedures of his office, complete with comments and suggestions for improving these procedures the following year, his successor will step into the office fortified with a complete record of what was done in

previous years and with what success. Thus the school can run for a year on momentum, with a light touch at the controls, while the new man gets his bearings and formulates his plans. Every principal should be obliged to keep such a diary, subject to the inspection of the provincial or the prefect general of studies.

Finally, all of our principals would profit from visits to our own schools and to other schools while they are in session. Service on the visiting committee of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards offers an excellent opportunity for this, as a definite point and direction is given to the visit by the organized plan of investigation. The writer finds these evaluations rich in suggestions and in stimulation.

2. *The Improvement of Administration*

It was asserted above that the principal must be released from many of the dulling and time-consuming details of administration to devote a larger share of his attention and energy to the more important work of supervision. In general, there are three ways of accomplishing this release: more adequate clerical personnel to care for office routine, reorganization of the office system, and delegation of certain duties to other members of the staff.

Clerical Personnel

It is a very short-sighted economy to have a $5,000-a-year principal doing the work of a $1,500-a-year clerk. Yet that is what most of our schools are doing, and the school loses much more than the salary of an extra clerk as a result. From the economic angle, if a principal by improved supervision and more personal attention to teachers and students should save from failure ten students a year, the salary of the extra clerk would be made up from tuition! It is not so easy to calculate the saving in wear and tear on the principal, an attrition that saps his energy, reduces his efficiency, and not infrequently brings him to the point of asking for a change just when he could be reaching the level of highest efficiency and greatest value to the school.

In the second questionnaire it was asked, "How much routine clerical work do you do personally which could be done as well by competent clerical help if you had enough help?" On a purely common-sense basis the answer to this question on the part of every principal should have been "None." Actually, of the twelve principals just one gave this answer. Three did very little of this type of work. Two did about half. One took ten hours and one five hours each week. Two worked at these details two hours a day, and one between one and two hours a day. One principal did all the routine work himself, as he had no clerical help at all! Most principals declared that they

spent about 30 hours a week on such routine matters at the beginning and at the end of a semester.

Of fourteen schools for which data were available, four had both a full-time registrar and a full-time secretary. Three of these were schools with enrolments over 650, one under 500. One large school had a full-time secretary and a registrar who devoted half his time to teaching. Six schools, of which four had enrolments over 700, boasted only one registrar-secretary. Three schools had no full-time clerical assistants. At the time of the first questionnaire seven of the twenty-seven principals were also devoting some time to teaching. This is an unfortunate state of affairs. Under such conditions real educational leadership is impossible.

Some norms of comparison with other schools in the matter of clerical assistance may be found in the National Survey of Secondary Schools.[6] Since the time of this survey, 1930-31, the average amount of clerical assistance in the schools reported has probably increased, as office procedures have developed considerably in the past dozen years. In the schools reported the median number of clerks was 1.2 in city schools with enrolments of fewer than 500; 1.4 in schools of 500 to 1,000; and 2.0 in schools of 1,000 to 1,500. In the same schools the work of clerks was supplemented by student help for a median number of hours per week of 9.6, 15.0, and 27.5, respectively. The assistance of teachers in the office amounted to median hours per week of 5.3, 7.3, and 6.8, respectively in the same schools.

It is clear that our Jesuit principals will not reach the full measure of their efficiency as administrators until they are emancipated from the slavery of office routine. The most obvious procedure would be simply to engage one or more additional full-time clerks or secretaries. None of our schools is financially unable to do this if it recognizes the need and the good sense of the move. Several schools have found it very practical to engage as part-time clerks college students who can type. These are particularly useful in schools which do not have enough work for two full-time office assistants, and yet need extra help during certain busy seasons. A certain school had an excellent secretary-registrar who was thoroughly familiar with the office procedures of the school and very efficient in handling them. The office was turning out a large amount of mimeographed material, with the result that the major part of this secretary's day was devoted to that work. The result

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[6] Fred Engelhardt, William H. Zeigel, Jr., and Roy O. Billett, *Administration and Supervision*. Bulletin 1932, No. 17, The National Survey of Secondary Education. pp. 92-101. Washington: United States Office of Education, Government Printing Office, 1933.

was that the principal had to take over more and more of the routine office duties. This is a wrong use of clerical help. A part-time college student could produce mimeographed work nearly as good as the secretary's. The secretary would be able to devote full time to more important duties, and the principal would be free for genuine administration and supervision. This is good economy.

Reorganization of Office Procedure

In many of our schools the burden of office work could be lightened by a reorganization of the office system, although principals answering the second questionnaire recognized little room for improvement.

The proper physical layout of the principal's office contributes much to efficiency. In many of our schools little can now be done to change this layout essentially. But in many others a bold and imaginative attack on the problem would produce excellent results.[7]

Ideally, the principal's office should be divided into three adjoining rooms. The center room is the public office. A counter separates the secretary or registrar from an open waiting room. Under the counter is a battery of modern safe-files, containing current records of students, current correspondence and reference material. The desk of clerk or secretary is near enough to the counter to save steps, far enough away to insure privacy.

Leading off from the main office on one side is the principal's private office, preferably fitted with a separate entrance. Here the principal has a filing case for those materials which he uses most frequently. Both of these offices should be equipped with the latest card-index devices, of which there are many that save time and improve efficiency.

On the other side of the large office there should be a combination storeroom and workroom, well lined with shelves for supplies, and equipped with a good duplicating machine, an addressing machine, and whatever other machines are useful for the work of this particular office. In one corner there should be a fire-proof vault or safe for records and papers. Whatever this equipment may cost, it is cheap in terms of the time saved to the principal for more important matters.

Even if the location and arrangement of rooms in the office cannot be altered, a careful study of existing conditions will often reveal the possibility of improving the layout. A rearrangement of files and cabinets, the introduction of a few pieces of useful equipment may do much to eliminate unnecessary steps and wasted time and effort.

One practical example of inefficient procedure may be cited by way

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[7] Cf. Harl R. Douglass, *Organization and Administration of Secondary Schools*, Chapter XV. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1932.

of illustration. Almost every office would show other opportunities for improvement. In some Jesuit schools the permanent records of students' marks are still kept on large sheets bound into heavy loose-leaf covers which are kept in a huge safe some distance away from the desks of secretary or principal. When it is necessary to refer to a student's record or to prepare a transcript, the heavy book must be hauled out of the safe and spread over the desk. A more modern procedure is to keep the records on visible-index cards, which, although much smaller, contain space for several times as much information about the student as the old forms provide. These cards are set in trays from which they can be instantly detached. The trays fit into fire-proof safe files low enough to form part of the counter or to fit under the counter. Records kept in visible-index files are so much more accessible and so convenient that much time and labor is saved, the principal is encouraged to keep more complete records, and all concerned make much more frequent use of records in the adjustment and guidance of individuals.

Delegation of Activities

Few of our principals divide among the members of the faculty as many of the minor duties of administration as they should. Most of the cooperating principals agreed that other members of the faculty should administer such details as publicity, social affairs, acquaintance nights, assembly programs, and the like, as well as all extra-curricular activities of the students. In practice, however, most principals assume the direction of at least some of these affairs, for one of two reasons. In many cases, the more competent faculty members are already overburdened, and the principal hesitates to entrust these details to the less competent and the undependable. The other reason is the instability of most of our faculties. Changes are so frequent that there can be little continuity. The principal finds it easier to take care of these things himself than to be continually breaking in new men. Greater stability of faculty is the only solution. The *Instructio* recommends: "In order to foster stable scholastic traditions, it is altogether necessary that the teachers remain stable. Wherefore, let Ours after their ordination be prepared to teach permanently in high school. Let them persuade themselves that they undertake a work of the highest importance in giving Catholic youth of tender age a solid and religious training."[8]

It is a recognized principle in all public schools that each teacher is responsible for computing marks, term and year averages and the like, and for preparing report cards and records of his own students. In

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[8] *Instructio pro Assistentia Americae,* art. 9.

many of our schools this work was assigned to teachers only in the present emergency.

3. *The Improvement of Supervision*

We have been concerned so far with preparing the way for the principal's most important function, the improvement of instruction and the improvement of learning. As was indicated above, this is a many-sided function. It embraces much more than classroom visitation, including every activity that directly contributes to improving instruction and learning. The more important aspects of supervision will now be considered separately.

Preparation of Teachers

While it is not properly the business of the principals to plan the preparation of teachers before they are assigned to the schools, principals answering the second questionnaire showed more interest in this topic than in any other and made more comments. Briefly, their suggestions are these:

Select Teachers. Not all men have the combination of qualities required in a good teacher. Some scholastics should not be assigned to teaching, but should assist in the office or be given other duties in the school during regency. The writer agrees that some scholastics should not teach. But it is impossible to predict which men will develop into good teachers. Certainly previous academic work is not a reliable index of success in teaching. It does seem only reasonable, however, in justice to the students, to remove a man from teaching at the end of his first year or sooner if he proves utterly incompetent and still offers little hope of improvement.

Direct Preparation. Many principals feel that the academic preparation of teachers during philosophy should be more direct. If school assignments could be determined several years in advance, the preparation of subject matter in regular courses could be incorporated into the individual's pattern of majors and minors, for credit toward the bachelor's degree. Not to mention the difficulty of such advance planning, the writer thinks that the real difficulty lies not in mastery of subject matter, but in methods of teaching.

Courses in the philosophy of education should be more practical, especially in the field of educational psychology. Let them have a good practical course in the psychology of learning and in general methods. Let them have not a historical, but a practical course in the principles of the *Ratio,* with emphasis on present-day applications. One principal suggested a course in "Boy Psychology" by a priest of the province who is expert in handling boys.

Finally, the writer suggests that as soon before regency as possible, when anticipation of teaching makes the men particularly receptive, a successful and interesting teacher be sent to the philosophate to give a short course on applied methods, and especially on classroom management. This last phase of teaching is most neglected of all, and is most immediately practical. Lack of proper training in the details of classroom management does more damage to the young teacher than anything else. And it strikes at the most critical time—the first weeks of teaching. In one Province a successful plan is followed by having the new teachers in the summer school just before their teaching take a course in specific methods applied to the subjects they have been assigned to teach. Thus, both subject matter and methods are studied together.

Practice Teaching. A marked interest in practice teaching was recorded by the cooperating principals. Ten of the twelve principals favored it in theory. Only five felt that they would be willing to try it in their schools. One obstacle is the practical difficulty of fitting practice teaching into the schedule of philosophy. Another is the retardation and possible injury of the class during the experiment. (This is no worse than what actually happens when the new teacher enters his own class. No, it is better; for the class teacher stands by to prevent serious mistakes.) There is an axiom among educators that any practice which is educationally sound is administratively feasible. Practice teaching under good supervision is worth trying in our schools. The writer does not favor the suggestion that practice teaching be done in classes arranged for making up failures. For one reason, this group needs the best teaching. For another, this group is not a typical class, and would present many special problems.

Observation. A procedure which would have many of the advantages of practice teaching with few of its disadvantages would be to have prospective teachers simply observe good teaching in the classroom for a week or two. When their own teaching is imminent, teachers would be alert to recognize and adopt the good techniques they observed in experienced teachers. The demonstrating teacher should take some time to review his activities and to discuss them with the observing novice.

Apprenticeship. After teachers have been assigned to the school the principals can pair off a new teacher with an experienced man who is teaching the same year. The experienced man will be responsible for the apprentice, helping him plan assignments and prepare the distribution of subject matter, pointing out the relative emphasis on various phases of the subject, suggesting better methods, posting him on the practices and policies of the school, and in every way helping him speedily to develop into a good teacher.

Assignment of Teachers to Classes

Supervision proper begins with the assignment of teachers to classes. Whereas in some provinces the Provincial assigns the grade level for Jesuit teachers, the principal still has a considerable range in which to exercise his judgment in placing teachers.

Experienced principals realize the importance of placing a man in a situation which will bring out the best that is in him. It is a rare teacher who will do equally well in a first-year or in a fourth-year class. The writer has in mind a young man who will rapidly become a superlatively good first-year teacher. The first mark of his success is his ability to reach the mentality of the first-year boy in a way that seems perfectly natural. There is never a dull moment in his classes, as all the students betray an active interest in the task at hand. The teacher works very hard in preparing every detail of his teaching, so that not a moment of class time is lost. He is adept in that important skill which is rapidly becoming a lost art in our schools—the art of drilling. He is intensely interested in the progress of his boys and studies their individuality. To him discipline is no problem at all. His personality dominates the class, and the boys are too busy and too interested to look for diversion. It would be a serious mistake to transfer this teacher to a fourth-year class. His teaching would be adequate, even good; but the school would suffer in losing an ideal first-year teacher.

Another man is an enthusiastic student of literature. Given the best section of fourth year, he will lead the class to an appreciation of literature and will give his students a much enriched course. The same man in first year would find that he did not reach the boys and that they did not appreciate his offerings.

Thus, the principal must know his school and his men. A weak teacher must be assigned to a docile class; an unruly class requires a strong hand. In making his assignments the principal must consider the teacher—his preparation in various subject fields, his personal characteristics, his performances as observed by the principal, the results his classes achieved in examinations, and the teacher's own preference. In replying to the first questionnaire twenty-two principals indicated that they considered the first of these norms, twenty used the second, eleven the third, and eight the fourth. The fifth norm was not included in the questionnaire, and only one principal added this norm to the list.

The principal must also have a clear picture of the composition of the classes, whether slow or fast, good or poor, handicapped by the shortcomings of a previous teacher, easy or difficult to manage. (In the latter case he will try to eliminate the difficulty by breaking up troublesome combinations.) It is then a matter of fitting the right peg into

the right hole. If this is skillfully done, the school is off to a good start.

The Class Teacher. There is room here for only a word on the class-teacher system. It is the ideal of the *Ratio* for each class to have a "class teacher," who teaches several subjects in the class and who is responsible in a special way for the welfare and progress of the students. When the class teacher is competent, the class profits much more than it would under several teachers. The *Epitome*[9] prescribes the class teacher "ubi commode id fieri possit." In the writer's opinion this reservation would apply to the case of the more-or-less incompetent teacher. To make such a man a class teacher and to put him in the same room three hours a day is to invite disaster. Better to spread the damage as thin as possible!

The Improvement of Teachers in Service

Very few teachers are "born teachers." Most have to be developed through training and experience. It is a constant hardship for the Jesuit principal that he must continually "break in" new scholastics as teachers and lose them just as they become efficient. Furthermore, it seems that rather few Jesuit teachers improve much in teaching beyond the point of excellence which they have attained at the end of their regency. The problem of improving teachers in service, then, covers both the initiation of new teachers and the continuous development of the established teachers. The two principal means to this end are classroom visitation and faculty meetings, both of which will be discussed separately below.

Professional Reading. Why is it so difficult to induce Jesuit teachers to read educational publications? Twenty-three of the twenty-seven principals answering the first questionnaire indicated that educational periodicals, varying in number from two to forty-three, were available to teachers. The average number of periodicals was 8.3. Likewise, eighteen principals reported that there was a professional library, ranging from 15 to 350 books, with an average of 136. Every school should have a well-balanced collection of professional books and periodicals. Yet it is a common experience where they are provided to find that few teachers make regular use of them. This is partly due to the pressure of work. But every teacher owes it to himself and to the school to make the time to develop himself professionally by reading. Some will not admit the value of these publications. That is because they are unable to sift the chaff from the wheat. Others, perhaps unconsciously, feel that they do not need improvement. The teacher, or principal, does not exist who cannot still improve, and reading is one means of improving.

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[9] *Epitome,* n. 398 #2.

The principal must, of course, first provide the periodicals and books for the faculty. Next, he must keep abreast of these publications himself. Then he can encourage reading by calling the attention of the faculty to particular articles by notices on the bulletin board, by remarks in private conversation and in faculty meetings. Beginning with selected references, he can gradually lead many teachers into the habit of professional reading.

Supervisory Bulletin. Another promising instrument in the improvement of teachers is the supervisory bulletin. Issued irregularly in mimeographed form to every teacher, it can contain a summary of some educational problem, like developing study habits; summarize the discussions of the last faculty meeting and put them in more permanent form; call attention to good articles or books; report on the proceedings of professional meetings; offer bibliographies; make announcements regarding school affairs; call attention to routine adminstrative matters.

Check Lists. It is a good supervisory practice to provide teachers with self-checking lists of desirable teacher traits.[10] The principal's own check list for classroom observation might serve this purpose. Every teacher would profit from a careful self-appraisal of his work following a definite form which is sufficiently comprehensive. Most teachers would be interested in performing such an appraisal. Only eight of the twenty-seven principals responding to the first questionnaire reported this practice.

Demonstration Teaching. Another group of supervisory practices revolves about the teacher's learning from the teaching of others. Demonstration teaching, to be effective, must be done in a regular class period under normal conditions. This is particularly valuable for the beginning teacher. The supervisor will have arranged beforehand with the teacher to take over the class, will have determined the lesson and prepared his demonstration. To mask his intent from the class, he enters and asks the teacher if he may take over to see how the class is progressing. He then conducts the class and later discusses the period privately with the teacher to make the points which he sought to demonstrate. When the principal intends to demonstrate teaching methods, it is always better to take over the class as soon as he enters the room. Thus the students will not feel that the supervisor is correcting the teacher, or "showing him how to teach." There is no reason why the principal should not ask an experienced teacher to demonstrate methods in the same way. Students very soon become accustomed to visitors where the practice of

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[10] Cf. Harl R. Douglass and Charles W. Boardman, *Supervision in Secondary Schools,* p. 161. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1934.

visiting is at all common, and there is little distraction. In the first questionnaire eleven principals reported doing demonstration teaching themselves. Only three had other teachers demonstrate methods.

Visiting Other Teachers. In the second questionnaire nine of the twelve principals approved the practice of having inexperienced teachers visit the classes of more experienced men. The principal objection seems to be the fear that the visiting teacher would thus lose prestige both with his own students and with others. If there is any validity in this objection, it would soon disappear once the practice became common. If the older teacher visited his classes, the new man would have the way prepared for a return visit. If there is another Jesuit school nearby, this danger can be avoided entirely by visiting classes in the other school. Visits to non-Jesuit schools would also be stimulating and profitable, as the writer discovered in the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards. The practice of visiting has much to recommend it. Good experience is thus transmitted rapidly, practically, and without damage to the class.

Transmitting Good Practices. The principal also can inform other teachers of the good techniques he has observed in teachers during his classroom visitations. So we share experience and multiply the effectiveness of the efforts of all.

Professional Courses. Formal courses also develop the teacher in service. Such courses are provided for scholastics in the summer schools, although a greater emphasis should, perhaps, be put upon methods of teaching and principles of education, less on subject-matter content.[11] It probably is a fact that there are few such courses offered at present which would really prove interesting and profitable for our teaching priests. The length of the usual summer school is prohibitive; the classes are usually composed of much younger and less-experienced persons; and much of the content is for them irrelevant and repetitious. What each Province needs is a special summer course designed exclusively for teaching priests. The content should be carefully selected and streamlined, the course should be short, and the very best Jesuit teachers or principals to be had should be appointed well in advance to give the course. Make the course attractive enough and profitable enough, and the writer believes that the priests will attend in large numbers each summer.

Educational Meetings. Our teachers should also be encouraged to take part in educational conventions. We should come both to learn and to make our influence felt. We have a chance to make contacts, to

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[11] Cf. *Instructio pro Assistentia Americae,* art. 31; *Epitome,* n. 399.

discover first hand what other educators are thinking and planning. We would be impressed by the sincerity, the genuinely professional attitude of most of the educators attending these conventions. During the two conventions of the Middle States Association held in New York City, the writer did not observe five teachers from the Jesuit schools of the metropolitan area. Was that the fault of the teachers or of the principals? In Chicago the attendance of Jesuits at the N. C. E. A. meeting was much better.

Developing Interest. Finally, it is the duty of the principal to develop an *esprit de corps* among the teachers of the school—a feeling of personal interest in all the activities of the school, a devotion to the welfare of the school in all its aspects. In every school a few of our teachers seem to be punching a time clock. They are seldom seen in the school before the first bell for classes or after the last bell. Perhaps that is in part the principal's fault, also. Surely the principal should be accessible to the teachers, particularly at certain times after school hours, when teachers can discuss problems quietly and privately. The principal should also create the impression that he welcomes suggestions about improving the school, both by his receptive attitude and by putting the better suggestions into effect. All but two of the principals answering this question declared that they accepted suggestions, all but one that they frequently followed them.

(To be continued)

Undergraduate Academic Writing

EDWARD SHIPSEY, S. J.

Editor's Note: Father Shipsey is chairman of the English Department at the University of Santa Clara and vice-president of the San Francisco Bay Area College English Association. At the meeting of the Association held in Stephens Union, University of California Campus, Berkeley, California, December 2, 1944, Father Shipsey acted on an invitation to present to the Association the Freshman Composition Program at Santa Clara. After prefatory remarks, Father Shipsey distributed copies of a statement of the program drawn up for University of Santa Clara faculty and students. He then read the statement. Both are printed here.

PREFATORY REMARKS

Before I distribute and read copies of my statement on the Santa Clara Freshman Composition Program, I wish to call attention to two facts, and to say what considerations were uppermost in arriving at our program.

The first fact: The normal pre-Pearl Harbor Santa Clara student body ran between five and six hundred students. We had not then, nor have we now, any intention to increase our numbers very greatly. Quite clearly, certain experiments may be attempted in a smaller institution which cannot be so readily undertaken in a larger.

The second fact: At Santa Clara all freshmen, whatever their major, are required to take two semesters of Freshman Composition. This holds for mechanical, civil, and electrical engineers, science majors and accountants, as well as for the so-called liberal arts, or humanities, or humanistic-social majors—philosophy, English, history, political science, and the rest.

We in the English Department consider that concentrating on the kind of writing college students would certainly have to do for four years in college was the indicated thing. This we called undergraduate academic writing. Upon it we placed exclusive emphasis in the first semester, with lesser but continuing emphasis on it in the second. We fixed on certain manuals, drilled freshmen in them, and informed the rest of the faculty what they were.

We asked the rest of the faculty, from freshman to senior, to enforce the use of these manuals in written work handed in to them in their subjects; or, if an individual instructor preferred another manual, to enforce the use of that manual. They had been asking us what was wrong with the "English" of their students. Each of them meant: "Why

do my students write as they do for *me?*" It was a fair question. This is our answer. We think it a fair answer.

An essential part of our purpose, then, and for final effectiveness the more important part, was to place instructors in all subjects in a position to require students in their courses to do careful written work for them. For—and this can hardly be a secret—faulty student writing in college, in one of its two phases, of its very nature, is an instructor problem and not a student problem at all. Until instructors demand the contrary, students will be slovenly. Until instructors have standards, what can they demand without blushing?

You will surely wonder: What cooperation has there been from other members of the faculty? The program has been in effect five years, Pearl Harbor intervening. Copies of the statement I am about to read are issued to both faculty and students. Along with some grinding of gears—and molars—cooperation has been encouraging and is increasing. All agree there has been improvement in the written work handed in to them. Naturally, this improvement has been most marked for those who, *on their own authority,* have accepted and enforced the general standards here given, and specified what minor modifications their subjects and their special needs or preferences require.

A STATEMENT ON FRESHMAN COMPOSITION AND UNDERGRADUATE ACADEMIC WRITING AT THE UNIVERSITY OF SANTA CLARA

Various persons have asked me to state how instruction and training in student writing for college assignments has been given at Santa Clara; how it has been integrated with instruction in the use of a college library and in academic form. This instruction has been given by freshman English teachers to their students in such a way as not to interfere with, but rather to enforce and apply the ordinary work of Freshman Composition. The ordinary work of Freshman Composition is here taken to mean a review of grammar and of elementary rhetoric. Grammar and the elements of expository rhetoric are applied to the kind of writing a college student must do during four years for his college instructors in all courses.

This kind of writing is technical, or scientific, or academic writing, as opposed to creative or literary writing. It is the kind of writing to be expected after graduation in lawyers' briefs, business, or engineering, or medical reports; and before graduation, in all technical classroom assignments, term papers, and theses. Instruction in this kind of writing (called *academic* in this paper for want of a better term) is integrated with instruction in the use of a college library and in academic form in

such a way as to enforce and apply written grammar and the principles of plain expository rhetoric to the college composition demands upon all students in all subjects. Instructors in all subjects are asked to co-operate by exacting carefully written technical work in their subjects.

All freshmen at Santa Clara are obliged to take two semesters (6 units) of Freshman Composition. In the first semester, the exclusive emphasis is on correct writing and correct form in student work written to be read by college instructors. As sure as death and taxes, this is the one sort of writing the college student must do for four years, if he remain in college. In the second freshman semester there is a shift to sorts of writing looking to a wider body of readers and to qualities called "literary." Expository writing is then supplemented by more emphasis on narration and description. Argumentation also comes in, as some freshmen begin the study of logic. But exercises in expository writing to be done as for college instructors also continue throughout the second semester of Freshman Composition.

Good college writing cannot be done without sound use of a college library and careful observance of academic form. The primary goal and purpose of Freshman Composition (English 1-2) is to make freshmen familiar with and show use of five manuals. The use of these manuals must be so begun in the freshman year that college students may know what manuals to consult and follow in all expository writing for college instructors for the four years of college.

Two of these manuals must be possessed by the student. Three are available in quantity in the library. The two manuals students purchase as their first-semester texts are a dictionary and a composition handbook. Freshmen are trained to use them as all-purpose handbooks and are told to keep them as handbooks for their four years of college reading and writing in all courses.

Part One: Five Manuals and the Reasons for Their Choice

I

The dictionary is *Webster's Collegiate Dictionary* (Fifth edition, Springfield, Mass.: G. & C. Merriam Co., 1943). This is the largest abridgment of *Webster's New International Dictionary of the English Language,* the dictionary almost universally followed in spelling, punctuation, and capitalization by American publishers. It is set down as the dictionary to be followed "for consistency" by the two most important style manuals in the country: the *United States Government Printing Office Style Manual;* and the University of Chicago, *A Manual of Style.*

Webster's Collegiate is by far the most widely used American col-

legiate dictionary. An increasing number of collegiate educational institutions, and of departments in universities, require students to possess a copy. They hold it absurd to let entering college students suppose they can go through college and make college studies without a collegiate dictionary. The Freshman Composition class is an appropriate place in which to oblige students to show possession of and begin to show use of a collegiate dictionary.

II

The composition handbook is Woolley, Scott, and Berdahl, *College Handbook of Composition* (New York: D. C. Heath and Company, 1937). This is one of several similar handbooks recommended by W. G. Campbell, *A Form Book for Thesis Writing* (New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1939); and by K. L. Turabian, *A Manual for Writers of Dissertations* (Chicago: University of Chicago Book Store, 1937). Their other recommendations are Foerster and Steadman's *Writing and Thinking,* Manly and Rickert's *The Writer's Index to Good Form and Good English,* and *The Century Handbook of Writing.* To them may be added Perrin's *An Index to English.* Placed in the library, they serve as supplementary texts or references for points not covered in Woolley, Scott, and Berdahl.

Campbell and Turabian are cited because they are established authorities on academic writing and because of their relation to the Chicago Manual. Campbell and Turabian are two of the better adapters of *A Manual of Style* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939). The Chicago Manual is the most generally accepted American manual for those who would publish an academic paper, study, or text. What it prescribes for academic printing has been taken over for academic writing. More and more, the Chicago Manual is becoming the source of standards and the ultimate general standard for academic writing in American colleges and universities. The effect of this is being felt right down to the freshman level.

Campbell and Turabian are among the best who adapt the Chicago Manual to the needs of the typewritten page, whether the typewritten page is to go to the professor or to the printer. In undergraduate academic writing the same principles hold when the examination or assignment is done in longhand.

The dictionary and the composition handbook supply the means of achieving correctness, precision, and order in any sort of writing, but especially in academic writing. The three subsequently listed manuals have a more specific relation to academic writing. They supply the means of gaining an introductory knowledge of general bibliography, general

methodology, and of academic form. Written evidence of sound methodology and correct bibliographical practice must be cast in academic form. Special bibliography, special methodology, and special minute details of academic form must be added by each department and each subject according to its own special needs, as can be readily seen by examining the technical journals within any particular field, subject, or profession.

III

E. V. Aldrich, *Using Books and Libraries* (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1941), is an introduction to a college library and to college bibliography for freshmen. It is used, and supplemented by other manuals, as described later in this paper.

IV

W. G. Campbell, *A Form Book for Thesis Writing* (New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1939), gives the standard for academic form which all freshmen must begin to follow as freshmen and show more and more mastery of as they come toward their senior year. It is simple enough to be comprehended by freshmen and advanced enough to carry the student to the senior year and beyond. If occasional references be made from it to the University of Chicago *A Manual of Style,* it will carry to the work for the Master's degree, even to the doctoral dissertation. For the present purpose, it is preferred to Turabian's *A Manual for Writers of Dissertations.* Turabian looks more to the needs of the professional typist of doctoral dissertations; Campbell more to the student as a student, and as a typist and longhand writer of his own work that must be submitted to his professors.

V

Edward Shipsey, *Academic Manual,* University of Santa Clara, California, 1942 (mimeographed), is the last of the five manuals. It is an effort to apply the foregoing manuals to the local needs of the University of Santa Clara. It was to have been re-edited in 1943 in a form both more permanent and more usable, but the consequences of Pearl Harbor intervened. The revision is now being undertaken. It will be re-cast, compressed, and indexed in the new edition. It attempts to present two things: academic form and Catholic academic orientation. Formerly all freshmen were obliged to possess a copy. That will be done again when the new edition appears.

This paper so far has named and described the manuals used, and told why they were chosen. The following pages explain how instruction based on them is given.

Part Two: Mode of Instruction

Instruction in Use of the Library

The introduction to college library use is made possible by close collaboration between Freshman Composition instructors and the library staff. The library assignment is made by Freshman Composition instructors and carried out in the library under the direction of the library staff. Four to five weeks are allowed.

Copies of Aldrich, *Using Books and Libraries* (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1941), are available in sufficient numbers. Library questions are set and are to be answered in writing in the library after a careful examination of Aldrich and the library. For supplementary answers to many of the questions, the student is referred by library staff members to specific parts of the following manuals:

Brown, Zaidee Mabel, *The Library Key.* New York: H. W. Wilson, 1941. Fourth edition revised.

Hutchins, Margaret, and others, *Guide to the Use of Libraries.* New York: H. W. Wilson, 1939. Fifth edition revised.

Ingles, McCague, *Teaching the Use of Books and Libraries.* New York: H. W. Wilson, 1940. Third edition revised.

O'Rourke, William T., *Library Handbook for Catholic Students.* Milwaukee, Wisconsin: The Bruce Publishing Co., 1935.

Scripture, Elizabeth, and Greer, Margaret R., *Find It Yourself.* New York: H. W. Wilson Company, 1936.

Toser, Marie, *A Library Manual.* New York: H. W. Wilson, 1940. Revised edition.

These manuals have been recommended by the library staff as among those commonly used as textbooks and reference books in Introduction to Library Science courses and in courses on the use of a library given to candidates in teacher-training courses.

Lower division instructors will find Walraven and Hall-Quest's *Library Guidance for Teachers* (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1941) useful in the direction of their students in using the library. Library staff members are on the inside looking out. The previously listed manuals contain what librarians have to say to students. Walraven and Hall-Quest present the same matter as said to instructors. Instructors must know libraries, their management, and administration, at least to the extent that the assignments they make may be handled intelligently by the students and expeditiously by the library staff. Walraven and Hall-Quest write directly for teachers at upper secondary levels. What they say holds quite true of the pedagogical approach to scholarly beginning college work. Any program for an integration of college study and writing with library use requires, as an essential element, the informed cooperation of students, instructors, and library personnel. Branscomb's *Teaching with*

Books, A Study of College Libraries (Chicago: American Library Association, 1940) will repay reading. It is a statistical and interpretative examination of library personnel-instructor-student cooperation.

Instruction in Academic Form

The introduction to library use is followed by an assignment in Campbell, *A Form Book for Thesis Writing.* Copies of Campbell are in the library in sufficient quantity. The purpose of the assignment is to oblige the student to become familiar with a consistent and applicable academic form, to follow it in his written work for all instructors, and to accustom him to refer to it when new academic writing questions arise. The student is warned that some subjects and some instructors may call for minor changes because of subject matter or because of instructor's preference. Four to five weeks are also allowed for this assignment, to be done (as the assignment in Aldrich) in the library. It is later submitted to Freshman Composition instructors, who then give a written quiz on the subject.

The characteristic regular written assignments in the first semester of Freshman Composition must show use of the library, be written as for a college instructor on an academic subject, and follow academic form. They are laboratory-type assignments, in which the theory and technical terms of Aldrich and Campbell must be put in practice, with the aid of *Webster's Collegiate Dictionary,* Woolley, Scott, and Berdahl's *College Handbook of Composition,* and the supplementary directions supplied by the other manuals mentioned in this statement.

The ordinary work of first semester Freshman Composition (drill in grammar and expository rhetoric) goes on as usual, including the Subject A or "remedial English" course. The only difference is that from the start of the semester all composition assignments must be academic composition assignments, show use of the library, and follow academic form. A variety of bibliographies drawn up by library staff members, Freshman Composition instructors, and other faculty members forms the basis of the library-composition assignment.

More emphasis on writing as a fine rather than a practical art is placed on the work of the second semester of Freshman Composition. Yet practice in academic writing and use of the library is also continued.

Instruction in "Remedial English"

Those who have read this statement thus far may have wondered what is done about testing the incoming freshman's bare ability to write anything at all, let alone his ability to write academically; and what is done about teaching him the mere elements of college-level written literacy. It is notorious that a shocking percentage of students who have had

twelve years of schooling enter American colleges and universities not able to manage grammar, spelling, punctuation, and capitalization on the written page at a college level. For each college generation as it comes in, there is no point in asking how they got that way. They are here. The rest is water under the bridge. The question is: What are we going to do with them?

In testing the ability of freshmen to do satisfactory writing for their college instructors, the following has been the practice in recent years. They are given the *American Council on Education English Test* (Test A: Mechanics of Expression), which gauges their working knowledge of grammar, spelling, punctuation, and capitalization. It does not gauge their ability to compose. Two composition tests are given: One, an out-of-class assignment, involving use of the library; the other, an in-class assignment, done under the conditions of a written examination.

On the evidence of these examinations certain students are placed on a Subject A or "remedial English" list. Their names are posted so that all instructors in all departments may know who they are. A "remedial English" class (known locally as the Subject A class) is organized for them. It meets at another hour than the Freshman Composition class so that both may be attended. The courses run concurrently. A special fee is charged for the Subject A course and no college credit is given for it. Students remain in it until they pass it—or pass out.

Our position in the English Department is that those freshmen not on the Subject A list can do written work for college instructors at a level satisfactory for beginning freshmen. This supposes that students take care, be given time to take care, and be obliged to take care with what they write. If they fail to do so for any individual instructor, our presumption is that they are not convinced he means that they do it. If our presumption proves wrong in any particular case, we wish to know it, and we will re-examine that student.

Student Writing Is Formal Writing

Students, in dressing their minds, must take the attitude of the men in the armed forces in dressing their bodies for formal occasions; and instructors in all subjects must take the attitude of officers. The technique of the men may not be perfect. Their technique may fall short of the practice among professional barbers and bootblacks. But, whatever faults of technique the men may have in shaving, cleaning their clothes and weapons, and shining their shoes, they are nevertheless required to shave and shine, if they are to stand inspection. They may not follow the line of least resistance. The occasion is formal.

Any writing turned in to a college instructor is formal writing. The

occasion is formal. The student may not follow the line of least resistance in grammar, spelling, punctuation, vocabulary, and academic form. If the instructor returns the paper unread, the student should realize he is being dealt with lightly. In the armed forces he would be handled less gently for daring to present his body in a slovenly and unkempt condition for formal inspection.

For his part, the instructor in each subject must face the fact that upon him lies the burden of seeing that his students dress their minds carefully on the written page when they write for him. He must convey this convincingly to each single student in his subject. Words will not do it in all cases. In those cases, other means must be found to pursuade the slipshod student that the instructor means what he says. Otherwise, the slipshod student acts on the conviction: "He does not care about my English." That is not the way the Army gets men to shave and shine. The instructor need not "teach English" any more than Army officers teach shaving and shining.

Students must not continue in college—*and must not be permitted to continue in college*—the too common lower school notion that they must be precise in their use of number and technical symbols, but may flout precision in word symbols. The resulting paper is not a good contract, a good history paper, a good physics paper. It is bad law, bad history, or bad physics. "Thought and speech," Newman correctly says, "are inseparable from each other. Matter and expression are parts of one: style is a thinking out into language." There is no other sound standard.

Conclusion

Formal training in academic writing in freshman year and four-year-college use of the manuals or tools for study and writing given in this statement, together with four years of insistence on their use by instructors in all subjects, have already resulted in improved academic writing by all students in all subjects. It is not precisely that their "English has improved." It is, rather, that their method of study has improved; their written command of their subject has increased; and their instructors, by enforcing the use of these tools, have been placed in a position to act on their full responsibility as instructors: that is, to require carefully done and academically correct written work from their own students in their own subjects, even though their own students are no longer under the direct or indirect jurisdiction of the English Department.

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High-School Periodicals

WILFRED M. MALLON, S. J.

Experience with high-school libraries and conferences with both librarians and principals in recent years have revealed to the writer a very wide diversity of practice with reference to periodical subscriptions, budgets, and policies on binding. In the interests of assistance to principals and librarians this limited study of practice in 1944-1945 has been made. The findings may serve as a guide to policies.

I. HIGH SCHOOLS PARTICIPATING

The blank prepared for checking to indicate periodicals subscribed for and bound was sent to three hundred high schools, public and private, located in fairly large cities throughout the country. Since the investigation was concerned with boys' high schools particularly, the requests to private institutions were made only to boys' schools. Only three of the public schools reporting are for boys exclusively, whereas only two of the private schools reporting are coeducational; all the rest are boys' schools.

TABLE 1. SIZES AND CONTROL OF THE SCHOOLS

	Private Schools		Public	
Enrollments	Catholic	Nondenom.	Schools	Total
3,000-6,000	1	0	12	13
2,500-2,999	0	0	9	9
2,000-2,499	1	0	23	24
1,500-1,999	3	0	33	36
1,000-1,499	13	0	31	44
750-999	17	1	5	23
500-749	17	3	2	22
250-499	9	9	1	19
96-249	5	3	0	8
	66	16	116	198
Not given	2	1	19	22
Total Reports	68	17	135	220
Average Size	849	409	1,951	1,459
Median Size	784	360	1,750	1,287

Returns, therefore, came from approximately 71 per cent of those approached. Of the Catholic private schools, twenty-seven are under the

control of the Jesuits. All are boys' schools. The remaining forty-one are diocesan and order schools. Only two are coeducational. The seventeen private schools without denominational control are nationally known boys' schools, largely in the New England area. The public schools are definitely urban in character. One school is in a city of 10,000. The next smallest city is 30,000. Most of the schools are in cities of more than 500,000.

TABLE 2. STATES IN WHICH SCHOOLS ARE LOCATED

State	Schools	State	Schools
Arizona	1	Montana	2
California	10	Nebraska	4
Colorado	4	New Hampshire	2
Connecticut	1	New Jersey	2
District of Columbia	4	New Mexico	2
Illinois	25	New York	24
Indiana	9	North Dakota	1
Iowa	7	Ohio	26
Kansas	4	Pennsylvania	8
Kentucky	3	Rhode Island	1
Louisiana	2	Texas	3
Maine	1	Virginia	2
Maryland	4	West Virginia	1
Massachusetts	8	Washington	5
Michigan	14	Wisconsin	13
Minnesota	8		
Missouri	19	TOTAL	220

Only seventeen states are not represented. They are largely the southern states, the smaller mountain states. Since the study was concerned largely with urban-school conditions, the states with the largest cities are most widely represented. The situation represented, with the exception of the small group of nondenominational private schools, is clearly that of the large urban school of its type, public or Catholic. The private schools not in large cities are definitely schools which serve urban groups.

II. BUDGET FOR PERIODICAL SUBSCRIPTIONS

Obviously, the budget of a particular school will depend on several factors: the funds available to the administration for operation of the school; the type of program; the type of student; the availability of other library facilities. Since the effort of this study is to guide schools, librarians were not asked the amounts of their budgets. Rather, they were asked to specify the reasonable amount a high school should spend per year for periodicals if its enrollment is 500, 800, 1,000, 1,500, or 2,000 students. Many schools reported no recommendations. Several more

recommended 10 per cent to 15 per cent of the library book budget or 10 cents to 15 cents per student. Either of these two policies appears to be the determining element for many high schools. The figures reported by types of school and size of enrollment appear below in Tables 3-7.

Eleven schools recommended a budget of less than $50 for schools of 500. An inquiry into schools making that recommendation reveals that they are all distinctly above the 500 class themselves. The average size is 1,450; the median school enrolls 1,510. Though there are twenty-seven schools with less than 500 students, no one of these schools recommends a budget of less than $50 for schools of 500. Seventeen of the twenty-seven made recommendations. Five of them recommended budgets between $50 and $75; the remaining twelve recommended $75 or above. Further, there were twenty-eight schools with 650 students or less which made recommendations for the budget of a school of 500 students. Of this group, thirteen recommended a budget of $100 or more, and only eight recommended a budget of less than $75.

TABLE 3. BUDGET RECOMMENDATIONS FOR SCHOOLS OF 500

	Private Schools		Public	
Budgets	Catholic	Nondenom.	Schools	Total
25-49	4	0	7	11
50-74	13	3	17	33
75-99	10	3	11	24
100-124	8	1	6	15
125-149	0	1	0	1
150-174	1	0	2	3
175-199	0	2	0	2
200-224	1	1	0	2
225-249	0	0	0	0
250-274	0	0	0	0
275-299	0	0	0	0
300-349	1	0	0	1
350-400	1	0	0	1
	—	—	—	—
Average	86	99	66	79
Median	75	75	60	75

It appears, therefore, that schools actually in this range do not feel that adequate periodical provisions can be made with less than $50. Rather, it would appear that they think a budget of approximately $75 is necessary, and that one of approximately $100 is desirable.

Again it appears that the larger schools feel it is possible to make satisfactory provisions for schools of 800 students with smaller budgets than do the schools which actually have student bodies of that size. Though there are sixty-six schools with 900 or less students, only four

TABLE 4. BUDGET RECOMMENDATIONS FOR SCHOOLS OF 800

Budgets	Private Schools Catholic	Private Schools Nondenom.	Public Schools	Total
25-49	2	0	3	5
50-74	5	1	10	16
75-99	12	2	10	24
100-124	10	1	10	21
125-149	1	0	4	5
150-174	5	1	3	9
175-199	0	0	0	0
200-224	2	0	1	3
225-249	0	0	0	0
250-274	0	1	0	1
275-300	1	0	1	2
Average	103	109	95	100
Median	95	90	90	95

of these recommend a budget of less than $75, and only fourteen recommend a budget of less than $100. The average size of the schools recommending less than $75 is 1,628; the median school recommending $75 or less for a school of 800 enrolls 1,450 students. It appears, therefore, that although some of the larger high schools feel that a budget of $75 or less is adequate for a school of 800 students, schools of that size, as well as the average high-school administrator, feels that a budget of from $75 to $125 is the desirable amount. The most common figures, accounting for approximately 50 per cent of the total number of recommendations, placed the figure between $80 and $110.

TABLE 5. BUDGET RECOMMENDATIONS FOR SCHOOLS OF 1,000

Budgets	Private Schools Catholic	Private Schools Nondenom.	Public Schools	Total
25-49	0	0	1	1
50-74	2	0	5	7
75-99	6	1	8	15
100-124	8	2	12	22
125-149	6	1	11	18
150-174	2	0	9	11
175-199	2	0	0	2
200-224	3	1	2	6
225-249	0	0	0	0
250-274	0	0	0	0
275-300	1	1	0	2
Average	124	150	111	120
Median	120	112	110	115

In rare instances do high-school administrators feel that adequate periodical provision can be made for a school of 1,000 with a budget of less than $75. Approximately 50 per cent place the budget in the $100 to $130 range; 60 per cent place it in the $100 to $160 range; and 75 per cent place it at $100 or above.

TABLE 6. BUDGET RECOMMENDATIONS FOR SCHOOLS OF 1,500

	Private Schools		Public	
Budgets	Catholic	Nondenom.	Schools	Total
25-49	0	0	0	0
50-74	1	0	2	3
75-99	3	1	5	9
100-124	3	1	12	16
125-149	6	1	4	11
150-174	10	1	16	27
175-199	2	0	6	8
200-224	3	0	4	7
225-249	2	0	5	7
250-274	1	1	1	3
275-350	1	1	1	3
Average	143	177	144	146
Median	150	137	150	150

For schools of 1,500 students approximately 88 per cent of the administrators recommend budgets of $100 or above, and approximately 70 per cent recommend that the budget be $125 or above. The median falls in the $150-$174 range, though 57 per cent of the schools feel that the budget for this size school should be $150 or more.

TABLE 7. BUDGET RECOMMENDATIONS FOR SCHOOLS OF 2,000

	Private Schools		Public	
Budgets	Catholic	Nondenom.	Schools	Total
25-49	0	0	0	0
50-74	0	0	1	1
75-99	2	0	5	7
100-124	2	0	1	3
125-149	1	1	4	6
150-174	6	2	15	23
175-199	6	0	8	14
200-224	5	1	10	16
225-249	1	0	1	2
250-274	1	0	4	5
275-299	0	0	3	3
300-349	5	1	2	8
350-500	0	1	1	2
Average	177	229	165	172
Median	175	175	150	167

Of the one hundred schools which made recommendations for schools of 2,000 students, 92 per cent place the budget at or above $100; 79 per cent place it at or above $125; 73 per cent place it at or above $150; and exactly half of the schools place it at $175 or above.

TABLE 8. SUMMARY OF BUDGET RECOMMENDATIONS

	Percentage of Recommendations for Each Type				
Budgets	500	800	1,000	1,500	2,000
25-74	47	25	10	3	1
75-124	42	52	44	26	20
125-174	6	16	34	44	29
175-450	4	7	12	30	50
Average	79	100	120	146	172
Median	75	95	115	150	167

A very notable conclusion from the study of recommended budgets must be that there is little uniformity among high-school administrators concerning the utility of periodicals in the high school. Budget recommendations range from $35 per year for high schools of 2,000 students to $400 per year for high schools of 500 students. Public high schools included in the study, though they are coeducational, generally recommend lower budgets than do the boys' private high schools.

Though there is a very wide scatter of recommended budget figures for each size high school, there is, however, a sufficient concentration to indicate that the majority of schools included in the study would recommend budgets for each type of school somewhat as follows: 500—$80-$100; 800—$100-$110; 1,000—$120-$140; 1,500—$150-$175; 2,000—$175-$225. These figures fit very closely the widely accepted 10 cents to 15 cents per student policy. Schools of 500 should probably spend 15 cents per student; schools of 800 and 1,000, 12 cents per student; and schools of 1,500 and 2,000, 10 cents per student.

III. NUMBERS OF PERIODICALS TAKEN

Each school checked a high-school periodical list to indicate periodicals taken and added the titles of others taken but not on the list. In computing numbers the daily papers and professional library journals were excluded. A total of one hundred ninety-eight high schools provided this information. Of this number, eighty-two were private and one hundred sixteen were public schools. Table 9 reports the figures according to size of schools.

Table 9 further indicates lack of uniformity of policies among high schools with reference to provision of periodicals. There is very little relationship between size of school and number of subscriptions. This is

TABLE 9. NUMBERS OF PERIODICALS TAKEN ACCORDING TO SCHOOL SIZES

School Size-Type	Number of Periodicals Taken								
	80-89	70-79	60-69	50-59	40-49	30-39	20-29	10-19	0-9
3,000 plus									
Private	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
Public	0	0	1	1	1	3	5	1	0
2,500-2,900									
Private	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Public	1	0	1	1	2	1	2	1	0
2,000-2,499									
Private	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Public	1	0	3	4	7	3	5	0	0
1,500-1,999									
Private	0	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	0
Public	1	2	4	4	5	8	7	2	0
1,000-1,499									
Private	0	0	0	0	3	4	4	0	0
Public	0	0	0	2	11	12	4	1	1
750-999									
Private	0	1	1	3	3	5	4	1	0
Public	0	0	1	1	0	0	3	0	0
500-749									
Private	0	1	1	1	3	8	6	0	0
Public	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
250-499									
Private	0	0	0	0	2	3	10	2	1
Public	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
96-249									
Private	0	0	0	0	0	2	4	2	0
Public	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Totals									
Private	0	2	4	4	14	24	28	5	1
Public	3	2	11	13	26	28	26	6	1

particularly notable among public high schools. There are twenty-one public high schools in the study with 2,500 or more students. The median number of periodicals taken by these largest schools is 34. At the other end of the scale, there are twenty-one public high schools in the study with 1,200 or less students, and the median number of periodicals taken by these schools is also 34. The range for the large schools is 16 to 87, and for the twenty-one small schools it is 14 to 67.

Table 10 shows the percentage of public and private schools within each enrollment interval taking numbers of periodicals falling within four different intervals. Thus, 5 per cent of the public schools with 2,500 or more students took between 70 and 89 periodicals and 19 per cent

took between 50 and 69, compared with percentages of 7 and 27 for schools of 1,500 to 2,499 students. In the case of private schools, no school in the 1,000 to 1,499 intervals takes more than 49 periodicals, whereas twenty-one per cent of the schools in the 500-999 interval take 50 or more periodicals.

TABLE 10. PERCENTAGE OF SCHOOLS OF DIFFERENT SIZES TAKING NUMBERS OF PERIODICALS IN FOUR INTERVALS

School	Percentage of Schools in Each Subscription Interval			
Size-Type	70-89	50-69	30-49	6-29
2,500 plus				
Private	0	0	100	0
Public	5	19	34	42
1,500-2,499				
Private	0	50	50	0
Public	7	27	41	25
1,000-1,499				
Private	0	0	64	36
Public	0	6	74	20
500-999				
Private	5	16	50	29
Public	0	43	0	57
96-499				
Private	0	0	27	73
Public	0	0	100	0

Table 11 reports the numbers of periodicals per student in each different type of high school, as well as the median and average numbers of periodicals taken by different types of schools.

TABLE 11. NUMBERS OF PERIODICALS PER STUDENT AND SCHOOL TYPE

	Private Schools		Public	All
Comparison Factors	Catholic	Nondenom.	Schools	Schools
Average size of school	848	409	1951	1459
Periodicals taken				
Average number	36	20	40	38
Median number	35	26	37	36
Number of students per periodical	23	14	49	38

The private high schools, according to Table 11, make considerably more ample provision for periodicals than do the public schools. On the other hand, given an adequate set of periodicals, probably 30 to 40 in number, they will take care of 2,000 students as well as of 500 students, provided duplicates are available. The fact, however, that the public schools in this study are coeducational, whereas the private schools are

boys' schools, would lead one to expect the public schools to subscribe for notably larger numbers of periodicals than the private schools. Only one factor is clear, namely, that this large sample of urban schools, quite similar in clientele and programs, does not reveal any policy with reference to provision of periodicals, and that size of schools has practically no influence on numbers of periodicals provided.

IV. Periodicals Taken by High Schools

Excluding from the study all newspapers, professional library or teachers' journals, and the common free circulation periodicals, the two hundred twenty high schools were taking in 1944-1945 a total of 516 different periodicals, accounting for 8,192 subscriptions. Table 12 gives the number and percentage of periodicals taken by the schools arranged in intervals from one to two hundred twenty. Thus, only 7 periodicals,

Table 12. Numbers and Percentages of Periodicals Taken by Schools

Number of Periodicals	Percentage of Total	Number of Schools Taking
7	1.3	150-219
6	1.1	125-149
8	1.5	100-124
6	1.1	75-99
22	4.2	50-74
36	7.0	25-49
34	6.6	15-24
23	4.4	10-14
48	9.3	5-9
174	33.7	2-4
152	29.8	1

or 1.3 per cent of the 516, were taken by one hundred fifty or more of the two hundred twenty schools. Only 5 per cent of the 516 periodicals were taken by seventy-five or more of the two hundred twenty schools. Only 19 periodicals were taken in common by as many as half of the schools. At the other extreme, 63.5 per cent of the periodicals were taken by less than five schools. It would appear, again, that there is little agreement among high schools relative to what periodicals should be used except for the very few which are common to the large numbers of schools. Table 13 reports the numbers of private and public schools taking each periodical of the 190 which are common to five or more schools. The distinctly Catholic journals, taken by the sixty-eight private schools which are Catholic, are marked with an asterisk.

TABLE 13. PERIODICALS TAKEN BY FIVE OR MORE OF THE 135 PUBLIC AND 85 PRIVATE SCHOOLS IN ORDER OF FREQUENCY

Periodicals	Public (135)	Private (85)	Total (220)
National Geographic	133	83	216
Reader's Digest	125	79	204
Popular Mechanics	123	77	200
Popular Science	128	71	199
Newsweek	125	73	198
Science News Letter	100	58	158
Harper's	120	37	157
Scientific American	96	53	149
Current Biography	108	40	148
Nature Magazine	95	44	139
Time Magazine	98	40	138
Current History	101	33	134
Scholastic	96	31	127
Vital Speeches	86	38	124
Hygeia	107	14	121
Atlantic Monthly	93	27	120
Boys' Life	64	53	117
Congressional Digest	81	34	115
Saturday Evening Post	58	55	113
Saturday Review of Literature	69	39	108
Flying	73	31	104
Life Magazine	76	23	99
Athletic Journal	60	34	94
American Magazine	70	23	93
Aviation	64	24	88
Survey Graphic	73	10	83
Travel	65	16	81
Field and Stream	49	25	74
Radio News	58	16	74
Better Homes and Gardens	62	5	67
Science Digest	50	16	66
*America	0	65	65
Theatre Arts Magazine	53	11	64
United States News	42	20	62
*Sign	0	61	61
Open Road for Boys	32	27	59
Asia	53	6	59
*Catholic Digest	0	59	59
Good Housekeeping	58	0	58
School Science and Mathematics	26	31	57
Fortune	33	24	57

Periodicals	Public (135)	Private (85)	Total (220)
New Republic	45	11	56
Etude	45	10	55
American Home	53	1	54
Chemistry Leaflet	30	23	53
Industrial Arts and Vocational Education	37	15	52
Natural History	38	14	52
Bulletin of the Pan-American Union	45	6	51
Business Week	43	8	51
*Queen's Work	0	49	49
Colliers	25	23	48
Musical America	40	8	48
Popular Photography	37	11	48
*Messenger of the Sacred Heart	0	47	47
Inter-American Bulletin	39	7	46
*Catholic World	0	45	45
Building America	40	5	45
Mademoiselle	43	1	44
School Arts	33	11	44
The Nation	32	9	41
Design	35	4	39
Education for Victory	31	8	39
Air News	26	12	38
*Commonweal	0	38	38
American Artist	29	8	37
*Jesuit Missions	0	37	37
Aero Digest	26	9	35
Consumer's Research Bulletin	29	4	33
Vocational Trends	25	8	33
Foreign Policy Reports	28	4	32
American Photography	22	9	31
Vogue	30	1	31
*Catholic Action	0	30	30
Survey	25	5	30
American Girl	29	0	29
Skyways	20	9	29
*Catholic Mind	0	28	28
*Catholic Missions	0	28	28
Model Airplane News	17	11	28
Student Life	21	7	28
Outdoor Life	19	8	27
School Musician	22	4	26
Air Trails	20	5	25
*Extension Magazine	0	25	25
Q. S. T.	20	5	25

Periodicals	Public (135)	Private (85)	Total (220)
Foreign Policy Bulletin	21	3	24
Air Force	12	11	23
American Cookery	23	0	23
American Observer	17	6	23
Flying and Popular Aviation	16	7	23
*Field Afar	0	23	23
Hobbies	16	7	23
*Our Colored Missions	0	23	23
New York Times Magazine	15	8	23
Camera	13	9	22
Foreign Affairs	16	6	22
House Beautiful	22	0	22
*Ave Maria	0	21	21
Baseball	4	17	21
*Columbia	0	21	21
Consumer's Guide	19	1	20
House and Garden	20	0	20
Rotarian	15	5	20
Scholastic Coach	10	10	20
Annals of the American Academy	18	1	19
Occupations	14	5	19
Radio Craft	14	5	19
Infantry Journal	7	11	18
Ladies Home Journal	17	1	18
Debater's Digest	8	9	17
Magazine of Art	14	3	17
Asia and the Americas	15	1	16
American Forests	11	5	16
Free World	14	2	16
Home Craftsman	15	1	16
Air Tech	12	3	15
Journal of Chemical Education	5	10	15
Monthly Labor Review	13	2	15
Popular Homecraft	15	0	15
Consumer's Union Reports	14	0	14
McCall's Magazine	14	0	14
Common Ground	11	2	13
Forecast	13	0	13
Audubon Magazine	10	2	12
*Catholic Boy	0	12	12
El Eco	9	3	12
Parents' Magazine	12	0	12
Recreation	12	0	12
Christian Century	10	1	11

Periodicals	Public (135)	Private (85)	Total (220)
Gregg Writer	9	2	11
Journal of Health and Physical Education	11	0	11
Nation's Business	10	1	11
Pencil Points	10	1	11
School Activities	7	4	11
American City	9	1	10
American Mercury	8	2	10
Book Review Digest	5	5	10
International Conciliation	8	2	10
Le Petit Journal	6	4	10
Player's Magazine	10	0	10
American Builder and Building	10	0	10
*St. Anthony's Messenger	0	10	10
Health	9	0	9
High School Thespian	8	1	9
Inland Printer	9	0	9
New Yorker	5	4	9
Stamps	4	5	9
*Spirit	0	9	9
Woman's Home Companion	9	0	9
American Machinist	8	0	8
New York Herald-Tribune Book Reviews	7	1	8
Plays	7	1	8
Safety Education	7	1	8
*The Shield	0	8	8
Art News	3	4	7
Classical Journal	2	5	7
*Christian Family	0	7	7
Flying Cadet	4	3	7
Headline Books	7	0	7
Junior Red Cross Journal	5	2	7
Public Affairs Pamphlet	7	0	7
*Orate Fratres	0	7	7
*Young Catholic Messenger	0	7	7
Amer-Asia	4	2	6
Architectural Record	5	1	6
Banking	4	2	6
Butterick Fashion Magazine	6	0	6
Historical Bulletin	0	6	6
Hunting and Fishing	1	5	6
Journal of Geography	6	0	6
*The Month	0	6	6
Motor	6	0	6

Periodicals	Public (135)	Private (85)	Tota (220
Social Studies	3	3	
Architectural Forum	3	2	
Art Digest	4	1	
Common Sense	3	2	
Current Aviation	5	0	
Mechanix Illustrated	3	2	
Minican Photography	3	2	
Newsmap	3	2	
*Marianist	0	5	
Omnibook	4	1	
Poetry	4	1	
Practical Home Economics	5	0	
Printer's Ink	5	0	
Quill and Scroll	3	2	
Sports Afield	3	2	
Weekly News Review	3	2	
What's New in Home Economics	3	2	
Yale Review	0	5	

The top 34 periodicals in this list account for 50 per cent of the subscriptions of these two hundred twenty high schools. The total list of 190 appearing in Table 13 account for 91 per cent of the subscriptions. The remaining 326 periodicals account for only 9 per cent of the total number of periodicals taken by the group of high schools.

V. Periodicals Bound

The policies of high schools with reference to binding of periodicals are probably more diverse than are policies on any of the other factors presented in this study. Table 14 shows the percentages of schools of different types binding or not binding periodicals, and binding definite numbers. The diversity is extreme. Thus, 43 per cent of the high schools represented in this study bind no periodicals, and another 14 per cent bind only one periodical. On the other hand, 11 per cent bind from

Table 14. Percentage of Schools Binding Periodicals

Periodicals	Catholic	Nondenom.	Public	Totals
None	46	41	42	43
1	13	12	15	14
2-4	16	12	12	13
5-9	13	6	12	12
10-14	3	12	7.5	6
15-19	3	6	4	4
20-24	3	12	3	4
25-36	3	0	3.5	3

15 to 36 periodicals. The only uniformity is among types of schools and the degree of diversity within each type. Though ninety-three of the two hundred twenty schools bind no periodicals, and thirty-one more bind only one, there are thirteen schools which bind more than 50 per cent of the periodicals they take, and one binds its entire number, 36. Approximately 70 per cent of the schools bind not more than 4 periodicals. Most of the schools not binding periodicals explain that they keep the more important magazines for a five-year period. Apparently high-school periodicals in this group of schools are conceived of as only material for current reading.

TABLE 15. NUMBERS OF SPECIFIC PERIODICALS BOUND

National Geographic	108	Bull. of Pan-American Union	7
Current Biography	50	American City	7
Reader's Digest	48	Annals of American Academy	6
Harper's Magazine	43	School Arts	6
Scientific American	42	School Science and Mathematics	6
Newsweek	39	*Jesuit Missions	6
Current History	33	American Magazine	5
Atlantic Monthly	31	Business Week	5
Time Magazine	31	Good Housekeeping	5
Hygeia	24	*Ave Maria	5
Nature Magazine	24	*Catholic Mind	5
Survey Graphic	24	Chemistry Leaflet	4
Congressional Digest	22	Newsmap	4
Travel	22	Saturday Evening Post	4
*America	21	United States News	4
Popular Mechanics	20	*Messenger of the Sacred Heart	4
Scholastic	19	Better Homes and Gardens	3
Vital Speeches	19	Colliers	3
Popular Science	17	Design	3
Saturday Review of Literature	17	Foreign Affairs	3
Science Newsletter	15	Illustrated London News	3
*Commonweal	15	Industrial Arts and Voc. Educ.	3
*Catholic Digest	14	Science Digest	3
Asia	14	*Queen's Work	3
New Republic	13	*The Month	3
Nation	12	*Catholic Missions	3
Natural History	12	Amer-Asia	2
Survey	12	American Home	2
Life Magazine	11	Asia and the Americas	2
*Catholic World	11	Flying	2
Athletic Journal	10	Hobbies	2
Theatre Arts Magazine	10	Inter-American Monthly	2
*Sign	10	Yale Review	2
Fortune	9	Aero Digest	1
*Catholic Action	9	American Cookery	1
Building America	8	American Observer	1

TABLE 15. NUMBERS OF SPECIFIC PERIODICALS BOUND (Continued)

Architectural Record	1	Outdoor Life	1
Aviation	1	Parents' Magazine	1
Boys' Life	1	Poetry	1
*Catholic Family	1	Popular Homecraft	1
Christian Century	1	Q. S. T.	1
*Catholic Mirror	1	Rotarian	1
Consumer's Research Bulletin	1	Skyways	1
Debater's Digest	1	*Spirit	1
Forecast	1	*Marianist	1
Junior Red Cross Journal	1	*The Grail	1
Occupations	1	Vocational Trends	1
Open Road for Boys	1		

The *National Geographic* is bound by all but five of the schools who bind any magazine, and by approximately 50 per cent of the two hundred twenty schools. No other periodical is bound by 25 per cent of the schools.

CONCLUSIONS

1. There is an extremely wide variation among high schools in the sizes of budgets recommended for high-school periodicals, ranging from less than $35 for each of the five sizes of schools considered to $300. The average, however, establishes a scale somewhat as follows: for schools of 500 students, $80-$100; for schools of 800, $100-$110; for schools of 1,000, $120-$140; for schools of 1,500, $150-$175; and for schools of 2,000, $175-$225.

2. The numbers of periodicals taken have little connection with the sizes of high schools. Since all of the schools in the study serve urban populations, they are somewhat similar in character. What differences do exist in programs and objectives are not reflected in numbers of periodicals taken. Public high schools average a few more periodicals per school than do the private high schools, but the public schools average more than twice the number of pupils. The two hundred twenty schools take an average of 38 periodicals per school, and the schools average 38 students per periodical taken.

3. A total of 516 different periodicals are subscribed for by the two hundred twenty schools. Less than 4 per cent of the periodicals, 19 in number, are taken by as many as 50 per cent of the two hundred twenty schools, and approximately 64 per cent of the periodicals, 326 in number, are taken by less than five schools.

4. Practice with reference to binding periodicals in these high schools is so diverse that no central tendency is observed. Approximately 43 per cent of the schools bind no periodicals. Another 14 per cent bind only one. At the other extreme, 11 per cent of the schools bind

from 15 to 36 periodicals. The *National Geographic* is the only periodical bound by more than 25 per cent of the schools, and it is the one periodical bound by most of the schools which bind only one.

5. The obvious general conclusion from this study is that high-school policies with reference to provision of periodicals are diverse in the extreme and in every measurable detail. The conclusion leads to a further observasion that there appears to be little solid conviction among high schools concerning the uses of periodicals and their place in the high-school educational program.

Supplementary Catholic High-School Report

Numbers of periodicals taken by individual Catholic high schools have been singled out and appear below. In the major section of this study the specifically Catholic periodicals are not segregated. Table 11 shows that the Catholic boys' high schools subscribe for proportionately larger numbers than do the public high schools. On the other hand, approximately one third of their periodicals are distinctly religious in character. It is possible, therefore, that these schools provide a less wide distribution of general high-school periodicals. The percentage which Catholic periodicals are of the total number taken by individual schools ranges from 21 per cent to 58 per cent.

Enrollment, Number, and Types of Periodicals in Catholic Schools

Enrollment	Catholic Periodicals	Non-Catholic Periodicals	Total Taken	Number Bound
875	23	50	73	20
2,000	15	54	69	0
1,880	26	42	68	1
*630	20	46	66	0
*806	17	42	59	4
*752	19	38	57	3
*711	13	43	56	0
800	25	27	52	13
*517	18	30	48	32
1,272	10	38	48	0
1,543	14	33	47	1
*701	9	38	47	1
1,356	15	31	46	7
1,400	16	17	43	0
*700	10	33	43	2
1,750	13	29	42	4
776	17	25	42	2
*302	13	28	41	5

Enrollment	Catholic Periodicals	Non-Catholic Periodicals	Total Taken	Number Bound
792	16	25	41	21
3,400	10	30	40	0
796	10	30	40	0
*800	14	25	39	4
1,170	12	26	38	0
722	9	29	38	4
*810	8	30	38	1
*900	12	26	38	0
*1,400	14	23	37	6
1,362	12	25	37	4
*540	11	26	37	0
820	16	20	36	2
*380	14	22	36	36
*495	11	24	35	5
610	9	26	35	0
570	10	25	35	5
650	11	24	35	19
1,150	6	28	34	9
1,058	19	14	33	17
600	13	20	33	0
*950	11	21	32	9
685	13	19	32	6
*1,001	11	20	31	0
*117	14	16	30	0
*946	10	19	29	1
*890	11	18	29	0
1,112	8	21	29	1
361	11	18	29	0
854	9	20	29	2
*96	12	14	26	0
617	9	18	27	2
1,274	6	21	27	0
450	9	17	26	1
*515	6	20	26	0
*820	12	13	25	0
1,270	12	13	25	0
703	11	13	24	0
330	9	14	23	10
300	12	11	23	0
1,400	10	12	22	0
*260	9	13	22	0
*130	7	14	21	0
627	6	15	21	0

Enrollment	Catholic Periodicals	Non-Catholic Periodicals	Total Taken	Number Bound
660	4	16	20	0
800	11	8	19	0
*200	9	9	18	0
*196	9	9	18	5
375	7	7	14	1
	—	—	—	—
Average	12	24	36	3
Median	11	23	35	1
Average Student per Periodical	72	36	23	—

BOOKS

A Padre Views South America. By Peter Masten Dunne, S. J. Milwaukee, Wisconsin: Bruce Publishing Company, 1945. pp. 240. $2.50.

A Padre Views South America is a book every Jesuit will read with pleasure and with envy. There are not many in the Society who are given a "sabbatical year" for travel and writing. This, however, was necessary if Father Dunne was to give us a reliable treatment of a subject so complex as South America is for a North American. He has succeeded eminently well in doing it. He has grasped with singular keenness the distinctive character of each of the ten nations he has visited: *viz.,* Argentina, Chile, Uruguay, Paraguay, Brazil, Bolivia, Peru, Colombia, Ecuador, and Venezuela.

As an *historian,* Father Dunne has revitalized for us the age of the conquistadores and Catholic missionaries, Indian civilization with its marvelous buildings and temples, the work of the Jesuits, their apostolate and their way of living in the old Society (pp. 39-50). The Reductions of Paraguay are given an entire chapter. But most interesting of all, the Padre initiates his readers to the trend of unbroken tradition, the necessary background of the actual happenings and facts.

As was to be expected from a *priest,* Father Dunne has not failed to realize how religion is at the root of almost all the problems of South America. Nothing truer, therefore, than to call Latin American civilization a predominantly Catholic culture, and to analyze it as such. This is one of the most valuable features of the book, because it focuses the facts in their proper proportion. Not only does Father Dunne discuss the relations between Church and state (pp. 262-64), but his criticism of the work of the Church itself is far-reaching and generally accurate. In a few lines he manages to analyze the historical reasons behind "the easy going manner in which a majority of Latin American Catholics take their religion" (p. 264). Perhaps he could have insisted a little more on the reason for the very character of the people. Grace builds upon nature. South Americans are easygoing in their temporal business too. The Padre suggests several other motives, as the "too great barrier between clergy and people" (p. 267), and lack of basic religious instruction given by the clergy. His conclusion, that "what is needed in the sermons is less of devotional tenderness and religious emotion, and more of the rationality of Catholicism" (p. 267), is pure gold and a very inspiring program for South American priests.

The Padre next handles the ticklish problem of Protestant propaganda. On the one hand, he declares emphatically that "there has been too much protesting, not enough acting" (p. 269); on the other hand he prudently recognizes that after all, the priests of the "invaded" countries "should understand their own people better than a mere visitor from the north" (p. 99). He feels himself inclined to tolerance, to avoid "heightening the quarrel between Christians when tolerance and charity is the note of Christianity" (p. 278), but he realizes too how difficult it is to apply his solution when the "psychology of compromise is not present in a great degree in Latin temperament" (p. 266).

A *humanist,* Father Dunne has caught with master eye the cultural side of the countries he has visited. His fundamental remark is that "Latin Americans are more interested in things intellectual than in things material" (p. 281). No wonder then that, with the exception of his chapter on Venezuela, he stresses more the "humanistic and refined psychology" of South Americans, than the financial possibilities of their country. With sincere admiration he points out more than once that "the literary culture of professional men or of the retired gentlemen of means is something different from anything we know in the north except, as a rule, among teachers and university professors" (pp. 55 and 281). In fact his whole last chapter, "Race Psychology and the Good Neighbor," has to be read entirely to appreciate the deep knowledge the author has on the matter. Only a true humanist can understand humanism so well and so tactfully. Needless to say, art and architecture, omnipresent in every cultural South American center, have found in the Padre a most enthusiastic admirer.

This, nevertheless, did not blind the Padre to notice, as a good *teacher,* what could be improved and even corrected. He realizes very well that "the conditions in South America cannot be judged by the same standards as those of the north," and that "the American must be careful to avoid hasty judgment and to beware of generalizations" (p. 262). This sound admonition he seems to have forgotten in commenting on the sight of magnificent churches surrounded by the poverty and misery of the people, the implication being that less money should be spent on the churches, more on the Church's poor. The Padre should not forget that those priceless treasures of art were gathered in a time of high prosperity of both Church and state, when the Church itself, besides the construction of those temples, had funds enough to build professional schools, colleges and universities, hospitals and orphanages by the hundreds, and to provide wide territories of missions not only with tools for agriculture but also with the best means of civilized life. Liberalism and bad government have spoiled the Church of its estates

and have not provided for the poor whom the Church could no longe help financially. Besides, who gave and still gives the money for thos jeweled crowns of $50,000 the Padre mentions (p. 277)? Most of th time, not the rich but the poor and the very poor, who give away wha is for them the coin of the widow, because they know that Chris approves of it—even if human prudence frowns—and because thos crowns and those paintings are a continual sermon for the centuries t come, as the Padre himself acknowledges (pp. 193-94). It seems to u that the Padre was much nearer to the truth when, as he gazed upo the Indian market of La Paz, he realized that "those people are *conten* the way they are. They cling to their habits, their poverty and their dirt Anything like group elevation or alleviation seems impossible" (p. 158).

The last feature that pervades the whole book and makes it a constructive work is the persistent impression that it is written by a *friend*. The unfailing courtesy of the Padre is the best proof of it. Even when he points out defects of South American people (pp. 286-87), he does it so tactfully that he arouses regret without resentment, and a willingness to accept his advice as pertinent for the future. Works like this are certainly the best fitted to promote understanding and friendship between the two Americas.

As we close the book on the last page, we desire only one thing more: that the Padre be given another "sabbatical year" to complete his visit of South America by a tour of Central America and Mexico, so that he can give the full picture of Ibero-America to the large North American public.

JOSE ESPINOSA POLIT, S. J.

NEWS FROM THE FIELD

Recent Administrative Appointments. FATHER D. ROSS DRUHAN, who for the past seven years has been rector of St. Charles' College, Grand Coteau, has been appointed rector and principal at the Jesuit High School, Dallas, Texas, replacing FATHER JOSEPH C. MULHERN, who has been assigned to Spring Hill College as assistant dean and director of part-time and extension courses.

FATHER WILLIAM G. ELLIOTT, formerly pastor at St. Patrick's in Hillyard, became rector at the scholasticate at Mt. St. Michael's, Hillyard, Washington. The former rector, FATHER EDWARD S. FLAJOLE, after six years at Mt. St. Michael's, became dean of studies at Seattle College.

At the scholasticate in Weston, Massachusetts, the rector, FATHER EDWARD A. SULLIVAN, was forced by illness to give up his work. A former rector of Weston College, FATHER JAMES M. KILROY, has been appointed temporary vice-rector.

FATHER THOMAS J. SHIELDS, until recently provincial of the New Orleans Province, has been appointed president of Loyola University, New Orleans. FATHER P. A. ROY, the former president of Loyola, has been named co-ordinator of post-war educational problems.

FATHER WILLIAM L. KELEHER, formerly master of novices at the novitiate at Shadowbrook, Lenox, Massachusetts, has been named president of Boston College, Chestnut Hill, Massachusetts. FATHER WILLIAM J. HEALY, professor of English and dean of studies at Shadowbrook, has been appointed president of Holy Cross College in Worcester. The former president of Holy Cross, FATHER JOSEPH R. N. MAXWELL, has been assigned as rector of Cranwell Preparatory School, Lenox.

FATHER JAMES T. HUSSEY, formerly dean of men and regent of the Dental School at Loyola University, Chicago, has been named president of the University. Father Joseph M. Egan remains as rector.

FATHER JOHN E. GRATTAN, formerly dean of studies at Georgetown University, has been appointed regent at St. Peter's College, Jersey City, which now has a community living at the College apart from the old residence on Grand Street.

Honorary Degrees. At its June commencement, Georgetown University conferred honorary degrees on President Harry S. Truman, Father Joseph T. O'Callahan, chaplain of the *U. S. S. Franklin,* and Prince Abdul Ilah, regent of Iraq. Marquette University conferred an honorary degree on Archbishop Francis J. Spellman of New York. Father J. Edward Haggerty, S. J., rector of the now destroyed Ateneo de Cagayan in Mindinao, Philippine Islands, and recently appointed Military Vicar for the Philippine and Japanese islands, received an honorary degree

from Fordham University just before his return to the Philippines in early August. Father Haggerty's book *Guerilla Padre,* giving an account of the experiences of the missionaries during the period of the guerilla in Mindinao, is scheduled for publication by Longmans, Green in December.

Awards. Father John P. Carroll of the Maryland Province, now studying for his doctorate at Harvard University, was awarded the Bowdoin Prize for Latin translation. Father John S. Creaghan of the same Province has been assigned a fellowship at Princeton. Father Robert G. North of the Missouri Province won the Catholic Biblical Association scholarship which entitles him to five years of biblical studies.

In Government Service. An alumnus of St. Louis University Law School, the Honorable Phil M. Donnelly, has been elected governor of Missouri. Postmaster General Robert E. Hannegan is also an alumnus of St. Louis University Law School. In this position he succeeds Frank Walker, an alumnus of Gonzaga University, Spokane. The former dean of Gonzaga's Law School, Judge Louis B. Schwellenback, has been named Secretary of Labor in President Truman's cabinet.

In the High Schools. An honor student at St. Ignatius High School, Cleveland, William Nicols, Ohio winner of the Pepsi-Cola Scholarship contest, ranked third highest in the nation and received a four-year scholarship at the college of his choice.

At St. Ignatius High School, Chicago, two members of the community who were teachers in the high school for many years celebrated jubilees. Father William T. Nash, formerly teacher of religion, and now librarian and archivist, celebrated his Golden Jubilee on August 12, and on August 14 Father Arnold J. Garvy, formerly teacher of English and now engaged in mission work among the colored people, celebrated his Diamond Jubilee.

The Vergil Academy of Regis High School, New York, directed by Mr. Lewis Delmage, S. J., conducted a public symposium on the twelve books of the Aeneid in the high-school auditorium in May. Members of the Academy were questioned for twelve minutes each by six invited examiners, Father John P. Carroll, S. J., of Georgetown University, Professor Lillian B. Lawler, of Hunter College, Professor Kurt von Fritz, of Columbia University, Brother Alban, F. S. C., of Manhattan College, Professor Frederick M. Wheelock, of Brooklyn College, and Father Edwin A. Quain, S. J., of Fordham University.

Boston College High School in Boston has been forced by growth in enrollment to purchase from the city of Boston a small unused public school, formerly an annex of the Girls' High School. The building was purchased completely equipped, and will accommodate more than 500

students. It is located about four blocks from the present high-school building.

A student at Bellarmine College Preparatory, San Jose, California, Walter Heintz, an honor student in the Westinghouse Science Search Examination, was awarded a four-year scholarship at Fordham University.

St. Peter's Preparatory School, Jersey City, was able to report that all former students who had been prisoners of war in Germany had been accounted for and were either already home or returning home.

Fairfield College Preparatory School, Fairfield, Connecticut, has been conducting a Radio Playshop, characterized by the radio editor of the Bridgeport *Post* as "the most progressive unit to enter the local broadcasting scene in several years." The school continues to present its weekly "Junior Newscasters" program over Station WICC. In addition to this weekly series, the Playshop has recently produced two original plays, "Simon Bolivar, Apostle of International Cooperation," presented in commemoration of Pan-American Day, and "The Bombardier Died on Good Friday," presented on Good Friday night. With the completion of the Junior Newscasters series, the total number of broadcasts over a five-months' period has been sixteen. A distinctive feature of these programs is that the students conduct the broadcast from beginning to end, as announcers, narrators, actors, and sound-effects men. The sound-effects men work under the direction of WICC's regular staff. Father Kelly is director of the Playshop.

Loyola School in New York has extended its military science course to the fourth-year class this year, and thus the entire nine grades at the school will receive military training.

In the Colleges and Universities. One entire floor of the new Georgetown University Hospital will be dedicated as a memorial to Georgetown's war dead. The University is conducting a campaign to raise $750,000. The government will add to the fund more than double the amount that the University is to gather.

In the archives of Georgetown has been discovered a letter written by Charles Guiteau, assassin of President Garfield, to General W. T. Sherman. The letter begins with the startling words: "I have just shot the President."

Loyola College, Baltimore, has announced a three-year course, starting in September 1945. In each calendar year there will be two semesters of sixteen weeks each, followed by a spring term of eight weeks. Classes will run from September 5th to July 15th. Adult Education courses at Loyola, leading to a degree in five years, will be inaugurated in the fall and the Veterans Administration has established a guidance center at Loyola for the counseling and guidance of veterans.

Although the government has terminated the War Training Program St. Joseph's College, Philadelphia, will maintain a similar program o specialized science classes in its Adult Education Division, offerin courses designed to assist local industries and industrial workers in thei respective fields. A sequence of courses in paper technology, and anothe sequence in electronics are projected to begin this fall. Evening colleg courses and a program in Catholic social doctrine are also offered t students in the Adult Education Division.

Students of Gonzaga University, Spokane, contributed a library an memorial plaques for the ship *Gonzaga Victory,* which was launched a Portland, Oregon. In a letter of thanks to the president of the University the captain of the ship expressed his pleasure at having an alumnus o Gonzaga as one of the staff officers of the ship.

One of Gonzaga's former rectors, the Most Rev. Ralph J. R. Crimont S. J., Vicar Apostolic of Alaska, died at Juneau on May 20, 1945, at th age of eighty-seven years. He was the oldest member of the American Catholic Hierarchy. He had been seventy years a Jesuit, fifty-seven year a priest, and twenty-eight years a bishop.

On the American Library Association list of outstanding scholarl libraries in the United States, covering more than sixteen hundred col lege and university libraries, St. Louis University Library held the posi tion of thirty-first. The combined libraries of the University now contai 459,320 volumes.

The Missouri Gamma Chapter of Pi Mu, national mathematics frater nity, has been installed at St. Louis University.

Marquette University has received a gift of six and one half acres twenty-eight city blocks, adjoining the University stadium. The property will be used as an athletic field. It is the gift of Mr. Vincent McCormick graduate of Marquette Law School in the class of 1922. Dr. George Wilson, dean of Marquette Dental School, has been appointed by Governor Goodland of Wisconsin to a committee for post-war advisory medical service for veterans.

At John Carroll University a faculty group of fifteen Jesuits and laymen has been organized to meet once a week to read and discuss the *Basic Works of St. Thomas,* recently edited by Dr. Anton Pegis and published by Random House.

Courses in musical education, intended primarily for Sisters, were a new feature of the University of Detroit summer school. The courses were offered in cooperation with the Detroit Institute of Musical Arts, now affiliated with the University.

On May 11, 12, 13, 1945, Loyola University, Chicago, celebrated its seventy-fifth anniversary. First place in the annual examination ad-

ministered by the National Board of Medical Examiners was won over a field of 1,400 rivals by John Springer, senior in Loyola's School of Medicine.

Fordham University is making plans to establish a counseling center for the Veterans Administration. Dr. Robert T. Rock, of the Department of Psychology, will head a staff of seven laymen and two military members. During the war, Dr. Rock, with the rank of colonel, supervised the testing of two and one half million soldiers throughout the southwest. In October Fordham will hold a two-day conference on the London Educational Conference. Dr. Oscar Halecki, of the Department of History, will be chairman of the conference and will be assisted by Father Gerald Walsh, Dr. Otto von Hildebrandt, and Dr. Ross Hoffman. Father Gerald Walsh has been invited to give the Lowell lectures at Harvard University this fall. Father Joseph M. F. Marique, associate professor of classics at Fordham College, has been invited to give a course in Christian epigraphy during the fall semester at the Institute of Advanced Studies at Princeton University.

Father Andrew L. Bouwhuis, librarian at Canisius College in Buffalo for the past ten years, has moved to Christ the King Retreat House in Syracuse, where he will assist in planning and preparing for the new Jesuit college to be opened in that city after the war period is over.

With the end of the war and the relaxing of priorities, Loyola University of Los Angeles is hopeful that the downtown college will be ready for occupancy in July 1946. The building and equipment will cost close to $400,000.

At the University of San Francisco, Dr. Mervyn E. Miller, an alumnus of the University and the first student to receive a doctorate in education in the field of audio-visual education at Stanford University, will offer two courses in the evening school on visual education. Both courses are authorized for increment credit by the San Francisco School Department. Father Carlo Rossi's Brazilian Portuguese grammar has been adopted by some twenty-two colleges. Father Rossi has signed a contract with Holt and Company to produce at least two more books. He is at present in South America on a grant from the U. S. Department of State. The day division of the Law School of the University of San Francisco, and that of Boalt Hall School of Jurisprudence at the University of California and Hastings School of Law of the University of California, have decided to pool their day school students and to supply a professor each to teach them. Dr. Albertsworth, formerly of Northwestern University, was the University of San Francisco's contribution to the pool. As far as is known, this is the first time that three law schools pooled their students and faculty to meet an emergency.

Accelerated Program. Already several Jesuit colleges have announced plans to abandon the accelerated program in the near future. Among these are Spring Hill, Loyola University in Chicago, Loyola University in Los Angeles.

Publications. *The Jesuits in Old Oregon,* the work of Mr. William M. Bischoff, S. J., of the Oregon Province, now a theologian at Alma, has been published by the Caxton Printers, Ltd., of Caldwell, Idaho.

The Fordham University Press will publish in the fall a *Guide to Historical Method,* the work of the late Father Gilbert J. Garrighan, S. J. The manuscript has been edited by Father Jean Delanglez, S. J., of the New Orleans Province, now research professor of history, Loyola University of Chicago, with the assistance of Father William J. Schlaerth, S. J., of the Fordham University Graduate School.

A revised edition of *A Reading Course in Homeric Greek,* by Messrs. Schoder and Horrigan, is being published in planographed form. It is being used this year in twelve high schools in the Assistancy. The second-year book, a continuation of the first-year book, is being tried out by Mr. Horrigan at the University of Detroit High School. The course was described in the March and June 1945 issues of the QUARTERLY.

CATHOLIC TAXES FOR CATHOLIC SCHOOLS

"The logic and justice of requesting a just share of tax-appropriated school moneys seems apparent to one willing to face the facts honestly. The Government compels Catholic children to attend school, but fails to provide a type of education which they in conscience can accept. Last year Catholics were taxed over $416,000,000 for the support of public education, an average of about $89 per Catholic family. They were offered nothing in return but a form of education which violated their religious convictions; consequently many of them, rather than sacrifice their religious freedom, dug into their pockets a second time that they might provide a form of education which would satisfy their conscience, and thus saved the public over $284,661,000 for current expense, interest, and capital outlay, in addition to a building program that would have cost the public nearly a billion dollars had their children attended public schools.

"The lack of distributive justice in the present policy of excluding Catholic schools from public support is quite apparent. So is our need for public support. Justice and reason are on our side; so is the supreme law of the land—the Constitution of the United States. Early American tradition and the decisions of the U. S. Supreme Court lend added support. Pius XI in his Encyclical, *The Christian Education of Youth,* reminds us that we have a right in principle to such aid, that the Government should give 'such assistance as justice demands, that this can be done to the full satisfaction of families and to the advantage of public peace and tranquillity.' Certain foreign countries have accepted the Pope's view of state subventions and have found a workable solution. Now that greater need for public support is appearing on the horizon, are we willing to accept the challenge of meeting the problems that public support may bring in its wake?"

(Urban H. Fleege, S. M., in *America,* February 17, 1945.)

ACCELERATION FOR VETERANS

"There is every argument for . . . accelerating the education of th older veterans. Since delayed education throws the whole complexus o marriage, vocation and social life out of balance the veteran shoul be given every opportunity to go as fast and as far as his capabilitie will allow. Under no circumstances should he be held back by rule and requirements which have nothing to do with a man of his age.

"In emphasizing the need of making up the years which were los it must be realized however that acceleration is more applicable to som subjects than to others. The same acceleration cannot be expected i history, philosophy and literary appreciation as can be expected in engineer ing subjects, for there is a difference between learning and technique between careful persistent thinking and the application of equations In our desire to advance the veteran, cultural values must not b neglected. In these momentous days fraught with world-wide issues there is need of education 'in depth,' to use a military phrase, and i higher education there must be breadth as well as depth. This too i an adult need. A college education fails completely, I am sure you wil agree, if it does not broaden horizons and deepen appreciations."

(Frank T. Hines, "The Colleges in Transition," *Association of American Colleges Bulletin,* March 1945, pp. 77-79.)