

Enriching the Curriculum
for the
Elementary-School Child

EIGHTEENTH YEARBOOK

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PREFACE

IN COMPILING THIS YEARBOOK the Editorial Committee has not attempted to outline either a model curriculum or an ideal administrative plan for curriculum revision. Instead, the Committee has assembled information on a wide variety of actual practices in curriculum enrichment as reported by principals, teachers, curriculum specialists, and others. The practices described here range from those used in carrying on a single unit of class work to those used in a city-wide program of curriculum development.

The curriculum, as conceived here, is not confined to textbooks or formal courses of study, but includes all the experiences which children have under the guidance of the school. According to this concept, curriculum enrichment depends not only upon improved choices of subject-matter, but also upon better methods of teaching and learning, wiser selection of school materials and equipment, wider and more effective use of community resources, more adequate methods of measurement and guidance, and more appropriate school organization and administration. All these factors are discussed and illustrated in this book.

The organization of the book has been a difficult task. Many of the authors deal with several of the factors just mentioned. Hence it has been impossible to draw sharp lines of distinction between chapters. Each chapter, however, is unique in its major emphasis and in the specific illustrations presented.

Some principals and teachers may be tempted to adopt a suggested method of enrichment without due consideration of its implications. Attention is therefore directed especially to Chapter I, which appraises various methods and emphasizes the importance of using methods that are consistent with one another and with an acceptable general plan of curriculum development.

Like its predecessors, this yearbook has been prepared with the help of many people. The Committee is especially grateful to all who submitted manuscripts. It also appreciates the assistance of the Research Division of the National Education Association, particularly that of Dr. Richard R. Foster, assistant director, who edited and helped plan the entire book. The Division of Publications contributed by checking the manuscript, reading proof, and seeing the book thru the press. Miss Eva G. Pinkston, the Department's executive secretary, compiled the official information and helped in many other ways.

The publication of this volume marks the end of Mr. Fertsch's three-year term on the Committee. The new member will be Miss Nellie V. Lind of Denver, Colorado.

THE EDITORIAL COMMITTEE

THE PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE

THE STEADY GROWTH of the Department of Elementary School Principals is due in no small measure to the quality and popularity of its yearbooks. *Aids to Teaching, Personality Adjustment, Newer Practises in Reading*—these and other volumes in the yearbook series have helped principals and teachers thruout the nation to improve their school programs. This latest volume, with its emphasis on curriculum enrichment, offers inspiration and guidance to all who wish to combine the best that is new with the good that is older in elementary education. Here one finds a wealth of practical suggestions for making the school experiences of children individually richer and socially more significant.

In this book, as in its predecessors, the Editorial Committee has made no attempt to present an exhaustive, closely integrated treatment of the topic under consideration. That important function has been left to other writers in the field. Instead, the yearbook is a well-organized collection of many individual contributions, most of which describe concretely some of the best work of teachers, supervisors, or administrators in actual school situations. The publication of such material, we believe, is the most useful service the Department can render to the educational profession.

It is a privilege to introduce this book to its many prospective readers. It measures up well to the standard set in previous years. It should have wide use both in public and private elementary schools and in institutions for the preparation of teachers. Individual and group study of its contents will surely result in better teaching and more productive supervision.

To the authors and editors we owe a substantial debt of gratitude. They have labored faithfully and intelligently, and have given us something which we can use every day in our work.

MAUDE A. RHODES, *President*
Department of Elementary School Principals

CONTENTS

	PAGE
PREFACE.....	229
The Editorial Committee	
THE PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE.....	230
Maude A. Rhodes, President, Department of Elementary School Principals	
CHAPTER I—THE NATURE AND SIGNIFICANCE OF CURRICULUM ENRICHMENT.....	235
Hollis L. Caswell, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York	
SELECTED REFERENCES.....	249
CHAPTER II—APPROACHES TO CURRICULUM ENRICHMENT	
EDITORIAL COMMENT.....	250
A COMBINATION OF UNIT TEACHING AND SUBJECT TEACHING IN A PLATOON SYSTEM.....	251
Ralph B. Jones, Director of Curriculum Revision, Public Schools, Fort Smith, Arkansas	
USING SOCIAL STUDIES AS A CENTER FOR THE INTEGRATION OF SUBJECTS..	258
Raymond Jump, Teacher, Tilghman School, Talbot County, Maryland	
SUCCESSFULLY INITIATING AN INTEGRATIVE PROGRAM.....	263
Dorothy K. Farthing, Supervisor, and Frank H. Gorman, Principal, Elementary Division, University of Missouri Laboratory School, Columbia, Missouri	
REORGANIZING A SCHOOL PROGRAM ON A FUNCTIONAL BASIS.....	266
Mary Willcockson, Supervisor of Elementary Grades, McGuffey School, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio	
COOPERATIVE CURRICULUM STUDY IN A CITY SCHOOL SYSTEM.....	271
Ethel Mabie Falk, Formerly Supervisor of Curriculum, Madison Public Schools, Madison, Wisconsin	
STIMULATING AND GUIDING TEACHERS IN ENRICHING THE CURRICULUM...	278
Louise E. Broadus, Supervisor of Second and Third Grades, and Forbes H. Norris, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Richmond, Virginia	
COUNTYWIDE TEACHER PARTICIPATION IN DEVELOPING A SCIENCE PROGRAM.....	285
Dorothea M. Wein, Helping Teacher, Cape May County, New Jersey	
DEVELOPING A FUNCTIONAL PROGRAM OF ART EDUCATION.....	289
Edwin Ziegfeld, Instructor in Art Education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota	
INTRODUCING THE STUDY OF FRENCH IN THE UPPER GRADES.....	296
Annabelle Chalfant, Director of French, Public Schools, Akron, Ohio	
SELECTED REFERENCES.....	303
CHAPTER III—MAKING LEARNING CONCRETE AND PURPOSEFUL	
EDITORIAL COMMENT.....	304
LEARNING THRU ACTIVITY UNITS AT VARIOUS GRADE LEVELS.....	307
Hugh V. Perkins, Principal, Boulevard School, Cleveland Heights, Ohio	
INTEGRATION OF HANDWORK AND SUBJECTMATTER LEARNING.....	315
Claude L. Williams, Principal, Wentworth School, Chicago, Illinois	

	PAGE
VITALIZING READING FOR FIRST-GRADE CHILDREN.....	322
Delia E. Kibbe, Elementary Supervisor, State Department of Public Instruction, Madison, Wisconsin, and Mayme M. Edlebeck, First-Grade Teacher, Lincoln School, Green Bay, Wisconsin	
AN ACTIVITY PROGRAM IN A SECOND- AND THIRD-GRADE CLASS.....	330
Catherine M. McCarthy, Primary Teacher, Windmill Street School, Providence, Rhode Island	
AN ACTIVITY UNIT IN GRADE V.....	339
Helen Claire O'Connor, Fifth-Grade Teacher, Windmill Street School, Providence, Rhode Island	
A SIXTH-GRADE UNIT IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES.....	346
Eleanor Noyes, Sixth-Grade Teacher, Edgemont School, Montclair, New Jersey	
DEVELOPING HABITS OF INTERPRETATION AND CRITICAL THINKING.....	355
Ethel K. Howard, Supervisor of Elementary Instruction, and Dwight L. Arnold, Director of Research and Guidance, Lakewood Public Schools, Lakewood, Ohio	
EXTENDING THE SCOPE OF PUPIL EXPERIENCE.....	362
Dorothea Derrig, Principal, Allen and Leggett Schools, Akron, Ohio	
THE NEWSPAPER—A CLEARINGHOUSE FOR SCHOOL ACTIVITIES.....	368
Helen K. Mackintosh, Senior Specialist in Elementary Education, United States Office of Education, Washington, D. C.	
SELECTED REFERENCES.....	373
 CHAPTER IV—DEVELOPING APPRECIATIONS AND CREATIVE ABILITIES	
EDITORIAL COMMENT.....	374
A PROGRAM FOR CULTIVATING APPRECIATION AND TASTE IN A CITY SCHOOL SYSTEM.....	375
G. N. Hufford, Superintendent, Joliet City Schools, Joliet, Illinois	
A SCHOOLWIDE PROGRAM OF CREATIVE AND INTERPRETIVE ACTIVITIES....	383
Anita M. Baird, Principal, Rollins School, Kansas City, Missouri	
MAKING AND USING MARIONETTES.....	388
Elisa Ann Neal, Fourth-Grade Training Supervisor, State Teachers College, Platteville, Wisconsin	
WRITING AND STAGING A PLAY IN GRADES III AND IV.....	396
Nellie Haton Perrin, Supervising Teacher, Laboratory School, Terre Haute, Indiana	
DEVELOPING APPRECIATION OF INSTRUMENTAL MUSIC IN THE PRIMARY GRADES.....	403
Gustav Patz, Principal, Augusta Street School, Irvington, New Jersey	
USING SYMPHONY CONCERTS TO ENRICH THE MUSIC PROGRAM.....	406
Florence C. Mortimer, Principal, Wheatley School, Washington, D. C.	
SELECTED REFERENCES.....	410
 CHAPTER V—ENRICHMENT THRU SCHOOL MATERIALS AND EQUIPMENT	
EDITORIAL COMMENT.....	413
VISUAL AND AUDITORY AIDS TO ENRICHMENT.....	414
Paul C. Reed, Director of Visual and Radio Education, Public Schools, Rochester, New York	
DEVELOPING A LOW-COST VISUAL AIDS PROGRAM.....	420
Theodore R. Wright, Principal, Barker School, Birmingham, Alabama	
PHOTOGRAPHY AS A SCHOOL ACTIVITY.....	425
Helen Alma Dye, Kindergarten Teacher, Beard School, Detroit, Michigan	

	PAGE
EFFECTIVE USE OF A PUBLIC ADDRESS SYSTEM.....	434
Fred E. Brooks, Principal, Hawthorne School, University City, Mis- souri	
EQUIPMENT AND USE OF THE SCHOOL LIBRARY.....	438
Christine C. Morley, Principal, Cardington-Stonehurst School, Upper Darby, Pennsylvania	
A TOY LENDING LIBRARY.....	444
David Weinberger, Principal, Public School No. 28, Brooklyn, New York	
SELECTED REFERENCES.....	448

CHAPTER VI—MAKING USE OF COMMUNITY RESOURCES

EDITORIAL COMMENT.....	449
SCOPE OF AN EFFECTIVE SCHOOL PROGRAM FOR UTILIZING COMMUNITY RESOURCES.....	450
Henry Harap, Professor of Education, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee	
SOME EXPERIENCES IN USING COMMUNITY RESOURCES.....	458
Anna B. Jones, Principal, Cucamonga School, Cucamonga, California	
VISITING AND STUDYING LOCAL COMMUNITY INSTITUTIONS.....	465
Ralph D. Horsman, Principal, Washington School, Mt. Lebanon, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania	
A SECOND-GRADE STUDY OF COMMUNITY LIFE.....	472
Catherine Lipe, Primary Teacher, Public Schools, DuQuoin, Illinois	
VITALIZING SEVENTH-GRADE GEOGRAPHY THRU CLASS JOURNEYS.....	478
Elizabeth M. Yoder, Geography Teacher, Grades VI to VIII, Elyria, Ohio	
A FOURTH-GRADE EXCURSION TO ANOTHER CITY.....	481
Dale Robertson, Principal, Franklin School, Fort Wayne, Indiana	
CONTRIBUTIONS OF PARENTS TO CURRICULUM ENRICHMENT.....	489
Elizabeth Thompson Newell, Principal, Osgood School, Medford, Massachusetts	
ENRICHMENT THRU A SYSTEM OF GRADE SPONSORS.....	494
Annie Johnson, Principal, Peeples Street School, Atlanta, Georgia	
COMMUNITY VACATION SCHOOLS.....	500
Rachel S. Sutton, Assistant Professor of Education, University of Georgia, Athens, Georgia	
SELECTED REFERENCES.....	505

CHAPTER VII—MEASUREMENT AND GUIDANCE IN RELATION TO CURRICULUM ENRICHMENT

EDITORIAL COMMENT.....	506
DISCOVERING THE NEEDS AND INTERESTS OF INDIVIDUAL PUPILS.....	507
Lorena B. Stretch, Professor of Education, Baylor University, Waco, Texas	
USE OF OBJECTIVE TESTS IN PUPIL GUIDANCE AND ADJUSTMENT.....	514
Lillie Lewin, Supervisor, Bureau of Research, Public Schools, San Francisco, California	
CURRICULUM ENRICHMENT FOR GIFTED CHILDREN.....	523
Bertha E. Roberts, Deputy Superintendent in Charge of Elementary Schools, San Francisco, California	
AN EXPERIMENTAL CURRICULUM FOR RETARDED PUPILS.....	532
William C. Rogers, Principal, Hanna School, Philadelphia, Penn- sylvania	

	PAGE
PLANNING A CURRICULUM FOR THE MALADJUSTED CHILD.....	538
Harriet Louise Griffith, Primary Teacher, Lee School, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma	
ADAPTING INSTRUCTION IN BASIC SKILLS TO THE CHILD'S LEVEL OF MATU- RITY	542
C. V. Millard, Department of Education, Michigan State College, East Lansing, Michigan	
INDIVIDUALIZING THE READING PROGRAM IN THE PRIMARY GRADES.....	549
Helen R. Gumlick, Supervisor of Kindergarten and Primary Grades, Public Schools, Denver, Colorado	
ENRICHMENT FOR POOR READERS THRU A REMEDIAL READING PROGRAM..	559
Helen Clowes, Reading Teacher, and John W. Robertson, Principal, Bellerose School, Floral Park, New York	
EVALUATING THE RESULTS OF CURRICULUM ENRICHMENT.....	568
J. L. Rogers, Associate Professor of Education, Southwest Texas State Teachers College, San Marcos, Texas	
SELECTED REFERENCES.....	573
CHAPTER VIII—VITALIZING THE CURRICULUM UNDER VARIOUS TYPES OF SCHOOL ORGANIZATION	
EDITORIAL COMMENT.....	574
GROUPING PUPILS WITHIN EACH GRADE ACCORDING TO READING ABILITY..	577
Roy E. Learned, Principal, Washington School, Sacramento, Cali- fornia	
INTEGRATING PUPIL EXPERIENCES THRU A CONTINUING-TEACHER PLAN..	583
Roy E. Robinson, Principal, Liberty School, Highland Park, Michigan	
INTEGRATION THRU COOPERATIVE ASSEMBLIES IN A DEPARTMENTAL ORGANIZATION.....	591
Garrett E. Rickard, Principal, LaFayette School, Chicago, Illinois	
ENRICHMENT THRU A MODIFIED PLATOON ORGANIZATION.....	596
E. P. O'Reilly, Principal, William Land School, Sacramento, Cali- fornia	
IMPROVING HEALTH AND SAFETY INSTRUCTION IN PLATOON SCHOOLS.....	603
John S. Herron, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Newark, New Jersey	
VITALIZING THE CURRICULUM IN SMALL RURAL SCHOOLS.....	607
Gladys L. Potter, Assistant Chief, Division of Elementary Education, State Department of Education, Sacramento, California	
ENRICHMENT THRU THE BOOK AUTO IN A COUNTY SCHOOL SYSTEM.....	618
Elizabeth R. Topping, Librarian, Ventura County Free Library, Ventura, California	
SELECTED REFERENCES.....	622
RECORDS AND INFORMATION	
LOCAL PRINCIPALS ORGANIZATIONS.....	624
SECTIONAL PRINCIPALS ASSOCIATIONS.....	628
STATE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS ASSOCIATIONS.....	632
LIST OF MEMBERS.....	634
INDEX.....	701

CHAPTER I

THE NATURE AND SIGNIFICANCE OF CURRICULUM ENRICHMENT

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THE EXPRESSION "curriculum enrichment" does not have a clearly defined and generally recognized meaning. It is employed to describe many different practices which undertake to increase the amount and variety of instructional materials and the number and variety of pupil activities provided by the school. Some practices are largely administrative in nature; others are supervisory; and still others relate primarily to the preparation of courses of study. For the purposes of this yearbook it appears desirable to seek further implications of the term. Enlightening interpretations may be made from a consideration of the nature of the curriculum.

THE MEANING OF THE CURRICULUM

Traditionally "the curriculum" has been used most commonly to designate selected subjects of study, or the content of subjects. During recent years the meaning has been broadened, and the term is now generally accepted as referring to *the experiences which boys and girls have under the guidance of the school*. Two points are of particular importance in this enlarged concept. First, reference is to the actual experiences which pupils undergo, not to those which are anticipated or desired by teachers. The curriculum is not measured in terms of *intentions or plans*, but in terms of the kind of living that actually goes on in the school. This emphasis is in contrast to the dominant position accorded courses of study in some organized programs of curriculum development, for the course of study under the enlarged concept is considered merely a manual or bulletin to assist the teacher in developing the curriculum. A school may have an excellent course of study and a poor curriculum, or a poor course of study and a good curriculum. The second point is that the curriculum as now generally conceived refers to *all* the experiences children have under the guidance of the school, not merely to those which are planned or which are largely academic in nature. Recreational experiences, excursions, assembly programs, group singing—these activities as well as work in arithmetic or in the social studies enter into the curriculum. In brief, "curriculum" is a short way of referring to the living, with all its good and bad qualities, which goes on under the guidance of the school.

Enrichment of the curriculum, consequently, is not primarily a matter of writing courses of study or a problem restricted to academic subjects. It involves modification of the quality of school life at any and all points to the end that the experiences of boys and girls become more meaningful and vital. It assumes the utilization of any means—courses of study or otherwise—to accomplish this end.

Curriculum enrichment is important to the extent that the experiences now provided boys and girls by the school are not as full of meaning, as significant, or as interesting as they might be, and hence are not possessed of the greatest educative possibilities. The provision of experiences which possess these qualities to a maximum degree is a complex problem not to be solved by the mere addition of books, charts, equipment, and activities to the usual program. The effect of such additions can be judged only as the emerging experience is evaluated as a whole. It is entirely possible for such additions to restrict as well as to enrich pupil experience. If these new experiences are a more direct expression of the needs and interests of children, if they have greater social significance, if they provide a more meaningful interaction of the child and his environment, then it may be concluded that real curriculum enrichment has been accomplished. On the other hand, if merely more facts or rules are memorized, if interests are narrowed rather than broadened, or if the child comes to rely more than previously on extraneous motivation, limitation rather than enrichment has resulted.

Curriculum enrichment frequently has been emphasized as a peculiar need of gifted children. It is true that the opportunities generally afforded highly capable pupils are not as challenging and meaningful as might well be desired, and that there is need for greatly enriched opportunities for these children. But the typical curriculum is probably as poorly, if not more poorly, adjusted to the needs of pupils with less than average ability. This group requires consideration just as surely as does the gifted group. Curriculum enrichment is in fact a problem common to all levels of ability and all types of pupils.

EXPERIENCE LIMITED BY THE TRADITIONAL CURRICULUM

The traditional curriculum of the elementary school provides in many respects a limited and restrictive experience for boys and girls. The historic influences which have led to this development throw light on the need for curriculum enrichment.

Prominent in the functions assigned to the elementary school has been mastery of the so-called "tool" subjects—that is, those subjects which deal with the ability to use language and number. Emphasis was given to this view in the early stages of our educational development

thru the dominance of freedom of worship as a social ideal. Freedom could be accomplished only as each individual could read the Bible for himself in order to make his own interpretation, and literacy thus became a matter of primary concern. In later years, particularly as nationalism became more pronounced, stress was placed on education for citizenship. This again centered attention on literacy, for the first and major requirement for effective citizenship appeared to be the ability to read and write. As a result, the elementary school, or common school as it was called, was assigned this objective even more definitely than before. Another influence in the same direction came from the increase in the number of secondary schools. The dominance of the college-preparatory function accepted by the secondary school caused the elementary school in turn to be looked upon as a preparatory institution for the high school. Thru a variety of means the high school impressed upon the elementary school a demand for mastery of skills and facts in the tool subjects. Thus forces converged to make the traditional elementary school a reading, writing, and figuring school greatly concerned with facts and skills, and little concerned with social understanding and sensitivity, creative expression, recreation, methods of work, and attitudes. Here was laid the basis for the fatal dissociation of fact and skill from their use in meaningful situations, a dichotomy which has produced our persistent confusion of memory and verbalism with education.

With a major emphasis on memory, it is not surprising that the traditional curriculum of the elementary school was one of restricted opportunities for boys and girls. Activities tended to be dominantly of a drill type; instructional materials were usually limited in scope; and vicarious experience was largely relied upon. The result was a school program in which there has long been a major need for curriculum enrichment. While significant enrichment has been accomplished in the curriculums of better elementary schools, much still remains to be done before optimum opportunities are approximated. The problem is therefore an important one at the present time.

THE CURRENT NEED FOR AN ENRICHED CURRICULUM

Conditions have operated to make the limited curriculum of the traditional elementary school increasingly unsatisfactory. Of major importance has been the tendency for social institutions which formerly assumed a large responsibility in the education of children to play a less and less important role. Modification of the home has perhaps been the change of greatest moment. So often have we seen changes in the home, resulting from industrial development with attendant concentration of population and influence on the employment of women,

increase the educational load of the school that the point need not be developed here. Suffice it to call attention to the great limitation on the educational function of the home exerted by changing economic conditions which no longer permit the child to learn by working side by side with his parents. Similarly, modifications have come in community organization, in the church, and in other social agencies which vitally affect the scope of educational opportunity needed.

As these changes have occurred, the American people have shown in a variety of ways that they expect the school to take over and serve a larger role in the complexity of modern living than was assumed under simpler conditions. Demands for instruction in health, physical education, character, safety, citizenship, and similar areas are but indications of this expectation. Even under such pressure the school is far from exerting the leadership in social development which may reasonably be expected of it. This extension of function has far-reaching implications for the enrichment of the curriculum.

At the same time it has come to be recognized that the idea upon which the older curriculum was based—that is, that the elementary school should provide for the mastery of tools and facts which later will be used in the secondary school or in life out of school—was largely fallacious. It is seen that social understanding and sensitivity, methods of work, and attitudes begin to develop while the child is in the elementary school and must have attention there if optimum growth is to be accomplished; and likewise that the secondary school must assume some responsibility for mastery of tools and facts since there is a continuing need for improvement in such abilities. Thus the untenable dichotomy between skill and fact on the one hand and understanding and attitude on the other has been largely broken down. This places a demand on the elementary-school curriculum for a much broader experience than has been provided traditionally.

The factor which has perhaps exerted the greatest influence in the direction of curriculum enrichment has been the increased recognition of individual differences among pupils. The traditional curriculum was developed on the basic assumption that each grade should represent a level or standard of achievement, and that the range of achievement on each grade level should approximate the difference between the particular grade standard and the one above it. Many administrative devices were put into effect to try to make practice conform to this assumption. Semiannual and in some cases quarterly promotion was a popular means of seeking to accomplish uniform achievement. But as the results of these devices were studied it became increasingly evident that the basic assumption did not hold in practice. So great are the differences in ability between pupils, and so great the differ-

ences in the various abilities of an individual pupil, that invariably wide differences occur within a grade group however the group is selected.

The extent of individual differences within instructional groups made it obvious that many pupils were not challenged to do their best work. The result was a development which is most frequently thought of as curriculum enrichment—that is, extension of the requirements for the so-called “basic” curriculum to require higher standards for the more able students. Some of the ways in which this was done will be examined later.

As indicated above, the conventional grade-standard curriculum was probably as inadequate for the pupils of less than average ability as it was for the more capable. Being planned for the average pupil, the work was as poorly adjusted to pupils on the lower end of the scale as to those of superior ability. The pupils of less than average ability frequently had their offering reduced largely to abstractions, the type of curriculum with which they were least able to deal. Thus, when they really needed more firsthand experience involving objective materials—an enriched curriculum—they were provided the opposite.

Shortages in educational opportunities which have been revealed by study of the interests and needs of *children* have also contributed to emphasis on curriculum enrichment. Only with great difficulty has the attention of educational workers been directed specifically to the children being educated. In much curriculum planning there has been an assumption, frequently not recognized, that the needs for education can be determined largely, if not entirely, from analysis of subject fields. As a result, the curriculum has tended to be a subject curriculum and the experiences provided therein have been circumscribed by subject boundaries. Study of children revealed other needs which should be met and interests which merit cultivation. Perhaps the most significant enrichment resulting from this influence has been in the realm of the creative arts. Dramatization, singing, composition of poetry and music, painting, sculpturing, and engaging in handicrafts provide evidence of the enrichment which has been thus accomplished.

These, then, are factors of major importance in bringing a demand for curriculum enrichment. The need is a pressing one which can be met only thru careful study, extensive planning, and great insight. Practical attacks on the problem have varied greatly in form and rest on widely divergent points of view.

METHODS OF ENRICHING THE CONVENTIONAL CURRICULUM

In spite of many shortcomings, the conventional curriculum operative in American schools at present is greatly enriched over the tradi-

tional curriculum of earlier years. The methods most generally employed in an effort to accomplish improved opportunities are considered herewith.

Addition of subjects—As already pointed out, the subject pattern of the curriculum has greatly influenced curriculum development. Because subjectmatter in a particular field is delimited with considerable clarity, the simplest way in which to meet new needs as they arose or to care for shortages as they became evident was to add new subjects. Thus the historical development of the elementary-school curriculum can be described in no small part in terms of the subjects added from time to time. Development moved from the point at which major emphasis was placed on reading, writing, spelling, and arithmetic, to the inclusion of courses in art, music, health, physical education, science, history, geography, citizenship, safety, character, and other fields. This addition of subjects unquestionably provided desirable curriculum enrichment.

However, certain larger considerations should be accorded attention in relation to this method of curriculum enrichment. The point of major importance is the effect of the method on the curriculum as a whole. Specialists in various fields have guarded zealously the time allotment for their respective subjects and have stood vigorously against encroachment by other fields. The result has been twofold. On the one hand, the curriculum plan has become a highly departmentalized affair with few interrelationships; on the other, the curriculum has become a battleground for vested interests, each striving to promote its own individual welfare. The plan of organization thus developed has been such as to make difficult, if not impossible in many cases, consideration of the needs of children and problems of major social consequence. Such needs and problems tend to require subjectmatter from a variety of fields and must be made the center of curriculum organization if they are to be dealt with effectively. This requirement cannot be met with a highly departmentalized plan of curriculum organization. The "patchwork" curriculum resulting from the addition of subjects as the strength of various interests waxed and waned, has no unity and no basic plan of organization. It is better than the earlier curriculum from which it developed, but by making organization of experiences in terms of pupils' needs and purposes largely impossible, it limits severely optimum curriculum enrichment.

A second matter of practical significance is the excessive time limitation placed on any unit of study by a large number of subjects. The extreme result of this situation is seen in schools with more than one grade per teacher, where the longest period is often fifteen or twenty minutes. Such a schedule encourages routine drill, memoriza-

tion, and recitation, and gives little opportunity for well-rounded experiences. The condition has now been reached when it seems entirely impossible to add more subjects to the curriculum as new needs arise. To do so will exert a limiting rather than an enriching influence on the experiences of boys and girls. It seems clear that the method of enrichment which historically has been most widely employed in American schools has no possibility of desirable future use, and in fact has already been used to the point that restriction of children's experiences rather than enrichment has resulted. As shortages are recognized and new needs arise, other means must be employed, and it is to be hoped that some of the damage resulting from the over-addition of subjects may in some way be repaired.

*Modification of content and activities in subjects already taught—*One of the most popular means of seeking curriculum enrichment has been thru the addition or elimination of content and activities in subjects already taught. This method is employed in a great variety of ways and with widely different degrees of systematization. Usually emphasis centers on the preparation of courses of study and lesson plans. Sometimes it is largely a matter of adding supplementary materials so that pupils may read several sources rather than the textbook alone. Again, the list of reference materials may be extended to cover a wider range of difficulty, or the types may be extended to include new materials such as current magazines and newspapers. Activities as well as reference materials may be added. Provision may be made for children to take excursions, participate in group projects, make booklets, conduct experiments, and the like. In the more traditional school, activities have been so closely restricted to reading, memorizing, and reciting that there are many possibilities of such extensions.

Enrichment may also be accomplished by eliminating materials and activities within subjects currently taught. The elimination of arithmetical processes rarely used in life situations, and of problems remote from the experiences of boys and girls, reduced greatly the amount of relatively meaningless activity in the curriculum. The elimination from reading material of content unrelated to children's experiences contributed to the same end. Reduction in the excessive use of drill and recitation activities has been of considerable significance, for as these activities have been brought into direct relationship to the needs and status of the child, much meaningless routine has been eliminated from his experience. Thus enrichment of the curriculum has been assisted, altho perhaps not contributed to directly, by the elimination of meaningless instructional materials and activities.

Modification of the materials of instruction and pupil activities within the subjects ordinarily taught is a valuable means of curriculum enrichment. It cannot lift the curriculum above the limitations set forth in the preceding section, but within those limitations it offers a feasible method of attack. It is of great importance in using this method to see that suggested materials and activities really become a part of the experiences of boys and girls—that is, that the curriculum as well as the course of study is enriched. Not infrequently committees work on suggestions for courses of study which never are used by teachers in the actual development of the curriculum. This fact suggests the importance of employing a general plan of curriculum development which tests all procedures in terms of actual influence on the experiences of boys and girls.

Addition of an activity period—In a number of cases enrichment of the curriculum of the elementary school has been sought thru the addition of an activity period. The general plan is to follow the conventional curriculum organization in subject categories for the major part of the program, but to allow in addition a long period during which a project, unit of work, or activity can be carried forward. The work of this period is usually of the type carried on in more advanced progressive schools. Children make playhouses, plan and develop a school garden, beautify their schoolgrounds, make a study of the community, study boats or Indian life, and in general tend to follow whatever appears to be of greatest interest and concern to them. Emphasis frequently is placed on excursions, constructional activities, and other types of firsthand experience. The activity period is related to the rest of the school experience to varying degrees. In some situations such a period is almost another subject in the curriculum plan. It has little relationship to work in the usual subject fields and sometimes follows a planned sequence of units. Variations are found from this point to the other extreme, in which the activity period develops entirely out of the immediate interests of children and is made the basis of practically all other instruction.

The significance of an activity period as a means of curriculum enrichment is directly dependent upon the way it is developed. In general, such a period permits greater consideration of pupil interests, greater variety of activities, and better adjustment of activities to individual pupil abilities than is provided by the traditional plan of curriculum organization. So far as these provisions are increased thru the activity period, the curriculum is enriched. The procedure has certain practical advantages in situations in which the traditional organization and content of the curriculum are so well entrenched as to make modifications difficult if not impossible. Addition of an activity period in such a sit-

uation does provide at least a portion of the school day in which consideration of pupils' interests and needs is expected, and in which flexibility is recognized as an essential element in the curriculum.

Regulation of pupil progress—A means of curriculum enrichment employed in a variety of ways is regulation of the rate of pupil progress. The form most commonly employed is acceleration, altho frequently this practice is not recognized as being a way of seeking enrichment. When a pupil is accelerated a grade or half grade, it represents a belief of the teacher or administration that the pupil will profit more from the advanced work of the higher grade than from the less advanced work of the grade to which normal progress would assign him.

Another way in which progress is regulated is thru a plan of contracts or assignments whereby each individual moves forward at his own rate. The curriculum is set up in terms of a series of such contracts or individual assignments and each student works thru each assignment, beginning a new assignment as soon as he has completed the one upon which he is working. In this way the more competent student advances more rapidly than the poorer student, and is presumed to gain his enrichment by getting into more advanced work before the less capable student.

The contract plan is frequently arranged so that contracts of varying difficulty may be undertaken by pupils. A basic contract will be required of all pupils. Additional assignments may be done to secure better grades or to meet the special interests of pupils. This variation will be considered further in a later section.

As is true with the other methods of curriculum enrichment which we have considered, the acceptability of modifying the pupil's rate of progress depends upon one's basic concepts of education and curriculum organization. This method rests upon the assumption that the curriculum is composed of so much material or content to be covered, and that education is largely a process of covering this content. Thus, whether it involves acceleration of a grade or half grade or more rapid progress thru a series of assignments, the curriculum plan is laid out in advance in segments and in considerable detail. In acceleration the determining factor is whether the pupil has sufficient command of skills and subjectmatter to skip a segment and move directly to the study of more advanced subjectmatter. In the contract or individual assignment plan, the work is planned in great detail in advance and the pupil simply moves from the mastery of one segment of subjectmatter or one skill to another which appears logically to follow. The amount of material covered in a given period of time is the factor relied on for enrichment.

To the person who believes that American schools should provide every child an educational opportunity adjusted to his needs, interests, and abilities for at least twelve years, acceleration is a makeshift method of enrichment—one which has been used to advantage upon occasion simply because of our failure to deal with the larger problem of broadening the curriculum sufficiently to care for the varying abilities of children in given age groups. It is believed that, as a rule, children should be grouped with others of their own general stage of growth and development, that common interests and similar social and physical development are more important than like ability in reading or arithmetic, and that acceleration in any form tends to overlook these more important factors in grouping. Because of these considerations there are few who would support acceleration as an optimum means of enrichment. Rather, the contention would tend to be that this method is better than no attack on the problem.

The contract or individual assignment is limited by a number of factors. The root of the matter lies in the conception of the school: Is it a place where a group of children live together in a stimulating and worthwhile environment and learn as a result of the quality of their living, or is it a place to master certain bodies of materials and skills which can be used in other life situations? In the one, the group relationship with emphasis on cooperation, citizenship, and problem-solving predominates; in the other, the progress of the individual thru a course of study is accorded major emphasis. Under the former concept it is probable that limited use might be made of individual assignments or contracts to meet individual needs as they arise, but such use would be a small part of the curriculum, would be highly flexible, and would be related to enrichment largely because it would conserve time which could be devoted to other activities.

Ability grouping and special classes—A method more largely of an administrative nature but aiming directly at curriculum enrichment is the classification of pupils in ability groups and special classes. The *pros* and *cons* of ability grouping and special classes have been discussed so extensively that we shall not seek in the limited space here available to go into the general merits of the various plans that have been employed. We shall, however, consider certain general factors involved in the relation of such plans to curriculum enrichment. In some cases ability grouping and special classes are carried on in conjunction with carefully planned curriculum adjustments, while in other cases such adjustments are left entirely for the teacher to make without assistance. It is doubtful if much real change is accomplished in the curriculum except in those situations in which definite plans are worked out for different ability levels and special classes. Even in such

situations the amount of real curriculum enrichment provided is an open question upon which opinions differ sharply.

The position one takes on ability grouping and special classes depends largely on the relative importance he ascribes to homogeneity and heterogeneity of ability for the purposes of instruction. There are unquestionably some activities carried on in school which can be guided more effectively and be better adjusted to individual needs if there is a considerable degree of homogeneity in ability among the pupils involved. This is particularly true of the mastery of skills and techniques. Brighter children require less time than duller children to master a given ability, even tho the two may feel equally the need for the ability. But there also are many activities in which it is desirable to have a wide variety of ability represented in the group. Group projects in which emphasis is on learning to share, to assume responsibility, to work out a plan together, to follow leadership, and to do all the other things required in cooperative group living are promoted thru the presence of different abilities. The bright children must learn to work with the slower children and to appreciate the qualities which the latter have, and the slower pupils must in turn learn to recognize ability which is superior to theirs and to evaluate the suggestions of the more competent.

ENRICHMENT THRU BASIC REORGANIZATION OF THE CURRICULUM

There are many curriculum workers who believe that no adequate program of enrichment can be accomplished in the traditional subject framework of the curriculum. It is contended that methods such as those reviewed above are only further tinkering, and that the result is a more and more unsatisfactory patchwork. To provide adequate educational opportunities for boys and girls in a social setting which requires a direct and immediate relationship between schooling and the needs and problems of living, it is believed that a new basis of curriculum organization is necessary. Unrelated facts, compartmentalized beliefs, isolation of schooling from life situations, subjectmatter set out in advance to be learned, major attention to skills and techniques, and emphasis on specialization are held to be inevitable characteristics of any curriculum organized within the traditional subject framework.

The child-centered curriculum—The movement which has exerted greatest influence in the direction of a comprehensive reorganization of the elementary-school curriculum is the "child-centered" or "activity" curriculum. This movement represents an effort to interpret into educational practice the philosophy of experimentalism. Varying interpretations of the principles involved and the pressure of practical circumstances have led to widely divergent and sometimes conflicting practices within the movement. Major emphasis is placed upon the

child's interests, needs, and purposes, and on the importance of first-hand experiences as a means of learning. The optimum curriculum is held to be possible only as freedom is permitted to organize the curriculum directly in terms of children's interests and needs. Fixed divisions of the curriculum are dispensed with, and the plan of curriculum development becomes a problem for each teacher to work out with his particular group of pupils. Emphasis has been placed upon the restrictive nature of the activities in the traditional curriculum, and upon the need for increasing the variety of activities in which pupils may engage. Constructional, creative, excursionsal, and recreational activities have been accorded greatly increased emphasis over that provided in the traditional school.

It is not our purpose here to undertake a general evaluation of the "activity" curriculum, but rather to look at the movement in terms of the contribution it has made to curriculum enrichment. An impartial judgment will recognize the very significant and far-reaching influence of the movement in liberalizing and enriching the curriculums of even the most traditional schools. There can be little doubt that the movement has done as much as or more than any other influence to help free American schools from the dominance of memorization and vicarious experience. Introduction of subjects such as art and music into the traditional curriculum has been furthered by schools with the activity curriculum demonstrating the value of activities which fall in such subject fields. Just which of the practices introduced under the name of the activity curriculum represent an adequate interpretation of experimentalism, and just what procedures will persist in the evolving curriculum, are open questions, but it appears to be a fact which can be verified by general observation that schools which have undertaken reorganization of the curriculum along the lines of the activity movement have, as a rule, enriched the living of the boys and girls under their care.

The social-centered curriculum—A second movement toward fundamental curriculum reorganization which has become of increasing importance during recent years seeks to develop a "social-centered" or socially oriented program. This movement also involves widely varied practices. The general position accepts many of the points emphasized in the "activity" curriculum, being also an effort to interpret into practice the philosophy of experimentalism, but it holds that the activity curriculum has been so completely absorbed with the interests of children that the equally important factor of the culture and its part in the interactive process of learning has been largely overlooked. According to this position the activity movement is lacking in a social philosophy, and the fundamental curriculum reorganization needed in American

schools can be accomplished only as the individual with his needs and interests is seen in the larger relationships provided by such a philosophy. It is further contended that once an adequate picture is seen of the individual in these social relationships, a basis for a flexible, moving curriculum organization will be available. The lack of some basis of organization is pointed out as an essential weakness of the activity curriculum.

Procedures employed in curriculum programs seeking this social emphasis have involved extended study and analysis both of pupils and of problems and issues of general social significance in the various areas of living. The effort has been to provide a twofold guide whereby the teacher will be in position to apply the criterion of social significance as well as the criterion of pupil purpose and interest.

The principal influence of this movement on curriculum enrichment is in the direction of emphasis on actual problems and issues of living. The curriculum is brought closer to life, with increased concern that pupils come to understand social realities and have as great opportunity as possible to participate in socially worthwhile enterprises. The variety of reference materials and activities is increased as the foregoing emphasis is made operative.

This brief review of major movements toward curriculum reorganization makes evident the importance of evaluating any specific plan of curriculum enrichment in terms of the general approach which is employed in the development of the curriculum. Under each plan of enrichment are assumptions concerning the general type of curriculum which should be developed, and the curriculum worker should be assured that these assumptions are acceptable before adopting a particular plan.

IMPORTANCE OF A UNIFIED CURRICULUM

In concluding this chapter, we turn attention to a matter of major importance in all phases of curriculum development. Whatever plan of curriculum organization is employed—whether subject, activity, or core—it is essential, if optimum enrichment is to be accomplished, that the entire life and program of the school be developed as a unified whole which is designed directly to provide a rounded program of living for boys and girls. Emphasis on specific parts or aspects of the curriculum without reference to the whole will inevitably lead to maladjustment, disproportionate emphases, ignored interrelationships, and overlooked needs of children. This is a matter of special importance because of the patchwork nature of the traditional curriculum and the resulting disintegrative influence on the education of children. Plans presumed to provide curriculum enrichment should not be permitted to perpetuate this situation. Cross currents and conflicts must be eliminated, and inter-

relationships established among all phases of the curriculum if essential continuity of experience is to be assured.

It is of major importance, therefore, that any specific plan of curriculum enrichment be a part of a larger program of curriculum development. In this way, primary consideration may be devoted to the adequacy of the entire life and program of the school, and specific plans may be made to contribute to the support of the entire program. Optimum curriculum enrichment thus becomes possible.

IN the newer practices of elementary schools the individual is introduced to a broad, rich environment that presents for him many challenging disturbances; for he must face effectively a great variety of real-life situations in order to become integrated within himself and with his environment. No limited concept of a curriculum as organized within compartments will suffice. No narrow concept of a school as operative within four walls will suffice. No restricted intelligence about conditions of modern society will be acceptable. Rather, only the realities of society, the total life and culture of the individual, a theory of multiple learning, and the most comprehensive view of experience will meet the need. . . . Such activities as participation in school community life, discussion groups on elementary social and economic problems, and field trips to study industrial processes, housing conditions, or the machinery of government help to build a realistic appreciation.—Wrightstone, J. Wayne, *Appraisal of Newer Elementary School Practices*, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938, p. 139. (Quoted by permission of the publishers.)

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CHAPTER II

APPROACHES TO CURRICULUM ENRICHMENT

EDITORIAL COMMENT

THE INTRODUCTORY CHAPTER has discussed the modern conception of the curriculum, the current need for curriculum enrichment, and the general methods which have been used to bring about enrichment. These methods include the addition of subjects, the modification of content and activities in subjects already taught, the addition of an activity period, individualized assignments, ability grouping, special classes, and finally, basic reorganization of the curriculum in terms of child interests and activities or social enterprises and problems. This chapter illustrates several of these methods.

While there are differences of opinion as to the relative merits of these approaches, each one may have value in particular school situations. The trend today is away from the traditional subject-centered curriculum and toward a curriculum organized around child needs and social living. Yet many schools are able to move only slowly in this direction. Specific approaches to enrichment should harmonize with the general curriculum plan adopted. If the general plan is inadequate, it should be modified as soon as possible.

The first article in this chapter, by Jones, outlines a plan of instruction in which the direct teaching of subjects is accompanied by units of work that cut across subject lines. In the next article Jump tells how separate subjects were correlated with the social studies as a center. Farthing and Gorman offer suggestions for integrating material from several subject fields about a central theme. Willcockson describes the reorganization of a school program in terms of children's activities.

The next three articles are concerned with programs of curriculum study and revision involving whole school systems. Falk reports such a study in a city system and emphasizes the development of new courses in social studies and science. Broadbuss and Norris outline city-wide curriculum projects in English and science. Wein's article shows how the teachers of a county school system cooperated in enriching the science program.

The last two contributions are quite different from the others. Ziegfeld tells how the art needs of a community were studied in developing a functional program of art education. Chalfant describes the introduction and teaching of French in the upper grades.

Various approaches to curriculum enrichment are discussed also in the references listed on page 303.—*Editorial Committee.*

A COMBINATION OF UNIT TEACHING AND SUBJECT TEACHING IN A PLATOON SYSTEM

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AMONG RECENT DEVELOPMENTS in educational thinking, one of the most significant is the concept of the teacher as a guide to the child in his growth and adaptive processes. The acceptance of this notion of the teacher's position in the educational scheme places a tremendous responsibility upon all who are connected with a school system. It involves, first of all, a recognition of the needs and interests of the child as a basic consideration. Second, there must be an administrative framework within which the child's interests can be discovered and extended and his needs can be met. Third, there must be selection and rejection of materials, equipment, and teaching procedures in terms of (1) the relative significance of their contributions to child growth, and (2) the limitations which exist in any given school situation.

In a constantly changing world, with its ever increasing cultural accumulations and complexities, the need for a continuous program of selection is evident. The possible activities for the child are countless. Potential subjectmatter is boundless. Both are being continually increased as a result of the scientific research, the discoveries, the industrial developments, and the creative endeavors of man. These conditions, together with a growing conception of the function of the school, make it imperative that every school system maintain a continuous program of curriculum revision.

Curriculum revision in its broadest aspect is a continuous reorganization of the whole school program in terms of those experiences of childhood which come within the province of the school. It is a matter of improving every school factor involved in child development thru a series of guided experiences. From this point of view there are no such activities as are commonly designated as "extracurricular" or "cocurricular." Any activity or material having a justifiable educative value becomes a definite element of pupil experience, and as such is a part of the school's curriculum. The only justifiable basis for any of the activities or materials which are included as a part of the developmental offering of the school is the needs of the child. These needs are conditioned by a great many factors in the past experience, present environment, and future plans of the child.

The program of instruction in the elementary schools of Fort Smith, Arkansas, is planned with two main purposes in view: (1) to provide the child with an environment conducive to the development of the

social traits and attitudes which are generally agreed to be essential for successful living in a democratic society; and (2) to provide those experiences which will lay a foundation in the skills and understandings which are essential for continued intellectual growth and cultural enjoyment. While not minimizing the importance of such fundamental skills as reading, writing, spelling, oral and written language, and use of number, the program also provides a definite series of enriching experiences in music, art, science, the library, the auditorium, and physical education. The platoon school organization is used, the skill subjects being taught in the homeroom and the more specialized content subjects being taught in separate rooms by special teachers. A brief description of each distinct phase of the school program follows.

UNITS OF WORK

A large portion, tho not all, of the materials of instruction is organized into units of work adapted to each of the various grade levels. In organizing these units the teachers take their leads from the various aspects of social living with which children come in daily contact. This is sometimes referred to as the "social functions approach" to the problems of instructional organization.

Units of work on the primary level—In the primary grades the teacher takes her cue from the child's experience and contacts in the home, school, and community. Examples of leads around which may be organized meaningful situations for the primary child are: using educational facilities; taking part in recreational endeavors; protecting life from accidents in the home, school, and community; practicing health habits in home and at school; preventing disease in home, school, and community; using medical and hospital facilities; planning and selecting a balanced diet; conserving foods produced in the community; using transportation facilities; using mail service; beautifying home, school, and community; and participating in religious activities.

The chief responsibility for planning and organizing units of work in the areas suggested above lies with the teacher of the regular or skill subjects—that is, the homeroom teacher. Having each of two groups of children for half of the school day gives this teacher adequate opportunity for directing these socializing experiences in an effective manner. If and when leads develop in the direction of the more highly specialized fields, the teachers of special subjects are called upon to make whatever contribution seems advisable from their respective fields. Many significant leads are omitted from the manuals on unit materials, because it is felt that they can be more adequately developed under the direction of teachers with specialized training.

In planning units of work the teachers are urged to use the greatest possible amount of originality and initiative, and to adapt the activities and materials of instruction to fit the needs of each particular group. There is no definite sequence of units suggested for them, and no ready-made units are planned in advance. Each unit grows from a combination of the needs and interests of the children and the instructional materials available. The manual is merely a source book to help the teacher in her planning.

Units of work on the intermediate level—A similar plan is followed with respect to the development of units on the intermediate grade level. Among the leads around which units of work may be organized in these grades are the following: maintaining personal and community health; enjoying our surroundings and making them more attractive; developing and using communication; developing and using transportation; protecting life and property from floods and fires; protecting life from accidents; protecting the public from crime; providing the necessities of food, shelter, and clothing; participating in educational and recreational activities; developing and using educational and recreational facilities; conserving social, moral, and esthetic values thru religion.

On this level, consideration is given to the child's continually expanding contacts with presentday living. An attempt is made to guide him thru a series of experiences which will make him progressively more aware of the problems of community living and progressively more capable of finding satisfactory solutions to those problems. Here, as in the primary grades, the controlling factors are the needs and interests of the child together with the available instructional materials.

THE DIRECT TEACHING PROGRAM

It is recognized that the informal type of organization which characterizes the unit of work cannot provide for every child the proper sequence of skills and abilities in all the important areas of human culture and achievement. Therefore, it is necessary to have a program of direct teaching, the main responsibility of which is to provide for continuous growth in those areas which are not adequately cared for in the units of work. Since in most cases the unit of work does not occupy more than one-fourth of the school day, ample time is left for a systematic program of directed activities in areas which demand a more highly sequential treatment.

Language arts—The language arts field is the chief medium for developing the units of work. Listening, reading, talking, discussing, and writing are all involved in these units. One advantage of the unit organization is that it provides a desirable situation wherein the language arts can function to better advantage than in more formal

school situations. At the same time, the technics used in the units of work do not guarantee a definite sequence of language experience or a continuous growth in functional language. For this reason some direct teaching of language seems essential. As the child uses his language skills in meaningful situations, he recognizes a need for continued improvement. The teacher also becomes more conscious of the child's need because of the highly individual nature of his contribution to the unit. This recognition of individual need gives the teacher and her pupils the dominant purpose necessary for economical learning of the more complex language skills in a directed study period.

Arithmetic—Little emphasis is given to the more formal types of arithmetic in the primary grades. Some attention is given to simple addition and subtraction combinations at about the second-grade level, but no formal drill is given in the first grade. The child's number experiences in the first grade are wholly incidental and are brought out in relation to his schoolroom environment. As the child advances to higher grade levels, an attempt is made to follow a definite sequence of arithmetical skills and concepts according to their presumed difficulty. For example, since certain division skills are easier for the child to master than certain long and complicated problems in addition, the former are introduced before the latter. It is not advocated that teachers attempt to secure complete mastery of any given type of arithmetical skill before introducing another type.

Music—Next to the language skills and number concepts, music perhaps occupies the place of major importance in the lives of most children in and out of school. Music instruction in the elementary schools begins in the first grade. There is a definite program of such instruction under the direction of a teacher who has had special training in public school music. This teacher is charged with the responsibility of providing a series of planned experiences in music which will promote continuous growth on the part of the child in the production and appreciation of music. These planned experiences may be roughly divided into three types: (1) experiences which are designed to provide growth in singing; (2) experiences which are designed to provide growth in ability to listen to music understandingly and appreciatively; and (3) experiences which are designed to provide opportunities for the child to express himself creatively in music. The various types of musical experience are interwoven and are not generally presented as involving separate skills. In addition to the program just indicated, all pupils who wish to do so may become members of the elementary-school band.

Naturally, a great deal of the child's musical experience is in connection with units of work developed under the guidance of the regular-

subjects teacher. When definite leads develop which indicate that an important contribution can be made from the area of music, the regular-subjects teacher and the music teacher plan cooperatively for such experiences. When not assisting in such relationships, the music teacher is free to provide her own program with emphasis on the best known music sequences. It is also quite common for units of work to have their origin in the music classes. The musical observance of special holiday seasons, such as Thanksgiving, Christmas, and Easter, and the preparation of operettas or other types of school programs, often lead to the development of units of work related to these activities.

Art—Art experiences also have a definite place in the program of the elementary school. These experiences may be roughly classified in two groups: (1) those provided in connection with the development of units of work; and (2) those planned by the art teacher to provide for continuous growth of the child's ability to express himself thru the various art media. Any good unit of work involves certain aspects of art. In such situations a good teacher is concerned with the child's use of materials on the highest artistic level of which he is capable. Within the unit, art becomes an aid to the child in the expression and illustration of his ideas. A great deal of the art teacher's time is taken up in guiding the child in such activities as making posters, charts, and friezes which are the direct outgrowth of his participation in other phases of the school program.

The chief consideration in this work is not the results which appear on paper, but what goes on in the child's mind while he is getting these results. The art experiences, therefore, are designed to introduce a wide range of subjectmatter and to capitalize upon the art elements which exist in all phases of the child's experience, both in and out of school.

Elementary science—The science experiences of the elementary-school child are planned around a few major problems which are heavily weighted with both natural science and social science implications. Some of these problems are: enjoying and protecting our animal friends; living with plants all about us; observing and recording the changes of weather and seasons; providing our community with food, shelter, and clothing; making and using maps; discovering how people travel in different parts of the world; adapting dress to the needs of varying climates and occupations; using plants, animals, and minerals to meet human needs; using machinery to make more goods available; discovering the natural forces which affect ways of living; and learning the story of our earth.

In guiding children thru experiences indicated by such problems, the teacher of elementary science works in very close cooperation with the

teacher of the regular subjects. A comparison of these problems with those indicated earlier for units of work will show a very close relationship between the two lists. In many cases the science teacher is concerned only with the purely scientific aspects of the unit being developed in the regular-subjects room. At other times the science teacher is free to plan her own program of guided experiences within the area assigned to her.

Physical education—The physical education program in the Fort Smith elementary schools is designed to meet the needs of growing children for wholesome physical activities, and at the same time to provide experiences which will carry over into their leisure hours. The activities are selected on the basis of their suitability for actual participation by children at the various age levels represented. The following types of activities are included: mass games, hunting games, squad games, highly organized games, relay races, individual athletic contests, gymnastic stunts, fundamental skills and correctives, organized playday programs, and rhythemics, including singing games, folk dances, natural dances, character dances, clogs, and free rhythm.

Library—In recent years our elementary schools have experienced an unusual development in the field of library materials and their use. It is believed that modern educational trends necessitate the library as an integral part of the school. Today elementary-school children, like high-school and university students, are encouraged to read, observe, experiment, investigate, and organize the information thus acquired. The elementary-school library, therefore, becomes the laboratory of the school and provides a natural center for integrating the school program. The following types of activities and situations are provided therein: caring for and handling books, learning how to open and use books, learning the meaning of book classification, developing a suitable daily routine, using reference materials, using the bulletin board, providing and using suitable magazines, reading for pleasure, introducing a new book, reading for information, using the library in connection with class work, telling stories and enjoying poems, using the library and special days, keeping a check on the reading done, selecting library materials, introducing authors and illustrators, cataloging books, and using the card catalog.

Auditorium—The auditorium of the elementary school also is an important socializing and integrating center. The daily auditorium period provides an opportunity for the child to bring together and present to others the results of his experiences in all other phases of the school program and in his out-of-school contacts. The emphasis of the auditorium activities is upon group participation, oral expression, and social experiences of a distinctly character-building nature. The directed audi-

torium experiences are concerned with such activities as pantomime, creative dramatizations, pageantry, formal plays, puppets, motion pictures, story-telling, poetry-reading, formal and informal talks, radio broadcasts, group singing, special-day programs, operettas, folk dances, and club programs. The main consideration of the teacher in guiding these activities is to provide situations in which the child may express himself freely, willingly, and joyfully. The actual participation of the child far outweighs in importance the quality of the finished product.

PROVIDING GUIDANCE FOR TEACHERS

The above plan of organization is the result of five years of intensive work on the part of the entire staff of the elementary schools. During this time a definite plan has been outlined for each year, placing the emphasis at points agreed upon by all workers. All teachers in the elementary schools have made contributions thru the various committees to which they were assigned. The committee work has resulted in manuals of guidance for teachers in all the phases of instruction indicated in the above discussion. These manuals are used as source materials to which the teachers may go for suggested solutions of their curriculum problems. They are not courses of study, in the traditional sense, but are collections of reports written by the teachers themselves on the basis of their daily classroom experiences.

THE new school, on the other hand, encourages the child to be a distinct personality, an individualist, to believe in his ability—but of course not to an unjustifiable degree. It sets up situations which provide constant practice in cooperative living. It encourages activities in which he can make a personal contribution to group enterprises; in which he has social experiences, graded to fit his level of social development; in which he feels himself an accepted and respected member of a society of which he himself approves.—Rugg, Harold O., and Shumaker, Ann, *The Child-Centered School*, World Book Co., 1928, p. 65. (Quoted by permission of the publishers.)

USING SOCIAL STUDIES AS A CENTER FOR THE
INTEGRATION OF SUBJECTS

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THIS ARTICLE tells how a unified course in social studies was used as an integrating center in an elementary-school classroom. The social studies program was not the kind which overemphasizes contemporary problems and neglects the influence of the past on the present. Rather, it was an organization of history and geography materials in which the problems that have faced social groups, together with their solutions or attempted solutions, were seen in proper perspective, and in which the influences of the past on the present were viewed with careful attention to time sense, origins, and developments.

The term "integration" is here used broadly to mean a bringing of related materials and activities in various subject fields to bear on a central core of subjectmatter or field of primary interest. The purpose of such integration is to give greater homogeneity to the concepts and ideas developed by children, to foster comprehension by presenting subjects in their manifold interrelations rather than in isolation, and to enable children to see facts and ideas in their natural setting, in their developmental sequence, and in a full frame of reference. By this means it is believed that the dynamic life-quality of subjectmatter may be retained, and that the personalities of pupils may be enriched so that they will be better able to cope with the problems of their own times. The specific plan of integration described here was a type often referred to as "correlation," since each subject field except history and geography retained its separate identity and had its own place on the daily schedule.

This integrated program was used with a group of sixth- and seventh-grade pupils in a four-teacher elementary school—seventeen pupils in the sixth grade and twenty-one in the seventh. Their IQ's as measured by a standard group test of mental ability ranged from 70 to 124, with a mean of 104. Their chronological ages ranged from eleven to fourteen years. The children lived in an island community in Talbot County, Maryland, and altho the island is connected with the mainland by a bridge, the children lacked many of the desirable social and cultural experiences which are found in other less isolated communities in the same school system. Previous to this school experience these pupils had not been taught by means of an integrated program of instruction, but by a program in which each subject was presented in isolation.

THE PROGRAM IN GENERAL

The daily schedule was arranged so as to allow a large block of time for the subject fields included in the integrated program. The first hour of the day was devoted to social studies—a combination of Old World background history and the geography of the lands and peoples considered therein. No basal texts were used, but thru the use of study guides, outlines, and problems the materials from several geography and history texts were integrated.

Following this came a forty-five-minute period given over to literature. The material studied during this period included literature written during the eras being considered, and literature written later but referring particularly to the lands and peoples being discussed in the social studies period. This material was selected, of course, with consideration for the maturity level of the pupils.

The art period followed the literature period. Here the instruction consisted of actual manipulation of materials in drawing, sketching, carving, and painting, and in making objects. It also included appreciation lessons based on pictures of the architecture and sculpture of the historical period being discussed.

The materials and activities of the music period were related to the peoples being studied thru the use of songs based on legends and stories of those peoples. Choral speech and choral reading were employed in interpreting literary materials related to those countries which in their older civilizations used choric groups to express religious and patriotic feelings. Musical instruments representing those fashioned and used by certain ancient peoples were constructed during several of the music periods.

During the time devoted to reading the pupils were supplied with numerous books—both factual and literary—dealing with the peoples and times studied earlier in the day. The classroom library was supplemented by books transported by the teacher from the central library located in the county seat. The reading periods met the usual requirements established for library periods. On some days the period was used entirely to stimulate the children to read by introducing them to certain texts, by suggesting the contents of certain books, by raising questions which the material in the books would answer, and by giving the pupils just enough of the stories contained in certain books to whet their reading appetites. On other days the entire period was given over to library reading on the part of the pupils. Sometimes the teacher read to the pupils for a whole period. At still other times the children received instruction in reading and in library skills so that they would be better able to utilize the materials found in history and geography texts, books of a literary nature,

anthologies, atlases, reference books, and books containing collections of pictures of paintings, architecture, and sculpture.

The instruction in English, which more than met the requirements of the course of study so far as types of activity and achievement in skills were concerned, was based on the materials used and the activities engaged in by the pupils during all other periods of the day. In one sense the work in English was the crown of each day's work in all other subjects. Since the major portion of each day was spent in assimilating new facts, clarifying ideas, and building meaningful concepts, the pupils were well equipped with ideas to express when the time for a skills period in English arrived. While the other subjects in the integrated program served to establish countless impressions and develop numerous ideas, the English program served as a vehicle for organizing and expressing those ideas in many different forms. In this way, purposeful yet systematic training was given in storytelling, conversation, paragraph construction, outlining, note-taking, the writing of diaries, play-writing, dramatic expression, and book-reporting.

It will be noted that certain important subjects in the elementary-school curriculum have not been mentioned in the preceding description of the integrated program. Their omission does not mean that these subjects were not taught at this time to these children. Arithmetic and elementary science, for example, were taught daily but were correlated with the content of the social studies only when the nature and development of these subjects showed a close relationship to the history of certain ancient civilizations.

AN ILLUSTRATION OF THE PROGRAM

To make clearer the picture of the integrated curriculum presented in general terms above, a more detailed view, with attention to actual materials and activities used, is given briefly here. This example of integration has been selected from a part of the first semester's work in which the "Life of the Ancient Greeks" was the integrating center. Practically all class activities, materials, and learnings were focused on this topic during the time allotted to it.

Social studies—The story of the Greeks was divided into five major periods: the Mythical Period of Early Greece, the Rise of Sparta, Early Days of Athens, the Golden Age, and the Decline of Greek Power. The history of these periods, together with the geography of Greece and other lands with which the Greeks had contact, was taken as the basis of study. The sketchy treatment of this phase of history offered by most elementary-school texts was supplemented by other readings and by the teacher, so that the pupils were given intimate and detailed knowledge of the lives of the early Greeks and their

neighbors. Emphasis was placed on the social history and cultural development of these peoples.

Literature—Myths and legends portraying the life and the religious and scientific beliefs of the early Greeks were read and discussed. Legends related to Jason, Heracles, Theseus, Oedipus and the Sphinx, Deucalion and Pyrrha, Damon and Pythias, and Croesus were read. The pupils enjoyed reading and hearing read children's editions of the *Odyssey* and the *Iliad*. In addition, the pupils experienced some of the poetry of Sappho, Alcaeus, and Simonides; stories of the tragedies of Aeschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides; stories of the comedies of Aristophanes; simplified versions of Herodotus' *History of the Persian War* and Thucydides' *History of the Peloponnesian War*. The children also read the biography of Alcibiades from *Plutarch's Lives*, and simple biographies of Socrates, Plato, Demosthenes, and Diogenes. Xenophon's *Retreat of the Ten Thousand* was also used successfully with these boys and girls.

Art (manipulation and appreciation)—The activities included in the art periods were drawing, sketching, and painting objects and scenes related to Greek life; making friezes which were used for decorative purposes in the classroom; making models of Greek boats; sculpturing from soap and white wax candles some of the principal buildings of Athens, with particular reference to the types of columns used in architecture, and reproducing in the same media some of the outstanding examples of Greek sculpture; making scrolls; and making booklets in which were mounted drawings and pictures, with each item properly labeled and explained in accompanying paragraphs. In addition to the activities in which materials were manipulated and out of which grew some objective representation of ideas gained thru the study of Greek life, there were appreciation lessons based on pictures of Greek architecture, including several presentday buildings which have been designed according to the Greek traditions. There were also lessons based on pictures relating to Greek life and customs, such as "A Reading from Homer" and "Nausicaa and Her Maidens."

Reading—Space does not permit the listing of all the books used during the reading periods. More than sixty books were transported from the central library and made available to the pupils. In addition to this source of reading material, there were numerous sample copies of readers and supplementary history texts which had been placed in the classroom by the supervisor. These contained valuable information on the topic under discussion, and since the material was scattered thruout the texts, it afforded excellent motivation for lessons in developing the skills and habits involved in locating, selecting, evaluating, and organizing materials for specific purposes.

OUTCOMES OF THE PROGRAM

The program of integration which has been described was planned and administered for the purpose of teaching desirable information and skills, developing understandings and concepts, and enriching the personalities of the boys and girls in the class. As in practically all programs of instruction, many of the desired outcomes were intangible and not subject to accurate and objective measurement. Yet it is gratifying to the teacher and to the school administration to realize that certain measurable traits showed marked growth. While there was no control group with which to match the group being studied, the results achieved by this group as measured by certain standard tests were compared with the results achieved by all other sixth and seventh grades in the school system, and were also compared with the test norms for achievement and for growth. In Old World background knowledge, in literature, in geography, and in reading, the experimental group was found to be superior to the other sixth and seventh grades, and its achievement exceeded the grade norms and growth norms of the tests used.¹ Also in terms of pupil enjoyment and ease of adjustment it is felt that the program of integration was highly successful.

¹ Branom, M. E., and others. *Unit Scales of Attainment* (Divisions 2 and 3, Form B). Minneapolis, Minn.: Educational Test Bureau, 1933.

Renfrow, O. W. *The Renfrow Sixth Grade History Test* (Tests I and II, Form B). Cincinnati, Ohio: C. A. Gregory Co., 1930.

Wiedefeld, M. Theresa, and Walther, E. C. *Wiedefeld-Walther Geography Test for Grades 4 to 8*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1931.

THE schools, as one factor of this educational process, are simply institutions specialized to the task of helping youth to find short cuts to the world's wisdom. They aid him to organize his experiences; to recognize relationships and sequences in natural phenomena; to understand, as much as he may, the behavior of his fellows in order that he may cooperate—or refuse to cooperate—with them.—Marshall, Leon C., and Goetz, Rachel M., *Curriculum-Making in the Social Studies*, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1936, p. 1. (Quoted by permission of the publishers.)

SUCCESSFULLY INITIATING AN INTEGRATIVE PROGRAM

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THERE IS probably no activity in the field of teaching in which the caution "make haste slowly" applies more pertinently than in the introduction of an integrative program of instruction. Several years of experience in assisting both teachers in training and experienced teachers who were desirous of learning how to conduct such a program have led the writers to place this item foremost in their list of observations.

Obviously, success for the experiment requires more than the mere heeding of this caution. There must be a plan of procedure which one can follow with confidence and assurance. It is hoped that the observations on this problem which are presented here will be of value to those who must assist in initiating integrative programs of instruction.

Need for orientation of teachers—A plan which will initiate a teaching program that is integrative in purpose cannot cast aside all equipment, courses of study, and experience found useful in the past. It is desirable to build upon that which is already available. A chaotic state is almost inevitable if teachers with little preparation for a program of this kind are required to operate one of pure integration. A plan, then, to incorporate a new philosophy into classroom practices must look first to orienting the teacher upon whom its success will ultimately depend. Wise administrators who hold hopes for extending integrative programs understand that there is more in the issue than indoctrination of teachers with the philosophy and values of integration. Two major problems will immediately present themselves for solution. The first of these has to do with adjusting teachers to the new idea. The second involves adaptation of the curriculum so as to produce the desired degree of integration. The latter is the problem dealt with in the remainder of this discussion.

The nature of the program—First of all, it is necessary to have a core for the program. This core or emphasis is essential because there must be some one thing which serves as a selector of subjectmatter and activities. A definite trend at present is toward the selection of a core from the social studies. However, the core does not have to be the same in every grade or in every unit of any one grade. Indeed,

it is advisable to give different emphases from time to time. In one unit there may be a historical theme dominant; in another, a geographical theme may receive primary consideration. Obviously, the history and geography of the same area must be considered in any unit of this kind. It would be futile, for example, to attempt the joint use of the history of the United States and the geography of the Nile Valley.

A historical theme involving events and periods presupposes a geographic setting. This fact is the point from which one proceeds in planning for integrative materials based on the social studies. It is unwise at first to include many subjects. It is advisable to increase the number of fields only as the directing teacher is able to see their place in the integrative scheme. Unless the experimenter can see clearly how each subject introduced will further the integration of the pupils concerned, the attainment of subjectmatter goals thru correlation is likely to be the only result. It is extremely important that those making first steps to realize an integrative plan of instruction should limit themselves to one major field.

To repeat, ambition to try a new plan is commendable, but unless the experimenter moves slowly he may attempt more than can be successfully carried to completion. It is better that the classroom worker first evaluate the results of a modest but successful attempt. Failure in the initial trial may play havoc with future effort and progress.

An illustrative unit—A brief description of a unit in which an integrative organization was tried may help to clarify the foregoing point.

The history curriculum for the Advanced Unit (Grade VI) of the University of Missouri Laboratory School included the Louisiana Purchase. History at once became the main core of the integrated unit. Factors of history involved are quite evident, but there are also geographical factors which contribute to the understandings anticipated from a study of the Louisiana Purchase. Rivers, plains, boundaries, natural resources, and natural environment were selected as important for a better understanding of the historical event. These were learned not as mere facts of geography, but rather in relation to their importance in the Louisiana Purchase.

This combination of history and geography was all that was attempted in the way of integration at the first teaching. A second teaching of the unit viewed English as another field which could emphasize the understandings hoped for. Written and oral English in the form of original dramatizations depicting scenes from Jefferson's and Napoleon's part in the purchase, life in the area, and strife at New Orleans were introduced. Letters and messages were composed for use in the dramatizations. Reports and book reviews also resulted. An assembly program utilized many of these efforts to good advantage.

A third teaching of the unit included art activities as still another means by which the anticipated outcomes could be realized. Production of Mississippi scenes, pictorial maps, and costumes had a part in giving reality to the study.

After three different experiences with teaching the unit, its integrative possibilities are not yet exhausted. Music and physical education would contribute much and will ultimately be included.

Conclusion—This description is not intended to be inclusive, but merely to show how integrative organization can progress. The writers hope to leave with those who plan to initiate integrative programs an appreciation of the importance of proceeding only as fast as teachers can actually break down subjectmatter lines and select relevant material from the various fields. "Make haste slowly" must be observed if successful integrative programs are to evolve from present curriculums which consist of subjectmatter fields treated in isolation.

THE titles we find in a school program, such as history, geography, algebra, botany, assume that learning is already at hand, set in proper summaries and needing only to be divided up into proper doses. . . . It is only too common to hear students (in name) say in reference to some subject that they "have *had* it." The use of the past tense is only too significant. The subject is over and done with; it is very much in the past. Every intelligent observer of the subsequent career of those who come from our schools deplores the fact that they do not carry away from school into later life abiding intellectual interests in what they have studied. . . .

The failure is again due, I believe, to segregation of subjects. A pupil can say he has "had" a subject, because the subject has been treated as if it were complete in itself, beginning and terminating within limits fixed in advance. A reorganization of subject-matter which takes account of out-leadings into the wide world of nature and man, of knowledge and of social interests and uses, cannot fail save in the most callous and intellectually obdurate to awaken some permanent interest and curiosity.—Dewey, John, *The Way Out of Educational Confusion*, Harvard University Press, 1931, p. 13, 37-38. (Quoted by permission of the publishers.)

REORGANIZING A SCHOOL PROGRAM ON A FUNCTIONAL BASIS

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ELEVEN YEARS AGO the elementary teachers of the McGuffey School at Miami University asked their director to help them reorganize the work of the school because they were becoming more and more dissatisfied with its effectiveness. Each teacher realized that she was an isolated unit, carrying on her own work without thought of the continuous growth of children during the entire elementary-school period. She taught the three R's and any other subject that appealed to her. As a result, one teacher was stressing science, but had no work in history and only an occasional lesson in geography. Another teacher stressed poetry, but had no science. In an intermediate grade, history, geography, and civics were taught in parallel but unrelated courses with subjectmatter logically arranged. Next door, history and geography were taught in alternating courses with somewhat related subjectmatter, psychologically arranged.

The teachers felt the need for a more effective, functional organization of school activities. Some teachers wanted a reorganization of school subjects with a definite amount of subjectmatter planned for each grade. Others thought that a mere reorganization of subjects would not touch the root of their problems; they wanted the work of the school organized in terms of the normal activities of childhood. They insisted upon a broad, well-balanced, dynamic program that would emphasize understandings thru firsthand experience.

To bring about the desired reorganization of the curriculum, the teachers were organized in committees. The director of the school met with the supervisor and teachers in weekly meetings during the first year and whenever the committees needed him during the following years. Subjectmatter specialists were invited to participate when the teachers required their help.

Developing a common point of view—As a first step in the program of reorganization, the director helped the group develop a common philosophy of education. He led the teachers in discussions of the nature of present society, of how it came to be, and of how it could become more ideal. There was agreement that the school is an agency set up by our kind of society—American democracy—to perpetuate and to improve that society. Not only during the first year but also during the following years the teachers took advantage of university lectures and recent readings in sociology, psychology, and education

that were listed for graduate students. The dean of the school of education led the entire college staff to think more deeply about current problems of society. He called a series of meetings in which the report of President Hoover's Research Committee on Social Trends was discussed and inferences were drawn concerning our responsibilities to help college students and children meet current social problems.

Deciding upon major and minor aims of education—When the elementary-school staff seemed to have reached a common social viewpoint, it worked on the major aims of education and on the minor ones for the various levels from five to twelve years of age. The teachers wanted boys and girls to participate more effectively in the activities of life today and tomorrow. Since the activities of life are so numerous, it was deemed necessary to group them under institutional headings to clarify thinking. Children must learn to participate more effectively in the various activities of the *home*, the *school*, the *community*, the *church*, the *state*, and the *nation*. Specific life activities under these headings were listed for each level of growth.

Formulating a curriculum in terms of activities—Next the curriculum was discussed as the tool of the school for the accomplishment of its major aims. The teachers agreed that it should not consist merely of subjectmatter found in textbooks, but of all the activities in which children participate under expert guidance in a carefully controlled school environment. Textbooks represent only one kind of material needed by children to help them solve stimulating work and play problems. Subjectmatter lines were forgotten as the teachers organized large areas of experience on increasingly high levels of growth. Possible school activities were suggested for each area.

The group decided that the kindergarten teacher should help her children to become aware of the major institutional activities of life. She should plan visits to local stores to purchase supplies for lunch, to the different churches to hear music, to various kinds of homes to see new babies, and so on.

There was common agreement that the first-grade teacher should use that large area of experience that deals with the interdependence of members of the family upon each other and upon workers outside the home. Altho cooperative home life should be the core of her children's wide and varied activities, the teacher was to be free at all times to utilize any experience, far or near, which would help her children to grow. For example, if a child had heard Admiral Byrd speak and had seen his motion picture, that experience might be worthy of sharing with the group.

The staff concluded that the second-grade teacher should help her children to become more effective community members. She should

guide them into and thru activities that would help them to appreciate the interdependence of community workers. Since 60 percent of our children live on nearby farms, it was agreed that the third-grade teacher should emphasize those experiences which develop a greater appreciation of farm life. The selected activities should help her children to interpret interdependence in the enlarged local community, past and present.

It was the judgment of the group that the fourth-grade teacher should develop a feeling for the interdependence of people in Ohio, past and present, and the interdependence of people in large world areas, such as hot lands, cold lands, high lands, and low lands. The fifth-grade teacher should stress the interdependence of people in different areas of the United States, past and present. Previously she had thought of the study of things, such as coal, lumber, and cotton. Now she would guide the children's thinking in terms of people. For example, some of the problems that a fifth-grade child would normally raise concerning people in the South are: Do they have homes like ours? What do the fathers do to earn a living? What do the children play? Do the children worship in churches like ours?

The area of experience selected for the sixth-grade teacher dealt with the interdependence of people in Europe, past and present, although she was not to exclude other valuable experiences. For instance, when the sixth-grade children decided that they wanted to publish the next issue of the school newspaper, the activities of the school council were of greatest concern because the council had charge of the newspaper.

Selecting suggestive materials and methods—Next the staff considered the kinds of materials and methods needed to carry on the suggested activities. It no longer thought of subjectmatter merely as textbook content, but as all kinds of animate and inanimate materials that are necessary to satisfy the interests and needs of children. The inadequacy of the usual materials purchased by the school was recognized as demanding unlimited resourcefulness on the part of each teacher. The out-of-school environment was explored and many new possibilities appeared.

The teachers agreed that the methods must vary according to the purposes for which the materials were to be used. If fourth-grade children wanted to find out how the pioneers lived, they would raise specific questions; they would classify these questions according to the institutional activities involved; they would set up committees to take the responsibility for finding out about the various phases of the problem. Each committee would read books, visit museums, look at pictures, and talk with old settlers. The committees would then pool their experiences and organize them for the solution of their problem.

When the problem was solved, the entire activity would be evaluated carefully. Perhaps there would be a final sharing of the activity with the whole school by means of an assembly or an exhibit.

Again, during a free period in the fourth grade a child might pretend he is Daniel Boone. He would play informally, not using a set pattern but creating his acts spontaneously for his personal satisfaction. Later he might want to dramatize the life of Boone for his friends. He must then gather information from all available sources, select the usable parts, plan his actions, and learn them. He must practice as many times as are necessary to make his dramatization a valuable experience for the audience.

Choosing appropriate means of evaluation—The teachers studied the problem of making an adequate appraisal of their attempt to organize the work of the school on a functional basis. Standardized tests seemed to measure skills and factual knowledge mainly, but were accepted as valuable for some purposes. Beyond these, it was agreed, evaluation must be in terms of the aim for more effective living. How well a child plays his part in present society can be determined best by the slow, careful, continuous process of observation. Informal tests also must be devised to measure the outcomes of children's activities, their appreciations, interests, and methods of work. Methods of self-evaluation and of group evaluation were suggested for each level.

Reclassifying the children—The problem of classifying the children also was studied. It seemed advisable to begin with chronological age and then to shift children up or down according to their social maturity. The teacher's judgment was the basis of each shift. Usually in the lower grades there was a two-year spread in age within a grade, while in the upper grades the difference was sometimes as great as three years. The administration thought it would be unwise to change the term "grade" to "group" because of possible difficulties with patrons. The teachers, however, were not thinking of a third grade as composed of eight-year-old children, as in the past, but as a group of children who were able to work and play well together.

Planning a flexible time schedule—The daily program of short, unrelated class periods was changed to correspond with the reorganized curriculum. Greater flexibility was secured thru larger blocks of time. Within each block a variety of related activities could be carried on. A daily period could be omitted or lengthened according to the needs of the children. Weekly planning seemed desirable for many kinds of activities. The elasticity of larger block planning, for either the day or the week, facilitated integration of the thinking processes. Such an arrangement was less distracting for creative work, for experimenting with materials, and for maintaining continuity of purpose. There was

provision for group and individual conference periods, for work periods including the various skills, for free periods to develop individual interests, and for recreational periods including play, literature, music, and art.

Advantages of the reorganized program—After more than a decade of experience in developing and using the functionally organized curriculum, the teachers feel that it has been more effective than the earlier plan. The newer plan has facilitated and required continuous reorganization of experiences on the part of both the children and the teachers. It is nurtured by a common philosophy and by a consciousness of socially valuable goals. Both children and teachers have greater faith in themselves because they are free to initiate, to execute, and to evaluate activities in the light of everyday needs. There is a continuous process of growth, not just on one group level but on increasingly higher levels. Teachers in the high school notice the difference in the way children can manage their daily affairs. Parents have commented on the increased judgment that their children show in meeting practical situations in the home, and have praised the school for its attempt to teach children both the art and the science of daily living.

THE curriculum, to be effective, must be organized in terms of the level of development reached by the children, but as has been made evident repeatedly, the children in a given classroom are at many levels of development and the same child is not at the same level of development with respect to his readiness for the various types and aspects of learning and experience. It is obvious, therefore, that the form of school organization in which the same assignment is given to a whole class, and in which all members of the class make the same preparation from the same text and are then measured by the same standards, is essentially unsound.—Washburne, Carleton, in *Child Development and the Curriculum*, Thirty-Eighth Yearbook, Part I, National Society for the Study of Education, 1939, Chapter 19, p. 392. (Quoted by permission of the Society.)

COOPERATIVE CURRICULUM STUDY IN A CITY SCHOOL SYSTEM

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IN MANY SCHOOL SYSTEMS today continuous study of the curriculum has become a definite part of the teachers' responsibilities. Whether such study is handled by committees appointed by the superintendent, directed by principals in individual schools, or organized under a curriculum director, the obligation to learn how best to make the school fit the needs of boys and girls is accepted by progressive teachers as a challenging part of their work.

Sometimes this study may deal with a condition needing correction, such as poor study habits or a low level of handwriting achievement. It may center around the construction of a new course of study in some subject where changes are needed. Or it may be concerned with reorganization of the entire curriculum according to units of experience which disregard subjectmatter lines. Whatever the problem, study of it is easier and more effective if undertaken by many people together. From group thinking and discussion come solutions to problems that one teacher would hesitate to attack alone. New attitudes, new levels of teaching ability, staff friendliness and unity, and significant advances in professional knowledge result from the wide reading and the exchange of experience that such a program requires.

THE BEGINNINGS OF CURRICULUM STUDY IN MADISON

For a number of years previous to 1931 a unique plan of supervision operated in this city. Certain elementary-school principals with special training and ability in the field of reading, arithmetic, social studies, or spelling, for example, were given the responsibility for supervising the subject of their special interest thruout all the schools of the city. Committees of teachers worked with these principal-directors in producing courses of study and bulletins which were used by all teachers. The teachers of each grade met in councils about once a month. They chose their own chairman and discussed problems common to their grade. All directors and committees worked directly with the superintendent of schools. Thru such experiences teachers and principals became oriented in the democratic way of determining teaching policies and procedures, so that the introduction of citywide curriculum study later was not a sudden change from the professional climate in which they had been working.

¹The present supervisor of curriculum is Mrs. Janet Millar.

THE FIRST ORGANIZED PROGRAM

Purposes—In the year 1931-32 Superintendent R. W. Bardwell felt that the time had come for a coordination of such efforts in a specially organized curriculum department. Separate approaches by subjects and by grades seemed inconsistent with a philosophy of integration and with the ideal of maximum growth for every child rather than achievement of an arbitrary grade standard by all children. Accordingly, a supervisor of curriculum was appointed. With the superintendent she set up the following purposes for her work:

- A. To promote similar educational ideals and unity of purpose in the Madison schools
 - 1. By organizing an investigation of a fundamental part of the teaching responsibility of our schools, in order to true up ideals and to secure thoughtful consideration of methods and emphasis in instruction
 - 2. By placing before principals for frank discussion all supervisory plans of major importance
 - 3. By arranging for an exchange of experiences among teachers and principals that will provide recognition for successful methods and results.
- B. To assist principals in carrying out individual building programs, whenever requested
 - 1. By meeting with teachers for the discussion of certain problems
 - 2. By discussing and interpreting with the principal the results of diagnostic tests and the organization of remedial instruction
 - 3. By cooperating in the improvement of the work of individual teachers.
- C. To promote among teachers an experimental, analytical attitude toward teaching
 - 1. By encouraging intensive study of the problems of instruction in their own classrooms and an interest in the results of such study by other teachers
 - 2. By so directing this study that the teachers may discover principles for the selection of methods and materials
 - 3. By providing speakers, professional books, and text materials that will be stimulating and valuable.

Organization—The problems selected for study during the first year of the new program centered around child expression, with main emphasis on expression thru language. Specific topics, determined by observation in the schools, were outlined for study. Some of them were: (1) language and health, (2) creative expression, (3) stimulating ideas for expression, (4) improving sentence structure and the mechanics of written expression, and (5) measuring the results of language teaching. The list of topics was submitted to teachers in order that they might express preferences for committee work.

Plans for the study, drawn originally by the superintendent and the supervisor of curriculum, were submitted to elementary principals in individual conferences and as a committee. Thruout the year, and in succeeding years, all curriculum plans were approved by this central committee of principals before any action was taken. This procedure has been a factor in whatever success has been attained.

Committees were appointed to study the topics selected. The following points were considered in the selection of committee members: (1) preferences of teachers for work on certain problems, (2) recommendations of principals as to the needs and capacities of teachers, (3) the need of representation from several grades to break down the barriers created by teachers' unfamiliarity with the problems of grades other than their own, and (4) the need of representation from several schools to create citywide interest and unity. About one-third of the elementary teaching staff served on the original committees. All teachers, however, participated at some time during the year, either as members of subcommittees or as contributors of data or materials needed by the committee members.

The following kinds of reports from all teachers provided needed data for committees, and kept the entire staff interested and informed about the efforts of the central committees:

1. A list of pupils who were not expressing themselves satisfactorily because of timidity, lack of confidence, indifference, aggressiveness, malnutrition, or other emotional, physical, or social conditions
2. A list of the specific usage errors made by the pupils of their classes
3. An analysis of the types of sentence and organization faults found in their classes
4. An appraisal of pupils' responses to the daily reading of poems
5. A statement from each teacher concerning the goals set for her pupils in each type of language activity
6. Reports on the experimental use of standard tests.

General meetings and bulletins kept the entire staff informed and unified during the investigation. In addition to contributing to the professional growth of teachers, the study resulted in a mimeographed report—a compilation of the work of all committees—which was made available in the fall of 1932 and was discussed and used in all schools under the guidance of the principals.

THE PROGRAMS OF SUCCEEDING YEARS

Course-of-study construction—Altho the construction of a course of study was not the main aim of the curriculum program during the first year, or even during succeeding years, eventually the study and the pooled thinking of the staff resulted in suggestive outlines in the fields of social studies and natural science. Each of these courses required two years for development. The procedure included the following steps: (1) wide reading in the field and discussion of aims, (2) a carefully organized, detailed study of the interests of 6000 children as revealed by their conversation and questions, (3) the setting up of aims and of suggestive sequences by a small core committee of principals, (4) the development of units within that general design by classroom teachers, (5) experimentation with, and editing of, those units by other teachers

during the second year, (6) an evaluation of every unit by every teacher who taught it, and (7) the summarizing, selecting, and final editing of suggestive outlines for each grade.

Scope and sequence of the courses—The pattern of units in the social studies completed in 1934 is revealed in Figure I. From the units outlined, each teacher selects the four or five best suited to her class and its environment, supplementing these with one original unit which falls within the area suggested for the grade.

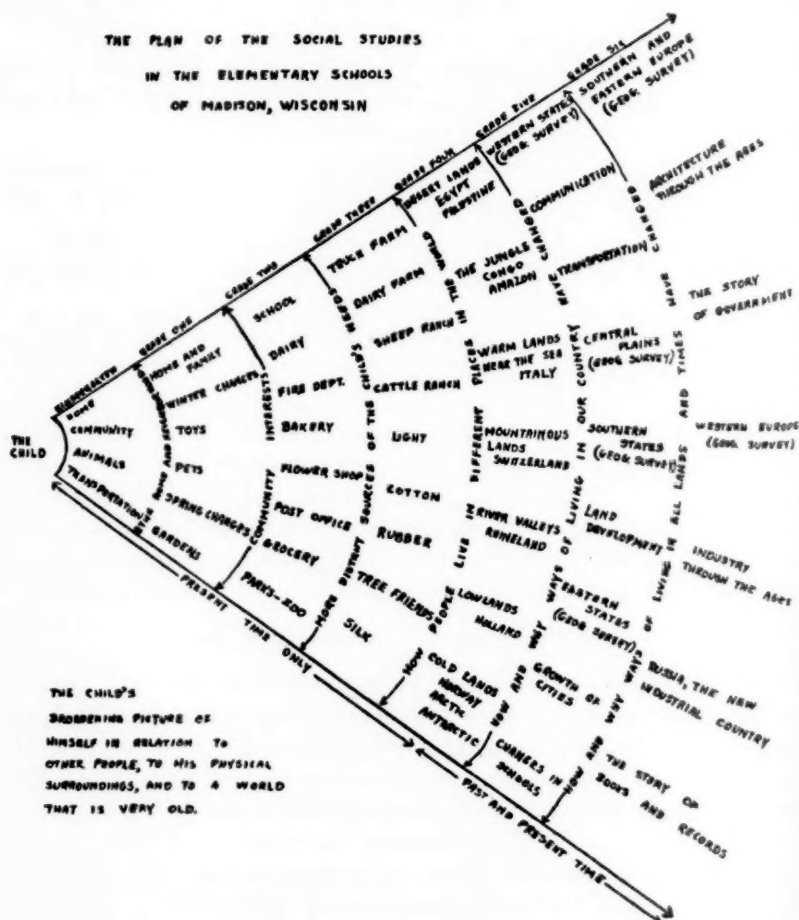


FIGURE I—PATTERN OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE
ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS OF MADISON, WISCONSIN



OTHER CURRICULUM ACTIVITIES

Corrective programs—In addition to the planning and production of new courses in various fields, the discovery and correction of deficiencies in the growth and achievement of pupils have been a part of each year's curriculum effort. This remedial work yields not only a current improvement in the progress of the children studied but also better plans and materials to use another year. Better first teaching is the aim and the result. This justifies the place of such work in a curriculum program.

During the eight years of curriculum study in Madison there have been corrective programs in handwriting, reading, and spelling. An effort has been made also to secure a higher degree of accuracy in arithmetic fundamentals. As part of this work, several studies of grade placement have been made.

In all these studies the principal-directors, who previously had supervised their chosen subjects in all schools, were advisers and key members of central committees studying the problems in their particular fields of knowledge and interest.

Testing programs—Citywide use of standardized tests each fall provides the curriculum office with valuable facts and helps to indicate its responsibilities. These tests have generally been given only in the tool subjects—reading, arithmetic, spelling, and handwriting.

The curriculum supervisor takes no responsibility for testing later in the year beyond including in the courses of study suggestive tests which teacher committees have constructed and made available to other teachers who may wish to use them. Since the responsibility for the results of instruction rests with the principal and teachers in each school, any citywide testing program at the close of the year would seem inconsistent with the philosophy of the entire curriculum program.

Textbook and professional library—The curriculum office has been equipped with a valuable textbook library. All samples of new texts are placed there for examination by principals and teachers. In addition, as new problems are studied each year, copies of research reports, courses of study, and professional books on the subjects under consideration are placed in the library, where committees may secure them for their work.

Public relations—Not only the parents of children in school but all adults in the community have a vested interest in the educational program provided. Opportunities to explain the work of the schools, and particularly the curriculum, are welcomed by the supervisor. Parent-teacher meetings, club meetings, school exhibits, and newspaper articles are used for this purpose.

Because of the thoro study required by every problem attacked, we have been unable to see a way to include laymen in the actual curric-

ulum programs, as some other cities have done. It is felt that few laymen have the background, the time, or the inclination to study an unfamiliar field intensively enough to make reasoned and significant contributions. Teachers, with their training and experience, are better equipped than any other group of persons to determine the nature of the educational opportunities which the school should provide. Most communities expect and appreciate teacher leadership in curriculum development.

THE PHILOSOPHY OF THE CURRICULUM PROGRAM

The ideals and policies of curriculum work in Madison, which developed slowly during the first four or five years, have crystallized into a few fundamental beliefs, as follows: (1) The greatest value to be derived from an organized curriculum program lies in the intensive study of specific problems determined by the needs of the children and the nature of the school organization. Such investigation acquaints teachers with recent trends, published investigations, the thinking of other teachers in the same system and elsewhere, and facts from experimentation or research within their own classrooms. Because each year the work is concentrated on one or two phases of instruction, the superficiality of much spasmodic professional reading is avoided. (2) The courses of study or the mimeographed reports resulting from each investigation are of secondary but essential value in providing unity of purpose in the staff. They are also means of giving deserved credit for effort and of lending prestige to curriculum contributions and achievements. (3) Whenever possible members of special departments, such as school librarians, health workers, teachers of art and music, and child guidance workers, should be included on the committees to which their special training may enable them to make contributions. (4) The placing of teachers from several grades on each committee, when practicable, does much to break down barriers of misunderstanding. It also helps to make the progress of the child thru the grades resemble a ramp rather than a series of steps with landings at the end of each year. (5) There are great differences in the willingness and capacity of individual teachers to contribute to curriculum study, and such differences should be provided for. Placing much of the work on a voluntary basis takes care of some of these differences. Good judgment in appointing teachers to committees is essential. (6) A curriculum department should capitalize upon the existing administrative setup in the schools, and not overlap or conflict with any part of it.

Adherence to these principles and policies will, in the writer's judgment, bring continued success in the curriculum program at Madison, and will be helpful in initiating or developing such programs in other comparable school systems.

STIMULATING AND GUIDING TEACHERS IN ENRICHING
THE CURRICULUM

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TEACHER PARTICIPATION in the school program may be encouraged by the administrator for a variety of reasons. It may be looked upon as a safety valve to assure a more peaceful cooperation of teachers. It may be encouraged because of the general trend and the desire to be "up to date." It may be indulged in as a mere matter of lip service to democratic procedures rather than as a truly cooperative enterprise. The wise administrator, however, encourages teacher participation for the truly constructive purpose of enriching the curriculum, and as a means of professional growth. Intelligent participation in the school program stimulates teachers to feel a more genuine responsibility, not only for their own classrooms but for the school system as a whole. It strengthens the teacher's self-confidence; develops his interests and special abilities; provides an opportunity for public recognition of good work; and encourages a finer spirit of cooperation between the administrative staff and the teaching corps.

When teachers participate on the highest level in developing a curriculum, they immediately feel a responsibility, an interest, a share in carrying the program to a successful conclusion. Just as the competent teacher seeks to draw all types of pupils into the class activities for the sake of their development as individuals and as members of a cooperating group, so should the administrator seek to include all types of teachers in the activities of curriculum building. The good teacher should be called upon because of the benefits to be derived from her superior skill and artistry, and because she deserves encouragement and recognition for good work. The mediocre teacher should be utilized because of the personal growth she will undergo and the possibility of discovering potentialities which she has not hitherto revealed. One of the most important tasks of supervisors and administrators is to call forth creative work from their teachers.

An infinite variety of true enrichment of the curriculum may be contributed by the teaching staff. It is the person actually on the job who receives the stimulation of daily opportunities and problems which arise in the classroom. If the fundamental interests of childhood form an important basis for curriculum building, then the person in intimate daily contact with children is the one best prepared to make suggestions

and help in planning. A school curriculum is to be found in the activities in the classroom, not in the mimeographed circulars in a central office. The classroom is the place where theory and practice must meet, if they ever do. The person who looks upon the curriculum as a daily task, who sees it in action, is the one best fitted to suggest, plan, and devise the ways in which it shall go.

The purposes, therefore, of staff participation in the administrative phases of curriculum enrichment are as follows:

1. To further the democratic way of life (there can be no true democracy in the classroom with an autocratic administration)
2. To inculcate a feeling of joint responsibility, to build interest, and to increase professional growth
3. To enrich the curriculum by bringing into play those forces and personalities which are in most intimate contact with the pupil.

Recently the school staff of Richmond, Virginia, has undertaken two curriculum projects—one in elementary English and one in elementary science. Both of these arose as the result of a widespread need for constructive study and action. Both were undertaken as citywide projects. The remainder of this article tells how they were developed with the foregoing purposes in view.

THE PROJECT IN ENGLISH

For some time we had been dissatisfied with our results in the field of English. It was decided that an intensive study should be made of our work in elementary English. The recent studies of the National Council of Teachers of English—especially *An Experience Curriculum in English*¹—offered a splendid guide for the organization of the project.

Staff organization—Following the organization in the volume named above, four major committees were created. Heading each of these groups was a principal with two other principals as assistants. The remainder of each major committee consisted of one to three teacher representatives from each school grade taken from as wide an area as possible. Each teacher representative, in turn, was asked to form a committee of teachers from her grade to study and advise with her. In this way it was planned to include a wide range of views and interests, and yet keep the major committees from becoming unwieldy. Such a plan made it possible to bring from 150 to 200 people into the program. Principals, supervisors, and directors were asked to recommend teachers for these committees because of the good they would do the committees, or with a view to helping individual teachers. Letters of invitation were sent from the superintendent's office expressing the hope that those invited could take part, and nearly all accepted. The whole procedure was kept on a voluntary basis.

¹ National Council of Teachers of English. *An Experience Curriculum in English*. English Monograph No. 4. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1935. 323 p.

Since the chief emphasis of this project was to be in the field of elementary English, reading as a tool subject was not emphasized as it ordinarily would have been. An intensive reading program had been begun two years earlier, and it was felt that the other phases of English merited the most attention in this study. The areas of study undertaken by the four major committees were the same as those set up in the monograph already mentioned: (1) corrective teaching, (2) creative expression, (3) appreciation, and (4) communication.

In addition to the major committees, each principal in the system was encouraged to form a similar committee in his own school.

Committee technique and activities—After the organization was effected, group meetings were held and procedures were discussed. It was generally agreed that the first step should be a period of study and discussion. To facilitate this, each member was furnished with a copy of *An Experience Curriculum in English*.

Altho the school year was well along when the work got under way, some very constructive work was started by each of the committees. The Committee on Creative Expression listed a bibliography and set up a series of problems for study. Some of these problems and tentative answers to them were as follows:

1. What objectives lie behind creative expression in English as encouraged by teachers?
 - a. Enrichment, broadening, and refining of experience for all children
 - b. Development of personality—mental, physical, and emotional growth
 - c. Improvement of social adjustments
 - d. Achievement of effective English
2. What conditions foster creative expression in English?
 - a. Freedom to experiment, practice, and evaluate
 - b. Power in assurance of success, mastery of important skills, and self-appraisal
3. What qualities does the teacher look for in creative expression?
 - a. Evidence of rich, firsthand experience
 - b. Evidence of initiation by the author, spontaneity, and eagerness
 - c. Evidence of power to work and rework raw material into an artistic whole
 - d. Evidence of the individual's personality, an emotional mood.

The Committee on Corrective Teaching adopted the point of view that the term *corrective* should be construed to mean "preventive" as well as "remedial." This committee has been concerned, therefore, with investigating the purposes, content, and methods in teaching English usage, and with the problems of grading and arranging in sequence those skills and abilities which might be deemed essential for elementary pupils. Three subgroups were formed within the major committee to work on these three phases:

1. Purposes and objectives to guide teachers, along with concrete suggestions for classroom use in the form of units, materials, and methods

2. The type of course to be set up, with recommendations concerning skills, abilities, forms, and placement of materials
3. Our spelling program—its content and methods.

The Committee on Communication, after a period of study, set up several theses for consideration. Among these were the following:

1. Language should not appear in the curriculum as a separate subject.
2. Language teaching should be a whole school enterprise—not confined to any single classroom or department.
3. Provisions for practice in language should go far beyond the walls of the English classroom.
4. The art of communication can be mastered only thru experience in actual normal communication.
5. The school must seek to bring outside activities within its walls, and to participate with its students in community activities.
6. Time should be spent in getting children to feel that their language experiences are vital and practical in everyday life.
7. The teaching of language should be guided by what is significant to the child.
8. We should be impressed more by *what* is said than by *how* it is said.
9. The art of communication implies social contacts. From this angle the attitude of the writer or speaker becomes of vital importance.
10. In the art of communication more attention should be paid to the voice, posture, and general manner than has been given heretofore.

The work of the Committee on Appreciation was concerned chiefly with ways and means of developing a changed attitude toward literature. This group organized a citywide educational program, involving both parents and teachers, concerning children's books. The cooperation of a large department store and of the parent-teacher organization was enlisted in holding a Book Fair which lasted for a week. Each afternoon in the parlors of the store, children from the school put on short plays and pantomimes representing famous characters from books. Teachers and parents acted as hostesses, and well-known authorities on children's literature made short talks. The expenses of these speakers were borne by the department store. The culmination of the Fair was a dinner meeting with talks by a Virginia poet and a speaker on children's literature. At this same meeting, children from the schools put on a pageant depicting stories from literature.

This committee also prepared for the use of teachers and parents an annotated bibliography graded according to vocabulary difficulty and children's interests. This bibliography will be enlarged as the work of the committee progresses.

Problems for further study—In summarizing the work thus far, the following important problems have been listed for further study:

1. Relative merits and disadvantages of an ungraded or semi-ungraded course of study, as contrasted with a program of definite grade placements
2. True integration of English with living and learning
3. How to provide for development of individual aptitudes, interests, and creative abilities
4. Proper balance between creative expression and correct usage

5. Preparing annotated lists of children's books according to levels of achievement
6. Educational program for mothers concerning worthwhile books for children
7. Illustrative units, materials, and devices to aid teachers
8. Our spelling program—word lists, methods, correlations
9. The place of drill in an English program
10. Setting up desirable attainments at various levels
11. Means of evaluation from the standpoint of pupils, teachers, and supervisors.

The committees have not finished. They are going ahead this year. No time limit has been set; the only requirement is to "make haste slowly." The goal is to build a constructive English program which will bring better results in our pupils' oral and written English, and a deeper appreciation and love of literature. One big result has been gained thus far—our whole teaching force is more "English conscious" than it has ever been.

THE PROJECT IN SCIENCE

Guided by the same philosophy of teacher participation that governed the English study, another curriculum project was carried on in the field of elementary science. The size, organization, and procedures of the committee in charge differed materially from those of the English committees.

Science needs and challenges—For some years the supervisor of primary grades had been encouraging teachers to explore the possibilities of science with young children. Here and there thruout the city individual teachers were developing within their classrooms a curriculum rich in science activities, and the children were interacting with their environment in such a way that new interests were stimulated, initiative and independent thinking were developed, and scientific attitudes and methods of procedure were cultivated. The supervisor called these teachers together and asked this question, "How can *you* who have been so successful in developing a science curriculum in your own classrooms help other teachers to realize the possibilities in the study of science as a factor in child growth?" The teachers eagerly accepted the challenge, and under the guidance of the supervisor organized for action. They decided to put together, not a course of study to be followed, not illustrative units to be used as guides, but a booklet of suggested activities, source material, and references in a form readily usable by the busiest teacher.

Committee activities—The first step of the committee was to formulate the aims of science teaching in the light of their own philosophy concerning child growth. They believed that a science program should be not merely a matter of information to be gained, but a rich educational experience which develops the personality of the child as a whole and improves his behavior patterns. They formulated the following subordinate beliefs:

1. That the study of science is not too difficult for the youngest child.
2. That much science has been successfully taught to primary children by teachers without special training in the field of science.
3. That the teacher should keep in mind the larger concepts and generalizations; and that children, by building concepts bit by bit, will gradually come to a better understanding of life and their environment.
4. That firsthand experiences, excursions, and real materials must be the basis for beginning the study of science.
5. That a teacher can use the natural questions of children in achieving a determined objective.
6. That each teacher should cultivate in the child an open-mindedness and a respect for truth; a questioning attitude—not accepting a fact merely because it is in a book, but because he, from his own observation, believes it to be correct.
7. That science investigations give the child the thrill of an explorer in a new world, yet help him to relate himself consciously to the world in which he lives.
8. That desirable attitudes and improved behavior patterns in children can be attained thru an intelligent study of science.

To avoid duplication of effort, the committee was subdivided and small groups worked intensively on specific phases of the science curriculum. These subcommittees of teachers worked both independently and with the supervisor; they frequently met together as a complete committee to exchange ideas and to insure uniformity in the preparation of materials. Science experts in the school system were called into consultation from time to time. These included science teachers from the high schools, principals, and others known to be students in the field of science. Much research was done, and usable source material was included for the teachers with a limited science background. The result at the conclusion of the first year's work was a mimeographed booklet of approximately 100 pages containing suggested activities, illustrations, "finger-tip" facts, and page references for content material and related poems and stories in books known to be available to the teachers. The mimeographed booklets were distributed to the teachers at general grade meetings, with explanations as to the use of the material, and with the request that each teacher send to the committee suggestions for the further improvement and enrichment of the science curriculum. Additional reference books in science were furnished to all teachers by the school administration.

This year other teachers have been added to the central committee, and all primary teachers have accepted the responsibility of carrying on an evaluation program of science teaching. Each teacher is to report to the central committee incidents occurring in her classroom which illustrate improved behavior and personality growth in children due primarily to the study of science. The committee hopes to compile an additional booklet on evaluation.

Evidence of enrichment—Because of the participation of these teachers, the administration believes that the curriculum in science has been truly enriched. This is evident in the increased interest of the children

of practically every classroom in the natural phenomena of their environment. Parents report that children are more observant, are requesting to be taken on walks thru the parks and to the country, and are asking questions which show a healthy stimulation of their natural curiosity. Children are reading more science books, carrying on more investigations, and expressing their ideas more freely thru oral and written language and thru the medium of art. Both children and teachers are developing more initiative and are growing in the desire and the power to explore, to experience, and to achieve a happier way of life.

PROFESSIONAL interest of individual teachers can be enhanced by stimulating and challenging the corps of teachers as a group to attack professional problems *en masse*. Momentum will be developed in professional work causing the younger teachers through their contact with the group to become professionally stimulated and the older teachers, whose professional interest may have waned, to seek to retrieve their professional enthusiasm. Problems of professional study, such as how best to teach the fundamental operations in arithmetic, to secure extensive reading, or to make effective use in the school of visual materials, may be utilized for study by committees and the results reported to the entire group of teachers. Care should be exercised by the principal in selecting the leaders for the study of committee projects, and he should attend the meetings of each committee and also frequently confer with the leaders in order that the time of teachers will not be spent on fruitless or misguided effort.—Reavis, William C., and others, *The Elementary School: Its Organization and Administration*, University of Chicago Press, 1931, p. 341. (Quoted by permission of the publishers.)

COUNTYWIDE TEACHER PARTICIPATION IN DEVELOPING
A SCIENCE PROGRAM

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A LARGE PROPORTION of the questions that young children ask fall in the field of natural science. No doubt this is because children are so keenly aware of physical objects and processes. All about them is a world of things to explore—things which can be seen, heard, felt, smelled, or tasted. Naturally they want to know the “why” and “how” of these things, especially those which are unusual or which affect their lives in striking ways. Since children learn most readily when their curiosity is thoroly aroused, the typical elementary school has an excellent opportunity to enrich its curriculum by giving greater attention to children’s interests in science. When classroom learning situations are based on the children’s own problems, the learning may become functional to a degree that is impossible otherwise.

With a growing realization of the importance of science in the lives of children as well as adults, a group of approximately fifty elementary teachers in Cape May County, New Jersey, have been stimulated to give science a definite and significant place in the curriculum. This article outlines the steps taken to date in the development of this program.

Capitalizing on children’s questions—For several years the teachers have been gathering evidence on children’s interests in the field of science. Children’s questions having scientific implications have been recorded and pooled. These questions are being used in determining centers of interest around which a science program is developing. Such questions provide many interesting and valuable leads, altho it is realized that a sound science program cannot be built upon them alone. In carrying on this work, the teachers have gained markedly in their ability to recognize science leads given by the children.

Relating children’s questions to major science concepts—The children’s questions were grouped according to some of the larger understandings in science and according to subjectmatter headings. The main purpose in doing this was to see the relation of the questions to the science program as a whole. The larger objectives of science instruction presented in the Thirty-First Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education,¹ which are based on the list for the Horace Mann Course of Study in Elementary Science, were used

¹Craig, Gerald S. “The Program of Science in the Elementary School.” *A Program for Teaching Science*. Thirty-First Yearbook, Part I. National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1932. Chapter 10, p. 133-62.

in this connection. They include such broad statements as the following:

1. There is a cause for every effect.
2. The earth is very old when measured in terms of our units of time.
3. All life comes from life and produces its own kind of living organism.
4. The sun is the chief source of energy for the earth.
5. Life is dependent on certain conditions and materials.
6. Any machine, no matter how complicated, may be analyzed into a few simple forms.

These major concepts are beyond the complete comprehension of elementary-school children, but if the teacher has them in mind she can guide the children thru experiences which illustrate the principles involved. Altho children may be able to go only a single step toward understanding one of these principles, they will achieve something worthwhile, and additional activities will have greater meaning and purpose for them. The children will not be expected to state the larger concept that the teacher has in mind; nor is the teacher to present such abstract facts to the class to be learned. They merely give direction to the program. When a child has arrived at a broad generalization and states it of his own volition, that much is pure gain. Most of these generalizations are so broad, however, that even tho an individual understands their meaning in certain situations he can still profitably devote a great deal of study to them. Therefore, such generalizations can be used most effectively in guiding individual pupils and classes thru increasingly broad and illuminating experiences. Checking children's questions against a list of these major principles shows the breadth and depth of children's thinking in the field.

Need of science subjectmatter for teachers—Since the children were encouraged to ask questions, the teachers in the county felt that they must do their part to guide the children in answering these questions. Many of the teachers frankly stated that they were not familiar with science materials and did not know how to proceed to teach science. To help answer the many and varied questions which the active child asks requires a wide range of science information. So the questions also became an important element in organizing and directing the teachers' study.

Their study was carried on during the school year, while the teachers were spending most of their energy in the classroom. For this reason it may be of particular interest to other teachers to know some of the procedures that were used, as follows:

1. Individual teachers studied, within chosen fields, subjectmatter which was closely related to problems confronting their classes.
2. Teachers worked together in groups, focusing on subjectmatter and methods which would meet needs common to all of them in their classrooms.
3. Extension courses from a nearby state teachers college were conducted.
4. High-school science teachers contributed to the program by conferring with the elementary teachers and by helping them with subjectmatter.

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Stimulating further study—In addition to the foregoing activities, teachers have been taking part in those listed below. Only as these contribute to individual study do they become vital in developing a stronger science program. By further study in group activities, individual teachers begin to sense the broader meaning of science.

1. In groups the teachers studied Craig's *A New Science Program for Elementary Schools*,² Croxton's *Science in the Elementary School*,³ the *Glens Falls Syllabus*,⁴ and reports of other elementary science programs to ascertain how such programs had been developed, what had been included in them, and their underlying philosophy.

2. Recently published science textbooks for children were reviewed and some of the older ones were evaluated. Later, a list of pertinent reference material available for children was compiled.

3. Schools outside of our county were visited to observe their science programs in action.

4. Science implications in the social studies program have been noted.

5. Patrons of the school have evidenced keen interest in the development of the program. Interesting discussions have been carried on in meetings of parent-teacher groups and service clubs.

6. As a group, the teachers attended the Fels' Planetarium and Franklin Institute in Philadelphia.

7. The teachers helped to plan the annual meeting of their section of the New Jersey Science Teachers Association.

8. Teachers have taken field trips together to become better acquainted with science in their environment. On these trips they have invited leaders from the community to direct them.

9. Teachers have begun to develop a lending collection of permanent equipment.

10. Schools are following the National Broadcasting Company's radio programs in the field of science.

11. Teachers have found that reading children's reference books is a good way to begin developing their own background of science information. Smaller schools, unable to build an adequate science library, are buying reference materials around only one or two topics. These are exchanged with other schools in the county. In this way, for a small expenditure each school has access to many books.

Developing possible teaching units—At the end of the project's second year, a committee representing each school grade gathered the materials that had been developed by the teachers of the county. From these the committee wrote up tentative units to see how the children's questions might be utilized in formulating problems embodying the larger science concepts. The purpose of writing the units was not to establish a set course of study in science, but to lay a basis for a great number of well-planned, challenging experiences. So far as these units are found to have educational value, others like them will be developed. After much discussion the teachers decided to use the following general form in outlining each unit:

²Craig, Gerald S. *A New Science Program for Elementary Schools*. New York: the Author, 1934. 30 p. (Available thru Ginn and Co., New York City.)

³Croxton, Walter C. *Science in the Elementary School*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1937. 454 p.

⁴Glens Falls Public Schools. *Glens Falls Syllabus*. Glens Falls, N. Y.: the Schools, 1936. 2 vols. (Mimeo.)

1. A problem presented by children's questions, interests, and needs
2. Possible approaches leading to establishment of the problem in the children's minds
3. Questions that might be asked by the children following the approach
4. Outline of subjectmatter that might be needed
5. Suggested activities
6. Generalizations that might be reached.

At present most of the teachers in the county are organizing their material according to the suggested outline. This practice gives us a uniform organization that enables other teachers to use the material more easily when similar problems arise in their classrooms. This is especially helpful when teachers are beginning a program in a comparatively new field. Teachers may follow these units as written if they wish, and some teachers are doing so. As the units are taught, these teachers are sending valuable criticisms of them to the committee. Other teachers are adapting the subjectmatter of the units to their local situations. Still other teachers are breaking away entirely from the written units, and are providing experiences based on problems that children in their own classrooms bring up.

Determining the place of science in the total program—At this point we have stopped to consider whether we are developing a science program that could, because of the immensity of its scope, crowd everything else out of the school program. We are beginning to realize that a great age of science is dawning upon us and that an understanding of science is essential to intelligent existence. For this reason we must see science as it fits into the whole picture. Science should not be thought of as an isolated subject that is trying to dominate education. It should be a part of an integrated program whose purpose is to develop the whole child as he lives and grows in our ever changing society. It ought to provide rich and varied experiences leading to ever widening and more meaningful interests. With attainment of the democratic ideal as its primary goal, it should take account of individual differences and strive to promote independent critical thinking, intelligent self-direction, organized group activities, and the development of social attitudes conducive to desirable behavior. It should utilize the environment in such a way as to liberate and stimulate the development of children's capacities, and it should provide for the perpetuation and re-creation of society.

This point of view we are trying to embody in a science program which will be a series of guided experiences so related and so arranged that what is learned in one experience will enrich and make more valuable the experiences that follow. We believe that this program must be flexible enough to allow frequent revision, and that it should be developed by democratic participation of the entire teaching staff.

DEVELOPING A FUNCTIONAL PROGRAM OF ART EDUCATION

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IN THE EARLY 1930's a disturbing situation for art education developed in this country as an outgrowth of the depression. On the one hand, art teachers all over the country were being dismissed, and art was being dropped from school curriculums as an "unnecessary" special subject. On the other hand, automobile manufacturers and producers of countless other industrial products, spurred on by falling sales, were spending millions of dollars to improve the appearance of their products. One group of people was looking at art as unnecessary, superficial, easily discarded; another group, at the same time and under the same circumstances, thought it important enough to merit large expenditures of money. The difference lay in the fact that art teaching was not functional, whereas the arts of commerce and industry were meeting demands directly. Altho the industrialists were finding that art (they seldom called it art) was part and parcel of living—that art could be, and was, appreciated by the great buying public—it was not being taught in the public schools as essential to the education and lives of children.

Melvin E. Haggerty, the late dean of the College of Education at the University of Minnesota, sensed this unfortunate situation and, after a preliminary study of conditions, received from the Carnegie Corporation funds for a five-year experiment to discover presentday needs in art, and to devise a course of study in art so that the public schools could better meet these needs. With the help of an advisory committee of staff members of the College of Education and an advisory council of representatives from various university departments, Professor Robert S. Hilpert defined the purposes of the study as follows: (1) to develop a method of discovering the art needs of a community; (2) to develop a functional course of study in art suited to these needs; and (3) to develop an interest in art in the daily life of the community. This article will discuss the community analysis and its implications for art teaching in the schools.

To realize the aims of the study, it seemed desirable to develop it in a typical midwest community. That is, the community was to be small, of such size that the residents would be directly aware of the study; was not to be dominated by one nationality, religious belief, or industry; was to be located at a sufficient distance from Minne-

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apolis and St. Paul to have developed a community culture and integrity of its own; and it was to be a stable community undergoing no major changes in size, strength, or wealth. After careful consideration, Owatonna, Minnesota—a town of 8000 with a public school enrolment of 1700—was chosen. The study was called the Owatonna Art Education Project, and work was started in the community and its schools in September 1933.

THE COMMUNITY STUDY

In conducting the survey to discover the status of art in the community, it was agreed that observations were to be made of the occurrence of art in normal everyday living—of the role which art plays in contemporary society. Inasmuch as the interest and support of the community were vital to the success of the project, it was decided that all contacts should come as a result of invitations from community residents, and that there should be nothing even remotely resembling a house-to-house canvass. Professor Hilpert, who directed the study during the first year, and the other staff members were encouraged by enthusiastic cooperation from all sources. To gain the needed information, various methods of study were used.

Conferences with residents—Held as a result of invitations extended to members of the project staff by homemakers, commercial and industrial men, owners of furniture stores, printing shops, canning factories, and photographic studios, these conferences varied in each case but were centered in the art problems and interests of the individual in relation to his own situation.

Checklists—These were used to obtain comparable ratings on the degree of success with which art problems had been solved. Observations were made during conferences and the results were recorded later.

Questionnaires—Questionnaires requesting detailed information on art training and on interests, reading, practices, and hobbies in the field of art were sent to all residents with whom conferences were held the first year.

Adult classes in art—These were held at the requests of the townspeople, and included both a lecture-and-discussion group and a participation group. The informality of the gatherings enabled the project staff to familiarize itself with the art problems and interests which the residents considered important.

Individual assistance with art problems—During the course of the project, the staff received many requests from individuals and organizations for help with art problems. Always outgrowths of recognized needs, these requests covered a wide range of topics from furniture

arrangement to the decoration of a canning factory, from planning a club program to planning a home.

Cooperation with agencies interested in art—The public library, women's clubs, and civic organizations also requested aid on problems which confronted them, such as selecting books, planning and conducting programs, planning park and town beautification, and arranging commercial and industrial exhibits. Such requests offered additional insight into the nature and extent of community and nonvocational aspects of art.

FINDINGS OF THE COMMUNITY STUDY AND IMPLICATIONS FOR ART IN THE ELEMENTARY GRADES

From the community study generalizations having important implications for public school art teaching were derived, and the school program was based to a large extent on these. The major findings and their implications are as follows:

1. *Art in some form is used by all people and in all areas of activity.* Our study of the activities of residents of Owatonna revealed with unmistakable clarity that art is an integral part of all the daily activities of all persons. Art was not something reserved for the select few possessing unusual abilities, nor was it limited to a few types of activity. It was not something set apart from life to be applied after functional requirements had been satisfied, but was integrally related to life.

It is essential, then, to include all areas of art in a functional program of art education. If art is used by all people in all activities, it follows naturally that a sound program of art instruction must resemble this pattern. Overemphasis of some aspects and omission of others make an art program out of key with reality, untrue to life. The all too prevalent concept that art consists of painting, sculpture, and design principles—the concept underlying much public school art instruction—finds no basis in actuality.

2. *Problems in art occur as a result of needs in meaningful life situations—never of or by themselves.* In seeking advice from the art staff, the residents of Owatonna presented art problems directly concerned with their living: how to plant a lawn to secure privacy, how to make a living room appear larger, how to hang paintings to best advantage. They were not concerned with abstract, generalized theories of design, nor were they concerned with the history of art. Their art problems were integral with the other problems of daily living.

Art work in the schools, then, should be organized in terms of areas of life, areas of experience, or areas of activity. If art outside the school is integral with life, art in the school should approximate as closely

as possible these conditions. Organizing art work in such terms as the home, the community, the school, and the individual—in terms of real, meaningful areas of activity—will insure vitality in the program and application of school experiences to life situations.

3. *People are generally unaware of the many art values in their environment.* Altho surrounded by community, religious, commercial, and domestic architecture, public parks, billboards and other advertisements, and industrial products, few people give attention to the art values inherent in these objects. As discovered in Owatonna, however, recognition and appreciation of the art in one's environment does increase the pleasure of everyday living.

For these reasons, art teaching should include the study of local art examples of all types. Every community has art products which have value as mentioned above. Altho these may not be of the highest order artistically, they are the art objects to which the people have easiest access. The community can thus be used as a laboratory where pupils may visit, see, inspect, and discuss a wide range of art products. This study of the art in the immediate environment should be as broad as possible.

4. *Art tastes, in general, are compartmentalized.* People often fail to understand relationships between various art forms. For example, a contemporary painting and a streamlined automobile develop from the same social order and quite naturally have much in common. An acceptance of the art values of a modern automobile demands at least a recognition of the values of modern painting. However, inflexible compartments of taste deprive people of much esthetic enjoyment, lead them into incongruous arrangements and relationships, and destroy integration.

Art teaching, it follows, should clarify the relationships between various fields of art and between art and other subjects. To promote integration, relationships and congruity should be stressed. This applies not only within the field of art, but also in the multitudinous places in which art penetrates other fields. Teaching art in relation to situations which cut thru subjectmatter boundaries reduces the dangers of compartmentalization even before classroom work is begun.

5. *Good solutions of real art problems are a source of satisfaction leading to better integration and personal adjustment.* The order—or lack of it—in our environment directly affects us. Cluttered living rooms or stores, clashing or monotonous color schemes lead to tensions and dissatisfactions. Well-ordered, pleasant surroundings, on the other hand, are conducive to rich, successful living.

An art program should be organized to achieve this aim. If we believe that pleasant surroundings are essentials of good living, pupils

must be given experiences which will be directly helpful to them in improving their environment.

6. *In general, people show most interest in those areas of art with which they have most contact.* Of all the requests for advice that were made to members of the art staff during the five years of the project, the greatest percent were concerned with the home. Next in frequency were those from commercial and industrial establishments, then those from clubs and organizations, and last, those concerned with the community. The frequencies of requests were in direct proportion to the nearness of the areas to the lives of the residents. Home, being the closest to most people, was naturally the area in which they were most anxious to increase the art content. The community, on the other hand, was the least personal, and in that sense the most distant.

Of import, too, was the reaction of the townspeople toward the history of art. Of all the requests for topics to be discussed in the evening classes in art, not one had to do with the history of art. Instead, the people of Owatonna wanted information about house-planning and garden design and contemporary developments in other fields. Interest, however, was stimulated when it was shown that the courthouse on Main Street was related to historic Romanesque architecture and was part of the Romanesque revival that swept this country in the late 1800's. Such information served to enrich present interests and contacts, and the historical aspects of art became meaningful as they were shown to be related to the lives of the local residents.

These findings imply that in art teaching the emphasis must be placed on those areas of art with which the pupil has most contact. Too often there is a complete lack of consideration for contemporary art expressions. The student should be enabled to discover the possibilities of art in his dress, in his home, in his community, in transportation, and in commerce. He can discover the intimate relationships which these possibilities have to his own daily life and well-being. Opportunities for investigating developments in art in other periods and places should be included, but they should grow out of an immediate situation. It must always be remembered that the art products which a pupil sees and lives with are for the most part contemporary; they are the products of his own day and age, and potentially, at least, mean more to him than the art of other periods and civilizations. It is essential that his interest in them be stimulated, for they are the products which he will see and use.

7. *In Owatonna there was little interest in developing and using technical art skills on the part of adults.* Rather, the people wanted skills in those areas with which they came into frequent contact—

skills that would aid them in solving their own art problems. In other words, they desired proficiency as consumers of art rather than as producers. Problems connected with dress, homes, business, or the community had more immediacy than such activities as water-color painting.

Art instruction, therefore, should be organized to develop needed skills without undue emphasis on technics of art production. Situations should be provided which will give pupils opportunities to select, judge, discriminate, and arrange art products, and the backgrounds to enable them to do these things to the best of their ability. Opportunities also should be available to artistically gifted individuals to develop their talents. It must be remembered, too, that children's interests in art and art activities differ from those of adults. Children are often eager to develop some technical skill, and should be allowed to do so when they have reason for it. But the important fact remains that those skills are of greatest interest which are useful to the individual in his daily activities. We should emphasize the development of *functional* art skills.

OUTCOMES OF THE PROJECT

Work in the local schools was conducted during the entire five-year period of the project. A course of study in art was formulated during that time on the basis of the foregoing principles, and is now being organized for publication. The reader may well ask: What are the results of such a program? How do pupils react to art teaching based on these principles? Unfortunately, evaluation in many aspects of teaching is difficult to achieve due to the inadequacy of present measuring instruments. However, we made two checks in Owatonna which showed something about the reactions of our pupils. Twice during the project—at the end of the first year and at the end of the fifth year—we asked the teachers in Grades III, IV, V, and VI to have the pupils write down the subjects studied in their grades in the order of their preference. This took place at a time other than the art period, and the pupils did not know that it was being done for the art department. The results were then tabulated, and we found that in those four grades more children ranked art first than any other subject, and that in all grades but one, more boys than girls liked art best.

Superintendent I. E. Rosa of the Owatonna public schools has the following to say concerning the outcomes of the project:

One of the most gratifying things about this study has been the sustained and steadily developing interest of school patrons, citizens, pupils, and teachers in its basic philosophy. There is much practical evidence in the community of the influence of the art department in increased art consciousness, in newly and more

soundly decorated offices, factories, stores, and homes, in city and park planning, in the realization of healthier school objectives in this field, and certainly in very obvious classroom results. Children have come to recognize art as a part of their daily living and as a very vital element in their school life.

We feel that using the principles indicated above has given the art program in the schools a meaning and a vitality which the pupils themselves feel and react to very favorably. Functional art teaching works. Moreover, the development of such a program is entirely feasible in communities of all sizes, and in many cases could be undertaken without any increase in the school expenditures.

THE school at its best does not neglect children with special gifts . . . but what is needed by a community and by all the adults who compose it is an elevation of taste, the development of a sensitive judgment that chooses beautiful things to live with as intuitively as a healthy hunger selects good food. To improve the standards of taste in a community through an educational program, to render a generation of children sensitive to good design, indirectly to make ordinary homes habitations for things fitted to their uses is a greater service for the schools to perform than that they should discover a more or less gifted child and give him the technical training of a professional artist.—Haggerty, Melvin E., *Art a Way of Life*, University of Minnesota Press, 1935, p. 38-39. (Quoted by permission of the publishers.)

INTRODUCING THE STUDY OF FRENCH IN THE UPPER GRADES

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FIVE YEARS AGO the superintendent of public schools in Akron decided to enrich the elementary-school curriculum by giving seventh- and eighth-grade pupils an opportunity to study French in those buildings where the principals wished to offer it. From twelve seventh-grade classes in 1934, the project has now grown to sixty-six classes of seventh- and eighth-grade children in thirty-two different buildings. The choice of pupils for these classes is left entirely to each principal. Whenever feasible, we prefer to offer French only to the pupils who have grades above the average in their other subjects. On account of the enrolment of the school or the organization of classes within the building, it is not always possible to choose only good pupils, and in such cases the groups are sometimes heterogeneous. However, this is the exception rather than the rule; most classes are made up of better-than-average pupils. The original plan was to have the classes meet thirty minutes daily and to give no homework. The third year we began to assign some homework. During the past year, in order to make our periods correspond with the regular elementary-school period, we are meeting for forty minutes daily instead of thirty. The teaching is handled by eleven itinerant teachers, each of whom teaches six classes daily in from to two four different buildings. The director of the work serves on a part-time basis.

Those who are accustomed to thinking of French as a subject taught only in high schools and universities may think that a child of eleven or twelve years is too young to begin the study of a foreign tongue. They may question whether the study of a modern language really does enrich the curriculum of an elementary school. They may ask, too, why French is given preference over other modern languages. If such inquirers will turn to France, as well as to several other European countries, they will learn that the study of foreign languages is begun at least six years before the student enters a university. This means that the French student begins his English in the class corresponding to our seventh grade and continues it during the next six or seven years. Is not the American pupil capable of beginning his study of foreign languages at the same age as his French cousin? In Akron we think that he is. In fact, we believe that the younger child does better work in French than his older brother because his speech muscles are more supple, he is much less self-conscious, and he is more enthusiastic about his new subject.

Method of teaching—Naturally, the teaching of French must be adjusted to the age of the child. The vocabulary must be kept within his experience. The approach to the language must not be the old "grammatical method" so familiar to many who have survived it and who think even today that the study of a modern language is synonymous with paradigms, long lists of irregular verbs to be memorized, rules, and exceptions to rules. In Akron we do not think that grammar is the language itself; it is only a tool used in the learning of the language.

While we realize that there is no "one method" for teaching languages, we use only French in our teaching. We are well aware that many educators emphasize the reading of a language as the most attainable objective. They contend that most students can learn to read French quite readily and can always have access to French books, while very few pupils will probably use the language for travel. Therefore, they say we should concentrate on teaching reading because that is practical. True, most children can learn to read the language, but learning to speak some French as they go along helps them to read it better. Then, too, the young child gets the greatest thrill not from reading a sentence but from saying it. He takes great pride in being able to say things in a foreign tongue.

The emphasis in our teaching of young children, then, is linguistic rather than grammatical. We think that the natural gateway to a language is thru the ear rather than thru the eye. Therefore, one rule to which we always adhere is to present our material orally before the child sees it in print. He invariably hears and repeats his French before he reads and writes it. Another rule that we follow is to present new words in sentences rather than as isolated units.

We try to make our presentation of new material as interesting as possible. For concrete objects, we need only show the real object, draw it, show a picture of it, or describe it. Abstract ideas are more difficult to convey to the young mind, but with plenty of gestures and a little descriptive ability on the part of the teacher, it is remarkable what the imaginative child can grasp.

Experience has taught us that in the learning process, repetition plays perhaps the most important role. In order that constant repetition may not become monotonous, however, we use a number of games, contests, dramatizations, and various other devices to arouse and hold the interest of the pupils.

The philosophy underlying our teaching is expressed in Rousseau's *Emile*, namely, that education should be a joyful process. We therefore endeavor to take the drudgery out of language study and to make such study a pleasure. By the use of French as our classroom language,

we immediately arouse the interest of our children and give them the feeling that they are really learning a living language. At the end of the first week the pupils are proud of themselves, for they are able to greet each other, pass a few remarks about the weather, count to ten or fifteen, give the alphabet, and say and dramatize a series of action sentences. They can also sing two or three little French songs.

Our motto is to make haste slowly, especially at first. From the very beginning, we lay stress on training the learner's ear and on requiring acceptable pronunciation. The former is naturally necessary before the latter can be achieved. In order that the child may be free to concentrate his attention on listening carefully and repeating fairly accurately, we do not give him a book until about the end of the sixth week. When he receives his book, he is delighted to discover that he can read several pages. The teachers have, of course, centered their early teaching in the vocabularies of the first few lessons of the text. These texts are not followed slavishly, but are used merely as guides for presenting new words and grammatical material.

The teachers realize that grammatical material must be taught, but they postpone it until the need for it becomes necessary. Even then rules of grammar are seldom spoken of as such. For instance, a pupil may know all the forms of the verb "to be" in the present tense and be able to use them correctly in sentences without having learned parrot-fashion to conjugate the verb. He may never have heard the command, "Conjugate in the present tense. . . ." But as soon as the teachers feel that the children need to know some grammatical terms, they teach those terms.

At no time is grammar considered an interesting enough subject to become the main topic of conversation for the day. The children talk—they talk all the time—but they talk about subjects that interest them. They make conversation about their school and their homes. They talk about the different members of their families. They tell what time they get up, what they eat, and when they go to bed. They talk about their birthdays, about the movies, and about sports. At Christmas time they talk about their Christmas presents and at Easter about their new Easter clothes. Of course, the order of these subjects of conversation logically follows the vocabularies of the text. The teachers, however, must frequently supplement the vocabularies of the book. When a child wants to tell what he has eaten for breakfast and cannot find "grapefruit" in the text, the teacher tells him and he proudly records it in his notebook together with other words which do not appear in his text.

The written phase of the work is not neglected; the pupils also do written exercises. Some of these exercises are selected from the book

and others are made by the teachers. The children learn to spell all the words of their active vocabulary, while the words of the passive vocabulary are used only in conversation.¹

Provisions for individual differences—Since the groups are not always made up of pupils having similar capacities, allowance must be made for individual differences. Here the passive vocabulary plays an important role. The superior child learns to spell many of these words, while his less gifted classmate uses them only for conversational purposes. The more gifted child also writes more translations from English into French. He sometimes makes simple original compositions.

The teachers have directed several projects to take care of these differences in ability. Their immediate aim has been to offer an opportunity to the poorer pupils to excel in something. In one instance, several teachers suggested that it would be interesting to have a "French museum" in the classroom if the children cared to make the objects for it either after school under their guidance or at home. The children responded enthusiastically. Some of the interesting objects made by boys were soap or wood carvings of Jeanne d'Arc, Napoleon, gargoyles, French policemen and soldiers, the Obelisk, the Eiffel Tower, the Arc de Triomphe, the Tomb of the Unknown Soldier, Notre Dame, the Madeleine, the Normandie, and Napoleon's Tomb. Several boys made guillotines; one boy who excelled in handwork made one about a foot high which was perfect in every detail. Since he was one of the poorer pupils academically, he probably received more praise and satisfaction from that piece of work than from anything else he did during the year. The girls also made some soap carvings, but on the whole they preferred to make flags or marionettes and to dress dolls in the costumes of the different provinces. Alsace, on account of its colorful costume, was one of the favorite districts. One girl dressed a doll as Marie Antoinette, copying her costume to the minutest detail and not forgetting the jewels.

Large colored drawings of Jeanne d'Arc, Napoleon, Louis XIV, and Marie Antoinette adorned the walls of several classrooms. Maps and flags made by the children were hung in most of the rooms. Several classes made large maps of salt, flour, and cornstarch, on which they placed objects representing an industry, a specialty, or a building of the city indicated. For instance, Paris was represented by a little Eiffel Tower, a Notre Dame, or perhaps a very stylish woman; Grasse was represented by a small flower or bottle of perfume; Grenoble by a glove; Bordeaux by a small bottle marked "vin" or a bunch of grapes;

¹In this instance the term "active vocabulary" refers to the words which the children can use in conversation, recognize in print, and use in writing. The "passive vocabulary" includes the words which they can use in conversation but which they cannot spell or write.

Cherbourg by a boat; Rheims by a small cathedral; Nice by a gay beach parasol; and the Landes by a man on stilts. Other units were a Norman farm, a Basque house, a French bakery (for which the children baked miniature loaves of bread shaped like French bread), and an outdoor market with merchants dressed as peasants and exhibiting their merchandise with prices often marked in francs.

The work on these projects also was voluntary on the part of the pupils and was not done during class time. While this kind of work is valuable, the teachers realize that children do not learn the French language by making a guillotine or a guignol, and the teachers, of course, are primarily interested in teaching the language.

Several classes gave French programs and invited the parents. These programs consisted of French songs and short plays. "Snow White" was chosen in two schools soon after the motion picture of the same name was shown. The plays, which were very simple and called for a great deal of action, were written by the children under the direction of the teachers.

We also broadcast six radio programs, three of which were seventh-grade lessons and the others eighth-grade lessons. Naturally, the children participating derived the most pleasure and profit from these programs, but the others enjoyed hearing them.

Ground covered by the pupils—In the last two grades of the elementary school, the pupils cover the work of the first year of high-school French. In the eighth grade they use the same text as do the ninth-grade pupils in high school, while in the seventh grade a much simpler text is used. Since the children who have studied French in the elementary grades take tenth-grade French during their freshman year in high school, the reason for the use of the same text in the eighth and ninth grades is obvious. In the fall of 1936 our first twelve classes entered high school, and it was interesting to get the reactions of the six high-school teachers who received these pupils. The consensus of opinion was that the ninth-grade pupils who had begun French in the seventh grade had a larger vocabulary, talked much more fluently, pronounced words better, and wrote about as well as the tenth-grade children who had begun French in their first year of high school. The obvious reason for the better pronunciation and the larger vocabulary was that these children had spent a year more in studying the language and had used two texts instead of only one. They had had time to repeat their words over and over, to use them in various ways, to hear them often—in short, to absorb their vocabularies. During the past two years all the other high-school teachers have had an opportunity to observe the product of our elementary-school French classes, and their opinions have been no less favorable than those of the first six.

Contributions of a modern language—After five years of experience in teaching French in the seventh and eighth grades, those who have been associated with the project believe that the study of a modern foreign language makes the following contributions to the elementary-school curriculum:

1. It is a valuable aid to the pupil in correcting careless articulation and faulty pronunciation.
2. It develops an appreciation for the right choice of words.
3. It enriches the child's experience.
4. It helps to build habits of good citizenship. Since the children give many short dramatizations, they must learn to work harmoniously in groups—to be courteous and considerate of others.
5. It necessitates clear, orderly, and analytical thinking.
6. It develops accuracy and precision.
7. It exercises the memory; it demands concentration.
8. It trains the ear as nothing else except the study of music does.
9. It makes the pupils more voice-conscious than they have ever been before.
10. It lays the foundation for an acquaintance with another civilization, thus broadening the view and deepening the sympathy of the child for a people of whom he probably knew very little before his introduction to the study of their language.
11. It is the beginning of a worthwhile recreational interest. The child who continues his study of French in high school will be able to read French books all his life. In this era of more leisure time, surely this contribution should not be underestimated.

In Akron, then, we justify our teaching of a foreign language in the elementary school on the ground that it is educational, disciplinary, cultural, and recreational.

Why French was chosen—The reason French is preferred to another modern language is that French has usually been the first choice among modern foreign languages in high schools of the United States, as well as in the schools of most European countries. This fact is undoubtedly due in turn to the preponderant role that French plays today and has played for centuries as a second spoken language in the entire civilized world. Moreover, French literature is one of the richest of all literatures. Finally, the French language itself probably has a greater combination of desirable qualities than any other spoken language, its distinctive characteristics being clarity, precision, and elegance.

If we can attribute all these values to the study of French, are we not justified in saying that the elementary-school curriculum is enriched by the introduction of this subject?

Importance of competent teachers—On the other hand, merely deciding to give seventh- and eighth-grade pupils an opportunity to study French does not necessarily mean that these pupils will derive maximum benefits from it. The success of the undertaking obviously depends upon the instructional and supervisory staff. Akron considers itself fortunate in having been able to obtain as teachers of French in

its elementary schools eleven young women who are enthusiastic about the language and about teaching it. All are excellent students and are capable of imparting knowledge to others. Each possesses a magnetic personality and a sympathetic understanding of children. They have all studied French and methods of teaching French in schools which specialize in such training. What success we have achieved in Akron in the French field is due very largely to the untiring efforts of these eleven young women, together with the perfect cooperation we have received from the central school administration, the building principals, and the regular classroom teachers thruout the city.

MATURITY is but one factor that affects student achievement in foreign language study. Of equal importance are such factors as the objectives, the materials and methods used in study, the quality of teaching, and the general standards of the school and community in question. Accordingly, the problem of optimal age or grade for beginning foreign language study is not solved by merely determining the relative efficiency of learning the language at different age or grade levels—difficult and complex as this problem may be. The other factors must be taken into account.—Brooks, Fowler D., and Arndt, C. O., in *Child Development and the Curriculum*, Thirty-Eighth Yearbook, Part I, National Society for the Study of Education, 1939, Chapter 14, p. 261-62. (Quoted by permission of the Society.)

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CHAPTER III

MAKING LEARNING CONCRETE AND PURPOSEFUL

EDITORIAL COMMENT

ONE ESSENTIAL FACTOR in effective learning is concrete experience. Preoccupation with verbal abstractions has been a serious weakness in many school programs. This is not to say that abstractions or generalizations should have no place in education. Rather, it means that children can develop accurate concepts only through close contact with reality. In addition to making learning more efficient, experience in real-life situations increases the likelihood that children will use their learning outside the school.

Another requirement of effective learning is that the activities engaged in be purposeful to the learner. It is not sufficient for the teacher alone to know why a particular activity is carried on. Each child must be able to see how his school tasks will help him to reach goals which are important to *him*. It is not suggested that the child always be allowed to do as he pleases. Instead, the teacher should utilize the child's natural interests and purposes to achieve educational objectives that are socially acceptable.

This chapter illustrates both concreteness and purposefulness in learning, with emphasis on activities which disregard subjectmatter lines. Perkins begins the chapter by reviewing units of work at several grade levels. Williams describes the integration of subjectmatter and handwork in all grades. Kibbe and Edlebeck tell how concrete experiences in the first grade made reading more meaningful to the children.

Each of the next three authors deals with a single activity unit. McCarthy reviews a primary unit growing out of the children's interest in mail. O'Connor shows how a fifth grade developed a unit based on the activities of the Boy Scouts. Noyes reports a project in which sixth-grade pupils constructed a large relief map of the United States and used it to show the country's development from earliest times to the present.

The seventh article, by Howard and Arnold, describes the study of a current social problem by sixth-grade children. Derrig outlines the methods used by a group of teachers to extend pupil experience both inside and outside the school. In the last article Mackintosh discusses the school newspaper as a device for vitalizing other school activities.

Additional information on the topic of this chapter is available in the references mentioned on page 373.—*Editorial Committee.*

POST OFFICE



FIRST-GRADE CHILDREN AT WORK IN THEIR OWN POST OFFICE

*Photograph by courtesy of
Mrs. R. M. Mitchell, Jr., First-Grade
Teacher, Davis Street School,
Atlanta, Georgia*

LEARNING THRU ACTIVITY UNITS AT VARIOUS GRADE LEVELS

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ALERT CLASSROOM TEACHERS interested in children and their needs have long recognized the importance of physical activity and concrete experience as factors in learning. The increased emphasis on these factors in recent years has been accompanied by greater attention to the social aspects of child development. Fortunately, manipulation of concrete materials in or outside the classroom not only contributes to individual learning, but also lends itself well to the development of desirable social attitudes and habits thru cooperative group projects. Yet the wise teacher realizes the limitations of concrete activity in fostering the all-round growth of children. She tries to combine the concrete and abstract phases of learning in suitable proportions according to the abilities and interests of the pupils in her class.

The teachers who have guided the classroom activities described in this article believe thoroly in giving children opportunities to work with concrete objects. All of them have led their pupils thru many experiences similar to these. Yet none of them relies upon such activities to the exclusion of drill involving abstract ideas. Abstractions often take on meaning for children if the latter are given appropriate experience with real objects for a brief period of time.

The activities described here have developed thru teacher and pupil initiative, stimulated by opportunities offered by the prescribed courses of study. Altho the social studies have been the basis for most of these enterprises, correlated efforts in other fields have contributed to the completion of each.

Presenting a circus—Thru a patron's courtesy the kindergarten class attended an indoor circus as guests of a classmate. The enthusiastic discussion during the next class session resulted naturally in a suggestion that the class produce a circus. A number of children told how they would like to dress to represent lions, tigers, elephants, clowns, horses, dancing ladies, etc. During several class periods the children looked at pictures of circus animals in books on the library table, described animals they had seen during family visits to the zoo, and chose the characters they wished to impersonate in their circus.

Each child decided how to make his costume, accepting suggestions

¹The following teachers contributed classroom experiences to this article: Anne Gage, Ruth Buchanan, Grace Cobb, Kate Philips, Maude Ramsdell, Viola Dougan, June Kinne, Louina Siverson, and Jean Mackenzie.

from others if he wished. During several work periods the pupils fashioned percale, paper cambric, and other materials into the costumes desired. Altho the teacher gave help as needed, the finished materials reflected the children's individual plans, so that no two costumes were alike. During other periods the pupils used Patty Hill blocks to build a strong animal cage with a runway from the cloak-room. As the setting for the circus neared completion, a child asked whether mothers might see the performance. The group answered this question in the affirmative and planned a program for parents. They also invited the first-grade pupils to see their costumes and handwork.

Thru this enterprise the children learned to adopt purposes and to plan to achieve them by the use of various materials. The constructive phases of the unit stimulated growth in manual skill. Ideas took on fuller meaning as they were realized in dramatic form. The children learned about circus characters thru impersonation. Valuable lessons learned by cooperating with others and by accepting individual responsibility also contributed to their growth.

Studying farm life—Some of the first-grade children returning from summer vacation told of their visits to farms. Because of evident group interest a study of farm life was begun. Several pictures of farm scenes, together with stories of the farmer and his work, led to the discussion of buildings, animals, plants, and foods found on the farm. Parents took the children in their cars to a nearby farm so that the class might get firsthand information about these subjects.

Further study led the pupils to decide to build a farm, and to discuss the buildings their farm should have and the kinds of shelter needed for different farm animals. All cooperated in planning the arrangement of the buildings on an area which they covered with heavy wrapping paper. Then the class was divided into groups and a part of the activity was assigned to each. From corrugated paper boxes the children made their buildings and painted them white trimmed with red. Animals were made of wood cut with coping saws, and the farm family was represented by stocking and raffia dolls.

The children's interest in reading was stimulated by learning to recognize in books and pictures many words dealing with the farm. By reading stories of farm life written by the teacher at their dictation and later assembled in book form, the pupils began to realize that we may read books to secure information. Growth in oral English was evident as they told original stories, invited other classes to see their farm, and prepared talks to describe their work to the mothers whom they invited as guests. Children used their own initiative in designing covers for farm booklets, and made a frieze to represent their idea of a farm scene. Thruout the activity they learned to use

materials economically, to store their unfinished articles, and to take proper care of a paint brush.

This activity gave the pupils a knowledge of farm products and their uses. They came to appreciate the importance of group organization, and developed the power of observation and the traits of self-reliance, fair play, and orderliness. A few pupils showed ability to lead others, while those with less initiative developed self-confidence by undertaking tasks which were within their ability and necessary to the success of the enterprise as a whole.

Visiting Holland—To set the stage for the unit on Dutch life in Grade II, the teacher posted about the room many pictures of scenes in Holland. All the books on the library table contained stories of Holland attractively illustrated. The children read these as interest prompted, in addition to supplementary readers describing the life of Dutch children. During the reading and attendant discussion a pupil suggested a visit to Holland. Of course the whole class wanted to go with him. They were eager to find out the best way to travel. Since most of the children had never ridden on a train, they made a trip to the union terminal station, where they visited a dining car and a sleeper with the beds all made up. Posters showing the conveniences of ocean liners provided the pupils with the necessary background in regard to that means of transportation.

The children enjoyed making things described in their books. From two barrels and a bushel basket they built a windmill with sails attached to a crank which they could turn. Using two kindergarten tables, they improvised a cupboard bed in which each child "slept" in turn. In the sand table they constructed a Dutch village and farm, with water in the cemented canals, real grass growing in the meadows, and cork boats floating on the canals. Toy animals and Dutch dolls made the sand table very realistic. Each child made a six-inch clay tile, with a design in blue and white, for the fireplace. All worked out individual Dutch designs which they applied to paper cups, plates, napkins, and doilies. They also designed and painted large posters with scenes from Dutch life, and learned Dutch songs, dances, and games. After constructing a crude gangplank for the "ocean liner" and preparing original explanatory talks, these children dramatized their trip for other classes, inviting their mothers to one performance.

For four weeks the pupils found their understanding of Holland and its people extended thru their work in art, spelling, reading, music, and physical education. They came to associate with the Dutch people such commendable traits as industry, cheerfulness, cleanliness, neatness, and courage, and expressed admiration for such characteristics in those about them.

Learning about Vikings—In Grade III the study of this early people began with the problems they had faced in making a living, and included their mythical folklore and stories of daring adventurers. In addition to the use of supplementary and reference books, the children gleaned illustrative material from magazines and advertisements, and searched many readers for Viking stories. Interest was furthered by sets of Viking pictures borrowed from the library and the museum.

Group enthusiasm led children to suggest ways in which they might reproduce some phases of Viking life. Among others they built a large Viking boat, made costumes and armor, drew a large panel for the classroom depicting a Viking scene, and wrote original poems and stories. To unify the study, the children planned a dramatic program based upon the story of King Harald and Gyda from *Viking Tales* by Hall.² This play required the writing of dialog, and provided a constructive use for the costumes and armor previously made. One scene used the Viking boat. The children's creative interest was reflected also in original stories and poems read by the authors, as well as in dances interpreting Norse life. Several children prepared books of drawings with written descriptions of Norse dress and occupations.

Thru this activity the children built into reality a world first conceived in imagination. All set sail in their own boat in quest of adventure; all participated in the assembly program growing out of their activity; and each found satisfaction in this integrated effort toward a desirable goal. Pupil growth was shown thru improved cooperation in small groups, evidence of leadership in a few children, greater readiness to appreciate individual contributions, and pride in the result achieved by the entire class.

Living with American pioneers—Children in Grade IV had obtained some understanding of the hardships faced by pioneers in the Westward Movement thru their study of early Cleveland and their visit to the Historical Museum in the previous grade. After reading textual material and stories of pioneers in library books, a group of these pupils suggested several things they might make or do much as the pioneers did. From this list each child made one first choice and two more which he would accept. After completing the object of his first interest, a child might work at another or assist a classmate. Among the items suggested were a log cabin, furniture, a patchwork quilt, dressing dolls as pioneers, samplers, a covered wagon, a flatboat, weaving rag rugs, and posters showing pioneer activities. Making candles and soap were group activities directed by the teacher.

When some of the objects were finished, pupils described their methods to the class so that all might understand them better. After

² Hall, Jennie. *Viking Tales*. Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1902.

a few of these oral explanations the class decided to summarize its work in a program. This involved writing explanations of charts and of illustrations in booklets showing styles of dress and materials used to make them. Children also wrote invitations to parents and an article for the school newspaper, while many wrote the descriptions which they were to present orally in the program. In the gymnasium these children learned some of the dances enjoyed by frontiersmen and the tunes that went with them. Growth in oral English was stimulated by frequent opportunities for discussing the life of the pioneers and the means used to represent their life activities clearly.

Thruout this unit of work the children improved noticeably in their willingness to help each other and in their individual responsibility for the work of the class. Altho a child occasionally expressed lack of interest in his chosen activity, his perseverance was stimulated by the accomplishment of others and by his pride in executing his share of the group plan.

Finding out about bees—An interesting story about bees discovered in their reader stimulated a class of fourth-grade children to seek further information on this subject. For factual material they read reference books and scientific articles in magazines. In addition, they had living and dead specimens of bees for classroom study, and were privileged to see slides and a movie depicting bee life.

Their enthusiastic interest provided the stimulus for arranging a program that would present to others many of the facts they had learned. Since this program was given in the classroom, small groups of children and parents were invited from day to day. The program was divided into two parts, one factual and the other consisting of romance and fiction. The first part included information on the parts of the bees' bodies, classes in the hive, products of the colony, and care of the young. A large chart containing questions covering the main facts formed the basis for a Quiz Bee. The second part of the program presented the creative work of the children. It pictured personified bee characters in various activities, using some fantastic ideas similar to those of Maeterlinck. It also included original stories and poems as well as interpretive dances. To their mothers the children served tea, honey, and cookies.

This unit of work fostered worthy group cooperation and provided opportunity to recognize the value of individual accomplishments. The class learned to organize the contributions of its different members into an ordered sequence. The individual pupils improved their skill in using reference books, tables of contents, and indexes. They learned to scan a page rapidly for special information, and improved their ability to express thought orally. Their pleasure in sharing a chal-

lenging interest with others and their skill in presentation developed self-confidence for further school tasks.

Getting acquainted with the early Egyptians—Because the civilization of ancient Egypt surpassed that of other early peoples studied during the second semester of the fifth grade, the art, architecture, and life of the early inhabitants of the Nile Valley receive major emphasis at this level. One class, after learning the important facts of Egyptian history and the principal activities of various classes of the population, decided to present a dramatization of an Egyptian story or legend. All members individually read as many Egyptian stories as they could find, and told them to the class. Each story was either placed on the list of possibilities or definitely rejected. When the number of possible stories had been reduced to three, these were read in class and one was selected.

In class discussions the children suggested scenes for dramatic action, characters that should be used, and the kinds of stage scenery needed. With careful guidance and assistance from the teacher, they also wrote the dialog. The stage represented an Egyptian house, a garden, and a temple. Decoration of the set demanded accurate knowledge of Egyptian art, and the costuming of characters approximated the dress of the period. The play stimulated the pupils to do extensive reading and to use written and oral English for a purpose. Some measurement and many computations were necessary in building the scenery. Decorating the set presented an opportunity for rich artistic experience. The play itself introduced a characteristic group dance.

Thru this unit all the pupils gained a knowledge of life in ancient Egypt and an appreciation of its gifts to modern civilization. A few showed traits of leadership not recognized before, and all gained a sense of personal achievement thru their individual contributions to the success of the group enterprise. The cooperation essential to success was the result of improved social attitudes and increased recognition of the values of group effort.

Studying medieval life—Following several class periods in which children in Grade VI discussed the fall of Roman power and the resulting eclipse of civilization, the following question was regarded by these children as very important: What was the life of the people during the Middle Ages like, and what do we owe them? In group discussions several phases of this question were proposed, most of which were accepted by individuals and by groups for further study. The children's next purpose was to gather information about their special topics and to formulate and execute their plans for presenting this information to the class as a whole.

The activities of individuals and groups included the preparation of

reports, the presentation of dramatic interpretations, and the dressing of dolls as medieval characters. Later many of these dolls were grouped in a setting to represent a medieval fair. In addition, one group of children constructed the layout of a manor with buildings made of clay. Another group built a castle of wall board and decorated it appropriately. In these activities the children correlated their oral and written English, art, and shop work. They also discussed some of the geographical factors operating to produce the situations in which people lived during the Middle Ages.

From these activities the children learned to secure information more rapidly and accurately thru silent reading, and to outline this information in preparation for its later use. The success of group and individual enterprise was directly related to growth in self-direction. The completion of accepted tasks helped children to recognize acceptable standards of work. Thru cooperation in pursuit of a definite goal, each child learned to appreciate the abilities of other children and to recognize talent for leadership.

Charting a nature trail—Identified by numbered markers corresponding to a prepared key, the trees, shrubs, and perennial plants near the school form a nature trail which is used by all upper-grade classes in elementary science. Preceding a certain school-levy election an evening program was planned to present the activities of the school to local citizens. One sixth-grade class accepted the responsibility for telling the audience about our nature trail.

Group discussion quickly led to the children's choosing Jimmie, "good in art," to draw the plan upon which the explanatory talk would be based. Jimmie selected two members of the class to help with the outdoor measurements needed for his drawing. While this committee was completing its preliminary tasks, the remainder of the class enthusiastically reviewed previous lessons on drawing to scale and on the identity of the plants and trees in the nature trail. Thus they individually expressed their interest in the work of their chosen representative.

While drawing the chart, Jimmie and his committee evolved a key to identify the various items on it. Several members of the class who were "good at lettering" assisted in adding the numbers and names to the chart. Jimmie himself explained the chart and the children's use of the nature trail to the audience.

Previously Jimmie had appeared bored with school, giving to his tasks only as much attention and effort as were absolutely necessary. Thru the confidence expressed by the class in choosing him for an important task, he completely changed his attitude toward academic subjects. Evidently he recognized the functional values of English and

arithmetic in completing his work on the chart, and the enthusiasm thus aroused continued for the remainder of his elementary-school life and extended to all subjects studied. His interest in elementary science led him to collect and mount leaves and butterflies, and to build bird houses and feeding trays. More significantly, Jimmie identified himself with the interests and activities of his class, and thus won his classmates' approval and appreciation of his ability. It is not strange that he soon found himself accepted as a leader in all group activities, on the playground as well as in the classroom.

Conclusion—The activity units described above are typical of many worked out by the teachers and children in the Boulevard School. However, such units in no sense displace the drill commonly used in teaching tool subjects and basic concepts. The outcomes of each enterprise included motivation of academic learning, improved social attitudes as evidenced by modified conduct, and worthy development of individual personality. The procedures used followed one general pattern, with variations in detail and emphasis from class to class. The greatest value of such procedures lies in giving children opportunities to live close to reality and to strive toward challenging goals thru avenues of their own choosing.

ALL educators everywhere are enjoined, therefore, to close up the gap that exists between the school and life by recognizing the full meaning of the principle that the community and social institutions are themselves functions of education, and that the ultimate worth of any social arrangement whatever is the extent to which it makes a desirable difference in the individual life. No fixed, predetermined body of subjectmatter should be allowed to obscure the teacher's vision here. The student is not to study about life's problems, customs, and institutions; he is to experience them as concrete realities.—Harris, Pickens E., *The Curriculum and Cultural Change*, D. Appleton-Century Co., 1937, p. 364. (Quoted by permission of the publishers.)

INTEGRATION OF HANDWORK AND SUBJECTMATTER
LEARNING

CLAUDE L. WILLIAMS

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FOR THREE-QUARTERS OF A CENTURY there has been continuous experimentation and discussion concerning the handwork of the elementary schools. The debate has included the nature and amount of handwork to be undertaken, its placement in the grades, the amount of time that it should receive, and the question of whether it should be taught by the regular teacher or by a special teacher.

After many years in which manual training and household arts were taught by special teachers, the Chicago schools in 1933 eliminated formal training in both these subjects from the first eight grades. Among many experiments to introduce more handwork into the curriculum since that time was one conducted at the Wentworth School during the first semester of 1937-38. This project was an attempt to fuse or integrate various subjects with the handwork in all grades from the kindergarten thru the eighth. It was undertaken with the official sanction of the superintendent of schools, and had the cooperation of special assistants from the school department of manual arts and from the department of manual arts at the teachers college of the city. There was no appropriation for supplies other than those furnished regularly to all the schools of the city. After a late start due to three weeks' delay in opening schools in the fall, the experiment was continued until January 20. On that date a demonstration of the class work, as well as an exhibit of the finished products, was held for the benefit of the directors, supervisors, principals, and teachers of the city.

SELECTION OF UNIFYING THEMES

In order to have a unifying center about which much of the work could be organized, the teaching staff adopted the theme, "The Pageant of the Murals." This idea was suggested by the murals which had been placed in the building on three different occasions. A brief explanation of these murals will assist in understanding why the theme was selected.

In 1904 Norman Hall painted for the walls of the old gymnasium-assembly hall two very attractive murals depicting scenes from the King Arthur legends. Grown dark with age and neglect, these paintings were recently cleaned and retouched by WPA artists and thus gave an additional appeal to what is now our library. In 1926 a large new assembly hall had its walls decorated with thirteen murals by J. F. McBurney, depicting scenes from the life of Abraham Lincoln, the Westward Movement, Indian life, and the life of D. S. Wentworth,

who was the first president of the Chicago Normal College and the educator for whom our school is named. In addition, three murals suggested by the characters in *Little Women*, *Huckleberry Finn*, and *Tom Sawyer* were painted recently by Florian A. Durzynski under a WPA grant. Still another painting is entitled "Modern Youth."

Since the subjectmatter of the murals was too advanced for children in the primary grades, the latter were left to choose other themes for their handwork. For the middle and upper grades, however, these murals offered much inspiration for many of the undertakings. The entire school was engaged in the experiment, and each teacher kept in mind the desired integration of art, music, literature, history, dramatics, and handwork. The handwork served as a binding force for the other subjects and furnished a means of expression for them.

ACTIVITIES IN THE PRIMARY GRADES

In the kindergarten and primary grades the children were studying the home, the community, the helpers, the shops, the transportation, the family, and the school. The following paragraphs indicate some of the activities carried on in each grade.

Kindergarten and first grade—As a means of increasing reading readiness, the kindergarten teachers developed units on the home and on transportation. Daily discussions of these topics elicited contributions from the various members of the four kindergarten divisions. Pictures were introduced, excursions were conducted, conversations were held from day to day, and stories were read or told by the teachers. The children expressed themselves thru the media of clay, drawings, blocks, and construction paper. The study of transportation was quite extensive considering the ages of these pupils. Horses, wagons, automobiles, streetcars, railroads, and airships received attention in turn and were of great value in extending and enriching the children's concepts.

Typical studies and projects undertaken in the first grade were the construction of a doll house with its furniture, equipment, and inhabitants; a study of the kinds of stores in the busy section of Englewood nearby, and the building of a street and shops of construction paper, including many objects found in the real shops; and a carefully developed post-office project following an excursion to the branch post office which serves our school.

Second grade—The pupils of the second grade reached out a bit further in their study of the environment, developing a unit on the farm with its crops, its animals, its houses, its silo, and its workers and their means of transportation. Many of the children had spent part or all of the preceding summer on farms, and these added generously to the

available information. This work involved reading, English composition, songs, graphic art, and handwork of various kinds. These pupils, as well as those in other grades thruout the school, found means of expression not only in the work of the classroom but also in the assembly hall thru dramatics, costumes, games, and other features of what we term work-type assemblies—that is, assemblies that are direct outgrowths of the classroom experiences of the children. Much of the reading, for instance, proved itself appropriate to an audience situation, and so was presented as a feature of assembly work. There was, however, no better expression of the children's newly acquired understandings and appreciations than that found in their handwork.

Third grade—Going still further from home, the children of the third grade studied life beyond the seas. Their reading included stories from Japan, China, and Holland. The visual education department furnished slides and movies that helped them to understand these countries. *My Weekly Reader*,¹ with its graded lessons, was of great service in obtaining a grasp of the subject. Many children in the community are of Dutch descent; so in the study of the Netherlands these pupils brought in wooden shoes, costumes, and other mementos of the days when their ancestors were in their native land.

A large amount of handwork grew out of these studies, including Japanese kites, costumes, lanterns, pagodas, shrines of various kinds, and collections of coins, Chinese writing, fans, stamps, and other items. One child brought in a long list of Chinese letters or characters sent over from China by a missionary. Not only in the social studies was handwork introduced, however. In natural science the children studied real trees, plants, leaves, and flowers of many kinds. This work called for mountings, drawings, and other means of reproducing specimens on paper.

ACTIVITIES IN THE INTERMEDIATE AND UPPER GRADES

Fourth grade—It was in the fourth grade that the influence of the murals mentioned above became quite evident. The study of Indians, regularly placed in this grade, began with an observation of the Indian murals in the large assembly hall. Colorful, bright, dramatic—these figures greatly influenced the thinking of the young people with respect to the Indians. A number of Indian projects were undertaken by the various fourth-grade rooms. One room made a special study of the Iroquois and constructed a village with the homes, the braves, the squaws, the dried venison, the skins beside the doors, and the curling smoke from the fire. Another group worked out a large Pueblo home

¹ *My Weekly Reader*. Columbus, Ohio: American Education Press. (Published in five editions for Grades I-VI.)

with its tiers of cave-like rooms and their inhabitants. A number of small dioramas were developed showing the work and other activities of the Indians. Bracelets, rings, and necklaces of beads were produced in great numbers, and basketry, weaving, clay modeling, pottery, and drawing were popular. New interest in Indian stories and legends was engendered, and the library was called on frequently for aid. When Indian Week came around, an assembly was held in which the fourth-graders shared with the other grades the knowledge they had gained about the early inhabitants of our country. The Indians thus became flesh and blood like the other people about us, and were no longer thought of as wild savages to be hunted down and killed or mistreated.

Fifth grade—An important unit of the history course for the low fifth grade is devoted to the study of Chicago. This is always a very popular subject with pupils and teachers alike. In the present experiment, various texts were consulted for information about the early history of the city; compositions were written; pictures of the early homes were studied and reproduced; maps of the Chicago area were drawn, based on those of early explorers as well as those of more recent date; a set of slides was prepared tracing the growth and development of the city, including the early settlements, the great tragedy of the Chicago fire, the two world fairs, and some of the leaders who have made the city what it is. A model of Fort Dearborn was the children's masterpiece. This familiar log fort was constructed with great success; the furniture, the supplies of food, the arms for defense, and the immediate surroundings were all shown with great satisfaction to the pupils and to the edification of parents and other guests who visited the school from time to time. In the process of construction, the children used three-ply wood, cardboard, and many other materials, much of which was brought from home.

In addition to the other sources of information consulted, the children studied the murals so far as they bore on Chicago history. Scrap-books with clippings and illustrations from many sources added much interest to the entire project.

Sixth and seventh grades—In the sixth and seventh grades an integrated study of the King Arthur legends was inspired by the colorful and dramatic scenes painted on the walls of the library. From the study of these murals came a new interest in the stories of King Arthur. Histories, encyclopedias, reference books, and special texts on the children's level were consulted for further details. The armor, the costumes, the weapons, and the characters of the legends were studied and appreciated in a new light. One class made a group of wooden figurines, neatly carved and appropriately decorated in colors. Many posters were painted and displayed in the classrooms. A very effective project

was the making of transparencies for the library windows, depicting characters and scenes related to the episodes represented in the murals. As they worked, the children seemed to catch much of the spirit of the murals and much of the knightly qualities of the characters which they were reproducing. Since the work in these grades is departmentalized, the success of this series of projects was due largely to the fine cooperation of the librarian and the teachers of history and art.

In addition to the activities just described, the series of murals dealing with Lincoln and the series depicting the Westward Movement served as the inspiration and general pattern for many friezes, drawings, clay models, and other art products illustrating and emphasizing the history of the country. Still another unit was concerned with the development of the book from the early papyrus rolls thru the manuscript books and the printed volumes of various types. In mathematics many geometric figures were worked out; designs from old quilts and from Gothic windows were used in making transparencies for classroom windows.

The procedure followed in these projects raises the question of the place which this type of art work has in a school. The writer believes that the depicting of characters from history and literature should be only one phase of art education, but that when properly directed it has fine teaching values. Among these values are many intangible ones that are often overlooked in evaluating results.

Eighth grade—Perhaps the fullest integration of subjectmatter was achieved in Grade VIIIA. An example of this was the children's production of the operetta *Tom Sawyer*, by Clemens-Paynter-Schafer. The librarian, the teacher of eighth-grade art, the physical education teacher, and the teacher of music and literature cooperated in making this a very valuable project from all points of view. The scenery was painted by the children under the direction of the art teacher, and was remarkably good considering the ages of the pupils. The play called for a large cast. Some unusual voices took part in the solo and small group songs, and the choruses also were well done. The acting and the general character of the production were most gratifying. The production was presented in its entirety on three occasions—once for the lower grades, once for the upper grades, and once in the evening for the parents. In addition, excerpts were given on the day of the general demonstration of handwork and art (described below), and were repeated as part of the school's graduation exercises.

More gratifying even than the dramatic effect of the production was the spirit of cooperation among all the teachers, the pupils, and the community in bringing about an integration of the work in art, music, literature, the library, dramatics, physical education, and history.

A SCHOOL DEMONSTRATION DAY

As a climax to the work of the semester, an entire day was set aside for demonstrating the handwork and art as fused with the other subjects of the curriculum. About three hundred public school teachers, principals, supervisors, and students from the teachers college of the city were invited to see the finished work of the school and the classroom procedure used in producing it. To avoid overtaxing any one teacher in the school, it was arranged that the first forty-five minutes should be a demonstration period for the eighteen rooms having odd numbers. This cross section of the work of the building was followed by a demonstration of work in the rooms having even numbers. An effort was made to have the work as natural and genuine as possible. It was recognized that in such a demonstration there is danger of overdoing and of overpolishing the work of the pupils. Many remarks heard on the day of the demonstration, however, led the teaching staff to believe that it had succeeded in presenting a genuine example of cooperation and of methods of securing satisfactory integration.

Following the demonstration of classroom work, the guests were invited to the library to meet the teachers in a social way and to be served a cup of tea by the parent-teacher association. Recesses were lengthened for this purpose, and the teachers were thus given a chance to relax from their duties of the morning.

Later in the day, a more formal discussion and evaluation of the work was carried on in the large assembly hall of the school. Participants in this were the district superintendent, the supervisors of the various subjects, the instructors from the teachers college, and the classroom teachers of the city.

VALUES OF THE PROGRAM

The values of such a program are always a matter of debate. The traditionalist always fears for his precious subjectmatter. The opposite viewpoint is that many pupils who get little or nothing from the ordinary presentation of materials in the class are given an opportunity to succeed in an integrated program of activities. In our experiment we found many children gaining confidence and power who previously had had no interest in school. The feeling of common interest in one big undertaking proved inspiring to the teaching staff as well as to the pupils of the school.

The plan of having all teachers responsible for the handwork of a school has the advantage of encouraging the development of projects at the time needed and by the teachers most familiar with the subject-matter involved. It tends to encourage simplicity and to produce nat-

ural results somewhat more than does the plan of having handwork directed by specialists in the field. On the other hand, the occasional suggestions and advice of a special teacher seem essential; in this experiment the special teachers of handwork did much to make the undertaking a success.

A danger to watch for and guard against is the engendering of so much enthusiasm on the part of the staff and pupils that an unfavorable reaction will occur later on. A principal should be ever on the alert for signs of "nerves" and overstrain when his whole school is focusing attention in a specific direction. In our own school, however, we find many important and lasting values in an undertaking of this kind.

THE integrated curriculum organizes the educational program in such a way that the child will be the focal center for growth and development. Thus, learning becomes effective only to the degree that the whole child is interested. The course of study should have sufficient enrichment and flexibility so that the teacher may continue the varied learning processes, whether they be securing informations, developing certain attitudes and appreciations, or cultivating certain skills. Moreover, pupils should be recognized as individuals and permitted to progress in accordance with their learning ability and the amount of time available. This varied plan of teaching may involve large groups at times and small groups at other times. The relative amount of class instruction, of small-group teaching, of individual assistance, of routine drill, and of individual and self-directed effort must be left to the judgment of the teacher. The extent to which the teacher leads the child to help himself and thus to become independent of assistance is the best indication of progress in learning.—Oberholtzer, Edison E., *An Integrated Curriculum in Practice*, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937, p. 10-11. (Quoted by permission of the publishers.)

VITALIZING READING FOR FIRST-GRADE CHILDREN

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IN RECENT YEARS the problem of introducing children to reading activities in a satisfactory manner has been uppermost in the minds of first-grade teachers. Studies of elementary-school reading have led educators to believe that many of the undesirable reactions and poor reading habits frequently found among children are due to first-grade programs which have required children to engage in reading activities before they were sufficiently ready to learn to read. A delay in beginning reading, together with a program for developing reading readiness among first-grade children, has been suggested as a solution for the problem. As teachers have tried to act upon this suggestion, many have found themselves unprepared to direct a non-reading program which would stimulate desirable growth and preparation for reading, while others have shown great resourcefulness in providing desirable experiences, promoting worthwhile interests, stimulating expression, offering opportunity for creative expression thru language, music, art, and dramatization, and developing desirable social attitudes and habits.

First-grade teachers often ask what they should do if they are not to begin teaching reading from books at the first of the school year. Probably the best answer to this question is that the first weeks of school should be spent in living together—working, playing, sharing, and helping. During this period the wise teacher observes and studies the children so that she may know best how to guide them. She tries to discover the timid child, the overly confident child, the insecure child, the secure child, the inhibited child, the expressive child, the dependent child, the independent child, the nervous child, and the well-poised child before going far in any program of instruction.

When the teacher becomes acquainted with the children's personal experience, their interests, and their social and emotional life, she may plan a program which will develop the various attitudes and skills necessary for successfully learning to read. She may begin by conversing with the children about their homes, pets, toys, families, the nursery rhymes, stories which they know, or any group interest, and then lead them on into new experiences, new interests, and new understandings which may develop into interests in reading. Obviously, this approach

not only helps children to get more from their reading later on, but also enriches their present living to an extent not hitherto achieved in many first-grade classrooms.

The following pages describe the reading readiness program followed by one of the authors in a class of first-graders during the first eight weeks of school. This program, altho merely illustrative of many things that might be done, is presented because it apparently developed an unusually fine attitude toward school, toward group life, and toward the activities of reading and expression.

Learning nursery rhymes—At the beginning of school, a border of pictures illustrating nursery rhymes was exhibited to attract the children's attention and to stimulate expression. Each child was encouraged to select one of the pictures and to recite the corresponding rhyme. The most popular were "Jack Be Nimble," "Hickory Dickory Dock," and "Humpty Dumpty." The children showed appreciation of the rhythm, and within a week most of the group could say at least six complete rhymes. The border provided opportunity for the pupils to interpret pictures and to associate them with interesting poems. Class discussions disclosed the accuracy of concepts of such words as "meadow," and the general background of information possessed by each child. Victrola records of the rhymes aided in securing group attention, developing a sense of rhythm, and stimulating expression thru group singing. Much choral work helped to encourage participation by the more timid child.

Experience with toys—In order to discover the timid child who lacked social adjustment, the children were asked to stand before the group, introduce themselves, and tell about some toy or plaything they had at home. Then, to impress on them that there is a reason for, and meaning in, both reading and writing, each child's name was written on a card which he wore pinned on him for several days and kept for future needs.

Each child was asked to bring his favorite toy to school, and when he did he answered questions about it, such as:

Where did you get the toy?
How do you play with it?

To further develop the child's oral language ability, this game was played: One child would stand near the toy table, and another would go to him and receive a toy. The latter would then say, "You gave me a ———," and would add one sentence about the toy. For example, "You gave me a truck. You can haul ice on a truck." This activity made provision for sharing ideas. Many of the toys suggested rides. Such words as "train," "airplane," "automobile," and "boat" were listed

on the board. Each child chose one of these and drew a picture to represent it. The words were printed on flash cards, and the children then matched the cards with the words on the drawings. This gave practice in visual discrimination. The children talked about and drew pictures of the things at school which they rode on, such as swings, scooters, tricycles, and teeter-totters. The drawings were kept for a booklet entitled *Rides*.

Since reading involves taking something to the printed page—that is, experience—a seesaw was built and a chart about the seesaw was made. When the children showed that they had a clear concept of *up* and *down*, they were asked, "How do you go?" and the answer was printed on a chart, as follows:

We go up and down.

Up and down, up and down.

A picture of a seesaw labeled "Up and Down" was pasted on the chart for the children to make comparisons. Having mastered this vocabulary thru a concrete situation, the children were prepared for the first pages of the *Alice and Jerry* pre-primer,¹ which they soon discovered they could read.

Discrimination of colors—Color discrimination came into the program the first week. Color cards on display invited identification by the children. The children played a game of finding other things in the room that were red, blue, etc. Then they went outside the schoolroom and found more colors. A rainbow one afternoon suggested a short discussion on colors. One child informed the others that when bubbles are blown, one can see the rainbow colors. So a bubble party was planned for the next morning. The children brought their bubble pipes and many of them had a new experience.

This activity suggested some formal seatwork. The teacher prepared a page of bubbles and on each she printed the name of a color. The children were then told to color each bubble as directed. Some of the children had to refer to the color charts, while many of them did not. To provide more exposures of the color words, each one was printed on a large sheet of paper. The children decided they would like to paste something of that color on the page; so they searched for magazine pictures. They put these pages in a booklet entitled *Colors*.

Experience with pets—One morning a little boy brought a picture of himself on his pet pony. He told the class many interesting things about his pony. The teacher tried to get the other children to ask questions. The next day another child brought a picture of his dog and told all about it. Then more pictures of pets came. As each child told about

¹ O'Donnell, Mabel, and Carey, A. E. *Alice and Jerry Books*. New York: Row, Peterson and Co., 1936.

his pet, his name was added to a chart with the heading, "Who has a pet?" The children found great joy in reading:

Carl has a horse.
Billy has a dog.

Since some of the children had no pictures to bring, they were invited to bring their pets to school. As a result, a Pet and Nature Show was planned for a Friday afternoon assembly. Children who had no pets were allowed to bring flowers or something else for the nature collection. Each child prepared a little talk about his pet, telling the kind it was, its name and the reason therefor, where it was obtained, where it lived, what it ate, and some other interesting characteristics. The teacher challenged the children with this question printed on a sheet of tagboard, "What will you bring to the Pet Show?" Each child had his answer printed on a page of the class book. For example, Carl said:

I will bring my horse.
I can ride on her.

By referring to the chart, "Who has a pet?" the children could find the animal names in the book. They could also read many of the children's names. The pets were listed on the board also, and before the day of the pet show each child could read the entire list.

One of the games played with the pet names was "Taking the Pet Away." As one child would pretend to be taking care of the pets, another would approach him saying, "May I have a dog? I want to take him for a walk." The caretaker then would erase the word "dog."

Pictures of the animals that were to be entered in the pet show were displayed and labeled. These included a horse and a goat, but the cow and the pig were not represented. The children decided that it would be necessary to make a trip to a farm to see the latter two animals. Each child drew a picture of his entry for the show and labeled it. These pictures were made into a book called *Pets*. A song was composed for the opening and closing of the show. The second grade was the audience. Ribbons were awarded.

A trip to the farm—The next week the children prepared for their farm trip. The subject of rides was brought up again—how would they go to the farm? Five mothers consented to take the group in cars. The children decided that in order to find a farm it would be necessary to drive out into the country. They hoped to see the cows, pigs, chickens, horses, dogs, cats, sheep, geese, ducks, and turkeys. It was the interest in animals that brought the children to the farm. They decided to ask the farmer these questions:

How do you keep the cows and horses in the barn?
What do you feed the cows and horses?
Why do you have a kitten and a dog?
Where do the pigs stay?

In approaching the farm, the group passed the field where the cows were grazing and stopped to look at them. The farmer had black and white cows and red and white cows. Some of the children knew that the black and white cows were Holsteins, but they did not know the red and white cows. That was a question they would ask the farmer. They observed a cow eating, watched how she moved about, and noticed her characteristics.

When they got to the farm they met the farmer, and upon request he took them to the barn. There he showed where he kept the cows and where he fed them. In answer to the question of feeding, he took the group to the silo and showed them the silage. A load of corn was standing near the silo, and the farmer told how silage was obtained. The collecting committee took a little bag of silage and a stalk of corn. At the horse barn, the farmer took a horse out of the stall so the children could see the horse's shoes. The horses were eating hay and the next request was to see the haymow. The children learned how the farmer grows hay and saw the hole where he throws the hay down to feed the cows. Several of the children handled a hay fork. They saw the straw stack and learned the use of straw. The question, "Where do you get the straw?" led to the granary. There a kitten was sleeping near a window, and the farmer said she was there to catch mice. The children were shown the oats and wheat, the chickens and pigs. They learned why the farmer raises pigs. They went to the machine shed, where they identified several pieces of machinery. They saw the farmer's wife in the garden and were shown the vegetables and the orchard. The farmer's dog was very friendly and the children enjoyed him. They saw no children, but one lad said, "They must have some children because there is a tricycle on the porch." The class returned to school with these facts:

The horse wears iron shoes. They are nailed on the hoof.

The red and white cows are Guernseys.

We get straw from grain. It is used for bedding.

Grain is oats and wheat.

Silage is cut-up corn.

The haymow is near the roof of the barn.

The horse wears a harness. He pulls machinery.

Among their collections they had grass seed, corn seed, some hay, straw, silage, a stalk of corn, and some oats and wheat.

Activities following the trip—The next day the children drew pictures of the various things seen on their trip, and then elected a committee to make a frieze of the farm. Every child helped the committee with this project. The frieze contained pictures of all the farm buildings with their natural surroundings. The animals and buildings were labeled. The frieze was used to build vocabulary by having the children

describe the buildings and their uses. For example, one child went up to the frieze and said:

This is the barn where the farmer keeps the cows and the horses. The cows are in this part. The horses are back here. They go in this door. The haymow is in the top part of the barn near the roof. When the farmer wants to feed the animals he throws hay down through a square hole in the floor.

In answer to the question, "How does the farmer get hay?" a child might tell this story:

The farmer plants grass seed. It grows so high. Then the farmer cuts it with a mower. The wind and the sun dry it. Then it is raked into piles and the farmer loads it on a wagon and hauls it to the barn.

When asked, "How does the farmer get the hay into the haymow?" a child might reply:

He puts the wagon load by this door. Then he takes a big fork and the horses pull it up with a rope through this door. The hay falls in the haymow.

The class also made a chart about the trip, as follows:

We went to the country.
We stopped at a farm.
We saw the farm animals.
We saw the farm buildings.

On another chart were listed the farm buildings, and on still another the farm animals. A list of the people on the farm was drawn up. Since the charts were the children's own sentences they could read them. They also made comparisons with the words on the frieze. Later this study of the farm was used in making *Our First Reading Book*; the children made their own pictures to illustrate each sentence on the charts, and on each picture a copy of the appropriate sentence was pasted. When these booklets were completed, the children had little difficulty in learning to read from a book.

In addition, games were played with the word cards displayed alongside the pictures of the things seen at the farm. For example, a child would say, "I went to the farm and I saw a cow." Then he would take the word "cow" and stand aside. The next child would say, "I went to the farm and saw a cow and a horse." This game was varied by adding a sentence about the animal which each had seen. Or, a child would take a card with "house" on it and make two statements about the subject, such as:

If I had a farm I could build a house. The farmer, his wife, and the children live in the house.

or

If I had a farm I would build a silo. I would plant corn and when it is ripe I would cut it up and put it in the silo.

The children composed a song about their visit to the country, and dramatized the animals greeting them on their arrival. Later the song was written on the board, and as the children sang it the teacher showed the left-to-right character of the lines. The children recognized words they had met before. They had little trouble locating the animal cries. Cards bearing these words were used for matching.

During the conversation about the farmer's family, the children began to talk about their own families. Each child then went to a chart which presented the question, "Who are in your family?"

father	boy
mother	girl
baby	

The child might say, "In my family we have a mother, a father, a baby, two boys, and one girl," meanwhile pointing to the words. Sometimes, if the family was small, the child counted all the members. In other cases he counted only the number of children. This vocabulary builds a background for the pre-primer, *The Little Road*,² and one group of children could read to page 17 in that book without having had specific instruction.

Studying animals—In the study of animals, the horse was taken first because he is the biggest and the strongest of the animals seen on the farm. Discussions and dramatizations led the children to these conclusions:

The horse can gallop and run.
He can give us rides.
The horse pulls machinery for the farmer.
He eats hay.

To get a chart story, the teacher let a child pretend he was a horse and he told the following:

I am a horse.
I work on the farm.
I give you rides.
I eat hay.

By this time the children had begun to notice sentence beginnings, such as "We," "I," and "This is."

The subject of horseshoes was of great interest. Several types of shoes were brought to school, and those of the working horse were compared to those of the race horse. The children learned who the blacksmith is, and studied several pictures of a blacksmith at work. After discussing the horse's use to man, the children were given this question for consideration, "What happens to the horse after he is no longer of use to the farmer and is too old to enjoy living?" The next

² Heffernan, Helen, and others. *The Little Road*. Chicago: Lyons and Carnahan, 1931. 44 p.

morning the children gave these answers as a result of consultation with their parents:

The horse is killed and the meat is ground up for fox food.

The grease is boiled out and used in making soap.

The horse's hide is sent to the factory and made into leather products.

The last statement suggested looking thru catalogs for horse-leather products and making a poster of them. The children had an opportunity to examine some pieces of natural horse and pony skin as well as the finished leather.

Still another activity consisted of gathering pictures of the horse at work and making a booklet of them.

The next animal chosen for consideration was the cow. After reviewing the kinds of cows the farmer had, the children learned that there are other breeds of cows. A display of colored pictures showed five common breeds, and the children went home that day to ask their parents why the farmer keeps more than one kind of cow. Many responses were received as to the quantity and quality of the milk produced by different breeds. The children gathered pictures of cows and tried to identify their breeds by referring to the colored chart. Later, several days were spent on milk products and on the life of the cow.

Conclusion—At the end of the first eight weeks, wide differences in reading readiness were apparent among these children. A few of them were still in the stage of matching and interpreting pictures. Others were actually reading easily in pre-primers. All showed fine response in group discussions and social activities. The teacher was constantly on the alert to detect ability in following a sequence of ideas and organizing them for retention; to note oral language ability; to discover story interests and special abilities in drama, art, and music; and to encourage the hesitant child. The children exhibited very satisfactory social adjustments, great interest in their experiences, increasing skill in expression, and definite interest in reading.

In any program for beginning first-grade children, it seems wise to capitalize on things which the children themselves suggest; to give them a real understanding of every activity undertaken; and to make every activity contribute something to the children's readiness for reading. Enrichment in any field can take place only thru genuine interest and understanding.

AN ACTIVITY PROGRAM IN A SECOND- AND THIRD-
GRADE CLASS

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A NEW TEACHER in the next room! Where was the teacher who was there last year? Who was the new teacher? These questions were asked of the writer on the first day of school. Why were the children so inquisitive and friendly the first hour in a new grade? The reason was that the IIB's had been in the same room the previous term as IIA's. *They* were asking the questions. The other half of the class—the IIA's—had been in the east wing the preceding term. Encouraged by the friendly attitude of the IIB's, they gathered round.

"The new teacher lives far from here—about 3000 miles—in Seattle, Washington," was the reply. "The teacher from Windmill Street School will not be back all year, as she is in Seattle to take the place of the new teacher in our building."

Altho maps are not generally used in the second and third grades, the writer has a large wall map of the United States and one of the world that she uses when such an occasion arises. To some of the children the map of our country meant only a spattering of pretty colors with blue on both sides. A few, however, were able to tell how many states there are in the United States. One child asked to be shown where we lived. The children's attention was then called to the different sizes of the states. After several questions, one child pointed out that our state, Rhode Island, was the smallest one on the map. Then another child discovered the largest state. Did the new teacher live there? It was then explained that the part of the map painted blue was water. One child remarked that there was water on both sides. Briefly the children were told that we lived near the Atlantic Ocean, and that the new teacher lived away across the country near the Pacific Ocean. First, they located the state of Washington (being told only that it was near the top of the map and very near the water), and then the city of Seattle. The latter took several minutes, as they were not told how to spell the word, but were instructed to sound it out—*Se-at-tl*.

Ninety-eight percent of the class were Italian children. As a rule, they are free from repressions and their spontaneous conversation is refreshing and enjoyable.

A growing interest in mail—The discussion continued. Would Miss U. . . . stay in Providence all year? How would she know how her family and friends were? Someone made the suggestion that she could write a letter home, and that they would write her in reply. How long would it take for a letter to go from Providence to Seattle? One of the

IIIB's asked how she had traveled to Providence. We had studied about ocean liners the previous term—hence that question. "Wouldn't it be a friendly act to write Miss U a letter and tell her we are glad she came to our school? At the same time you may ask her the questions you have been asking me." The discussion ended with the children's desire centered on writing the new teacher a letter.

As letter-writing is not usually taught until the IVB grade, a suitable letter form was placed on the board as a guide. Following is a letter sent by one of the class:

Dear Miss U.

We are very glad to have you at Windmill Street School. Do you like it in Providence? Do you like teaching at Windmill? I would like to know how you traveled to Providence. Was it by boat, by train, or by airplane? Do you miss your mother and friends in Seattle? How long does it take for a letter to go from Providence, Rhode Island, to Seattle, Washington?

Sincerely yours,

Patsy Trappassi

Miss U. 's reply to this letter, answering all the questions, aroused a general interest in mail. In further group discussions the following questions were asked:

1. Why do some letters have a two-cent stamp and others have a three-cent stamp?
2. How much does it cost to send a letter to Italy?
3. How would a letter travel to Italy?
4. What happens to a letter after it is placed in the mail-box at the corner?
5. How do the markings get on the stamps and envelopes?
6. Where is the post office nearest to our school?
7. Might we visit the post office?
8. Could we build a post office in our room?

The group decided that if we were to build and operate a post office in our room we would have to see a real one. Therefore, a letter was written to the superintendent of mails, asking permission to visit the main post office in our city.

Dear Mr. K.

We are studying about mail in our class at school, and would like to visit the post office to learn more about it. We want to build a post office in our room at school. It would help us if we could see one first. Please let us know when we may come. If you will be kind enough to give us permission we will appreciate it very much.

Sincerely yours,

Angelo Viticonte

Preparing to visit the post office—The next few days were anxious ones in anticipation of a reply to this letter. In the meantime, the writer explained briefly the general routine of the Post Office Department. This explanation brought forth many questions. The children, wishing to contribute their share to the activity, brought in envelopes of every

description that had been received in their homes. Stamps and post cards which caught their attention were added to the collection. Among the many interesting pieces of mail were government post cards, meter-mailed envelopes, and open-face envelopes. One envelope that aroused particular attention was a pictorial one depicting the highlights of Houston, Texas, and describing the economic and commercial importance of that city. A postage-free government envelope completed this varied collection of interesting and instructive mail matter.

Finally a letter arrived from the superintendent of mails, granting the favor asked and setting the date for our intended visit. To realize the most from our visit, it was decided that each child would have a question prepared to ask the man who would be our guide. The following questions were typical of those prepared:

1. Where do you mail letters going to our city?
2. Where do you mail letters going out of our city but in the United States?
3. Where do you mail letters going out of the United States?
4. Where do you mail letters going by airplane?
5. What is the first thing that happens to a letter mailed at the post office?
6. How are letters sorted?
7. Who sorts the letters?
8. What happens to a letter after it is sorted?
9. What are mail-bags made of?
10. What is the difference between a mail-pouch and a mail-sack?
11. How much does it cost to send a letter "air mail"?
12. How much does it cost to send a letter "special delivery"?
13. What is the color of a special-delivery stamp?
14. What is the color of an air-mail stamp?
15. What is the postmaster's name?
16. Why do some postmen wear stars on their sleeves?
17. Why do mail-trucks have no number plates?
18. Does an air-mail plane stop at Providence?
19. What does the canceling machine do?

In further preparation for our visit, several children wrote letters to mail while at the post office. Norma wrote to her mother, who was in the hospital at the time. John wrote to his aunt, who lived on a farm in Rhode Island. Rita wrote to her grandmother in California. Joseph wrote the following letter to Houston, Texas:

Dear Uncle and Auntie,

I can imagine how it feels to be in Texas. I would like to know about your babies. How are they coming along? Are they healthy? I hope they are. I think you will like to know about this. Our teacher is taking us to the post office. I will mail this letter there.

Your loving nephew,

Joseph Spinelli

About this time Ralph—a crippled boy who had been a behavior problem since entering school, and who had just recently been transferred from an ungraded group—began to show an active interest in letter-writing. The opportunity was here presented to show him the

importance of his regular schoolwork, in which he had heretofore accomplished very little in spite of his natural intelligence. He now began to realize the importance of good penmanship and spelling, and his desire to write letters with the other children created a willingness to master these subjects. In a few days he showed a marked improvement. As an incentive, it was suggested that he write to a brother of the author's in Detroit, Michigan, who is employed by an automobile manufacturer. Ralph spoke frequently of automobiles, and was able to distinguish the various makes. Being an intelligent child, he wrote an interesting letter.

Our trip to the post office—Accompanying us thru the post office was a friend of the author's who subsequently became an active correspondent of the boys in the class.

Immediately upon entering the building, some of the children hurried to the stamp window, while those without letters to mail stood in front of the letter drops, watching attentively each person as he deposited his letter. Proudly those with letters purchased their stamps, being careful to specify the denomination required for their particular letters. Carefully they placed the stamp in the upper right-hand corner; then they joined the group in front of the drops, making sure that their letters were correctly deposited.

Upon our return from the post office the following story was composed by the group:

OUR TRIP TO THE POST OFFICE

Tuesday our group visited the main post office. We rode down city in the school bus. Mr. W., a friend of Miss McCarthy's, introduced us to the superintendent of mails. Mr. K. took us through the post office. He showed us where the letters came through the drops. We saw them fall on a counter inside. A board separates the city mail from the mail going out of town. The clerks take the letters and put them on the round table. The thick letters are taken off the round table because they will not go through the canceling machine. All the letters are faced up so that all stamps are in the right-hand corner. Next they go through the canceling machine. The machine puts marks on the stamps and at the same time puts the postmark on the envelope. The postmark tells the city and state, the date and time the letter was mailed. The thick letters are canceled by hand. After the letters are canceled the clerks separate them. Joseph's letter was put in the box that said South. Rita's letter was going to California. It was put in the box that said West. Ralph's letter to Detroit also went in this box. Norma's letter was placed in the Providence box. John's letter went in the Rhode Island box. The letters are sorted again so that all mail for one city is together. Next the letters are tied up in little bundles. These bundles are then put in the mail pouches. The pouches are locked and put on the U. S. Mail trucks. The trucks have padlocks on them, too.

Mr. K. had a surprise for us. We learned that more than letters go through the U. S. Mail. There were four cardboard boxes full of little yellow chicks—only one day old. About fifty chicks were in each box. Mr. K. told us the chicks would live for three days without being fed. They were mailed

in Pennsylvania Monday and were in the Providence post office Tuesday morning. They were going to a farm in Rhode Island.

John, Norma, Rita, and Ralph bought stamps at the stamp window. The stamp clerk showed us many kinds of stamps. They were all colors. The ten-cent stamp is yellow. An air-mail stamp is orange. It costs six cents. The clerk showed us a stamp that cost five dollars.

We are going to write a letter to Mr. K. and Mr. W. to thank them for being so kind to us.

Studying examples of domestic and foreign mail—To illustrate the various denominations of stamps and the different classes of mail, envelopes that had previously been mailed were mounted on construction paper. This exhibit included an envelope that had carried a special-delivery letter, a registered letter, the wrapping from an insured package, air-mail stamps and envelopes, postage-due stamps, letters returned to the sender for a better address, and letters that had been forwarded to a more recent address than the one shown on the envelope. A printed explanation was placed under each envelope. These samples instigated many questions.

As many of the children's parents or grandparents were foreign-born, they were somewhat familiar with foreign mail but could not explain the difference between domestic and foreign postage. Added to the group of posters, therefore, were several letters originating in foreign countries, including one from Genoa, Italy. The foreign postmark, stamp, and designated U. S. A. destination of this letter resulted in much comment. The association of Genoa, Italy, and the discovery of America was vividly called to mind by several children from a story they had read in a previous grade about Columbus. An envelope mailed in Sydney, Australia, was almost a curiosity because the postmark was in our own language.

The map of the world served as an important factor in our study of foreign mail, the countries of its origin, and the countries and waterways traversed in reaching the United States. The art teacher had visited Ireland and a card from her mailed in Dublin provided further use for the map. Envelopes mailed in Marseilles, France; Shanghai, China; and London, England, provided further incentive to learn how letters travel. The postmarks shed interesting light on the time it takes for a letter to come across the ocean as compared with our domestic mail.

Building and operating our own post office—In planning our post office, we posted the following list of needed materials:

Egg crates
Laths
Cigar boxes
Scale
Printing set

Orange crates
Compo-board
Wrapping paper
Cardboard
Paint

A committee was appointed to collect these articles. As each child contributed something, it was checked with the original list until a sufficient quantity of each kind of material was obtained.

Another committee was formed to construct the post office. Material for the framework was furnished by Anne (whose father worked in a lumber yard). The crates formed the front and one side. Apertures were left in the front for the stamp window and the registry window. The cigar boxes were painted, numbered, and tacked to the crates on one side to serve as individual letter boxes. On the other side were the doorway and the letter drops. The wall of the classroom served as the rear of the structure. On this was painted a background depicting a sorting case. Two cardboard images were made with their right arms raised to represent clerks sorting mail. Laths were used in the windows. Inside was a counter under the drops to receive mail deposited. Cardboard cut in a large circle and nailed to an egg crate served as our "round table." A sorting scheme for our own needs was devised according to streets in the neighborhood and classrooms in the school. The inside of the crates, subdivided with cardboard, made a very realistic letter case.

Children nominated and elected the postmaster, two clerks, a custodian, and a postman each week. Requisites for these positions were cleanliness, neat appearance, courteousness, and efficiency in number work. John's father donated a letter-carrier's hat, and we made a letter-bag from burlap. Each day regular deliveries were made in the school. Incoming mail to our class was sorted in our improvised case. Regular correspondence was frequent. Mr. W . . . typed letters to the boys explaining mail routine. They answered his letters and received stamps and postal specimens in return. Play money and stamps were made by the children to complete our quite efficient post office department.

Helpful publications—A shipment of library books pertaining to mail, which was loaned us for two months, served as an invaluable source of information. These books were chosen by the librarian to fit the grade level of the children. From them the children learned why people traveled westward in covered wagons about a hundred years ago. They also read the colorful story of Buffalo Bill and the Pony Express. The books on early mail and modern mail transportation furnished comparative material for oral and written language stories. "Uncle Ray's Corner," an article published in a local paper during the school term, covered another phase of the history of mail. The United States Post Office Department in Washington was a lucrative source of information, supplying booklets on a variety of topics related to the mails.

Our stamp club—Many of the children became philatelic-minded, and stamp collections grew rapidly. The manufacturers of a well-known brand of butter published a stamp book, which the children sent for with coupons that came with each pound of butter. The sending for these books presented a further opportunity for letter-writing, as each child wrote individually for his book. The stamp club created a new interest in mail. Everyone was eager to secure new stamps as they appeared in the group. The many colors and denominations of stamps were readily appreciated as the collections increased.

Excursions—There was great excitement one day when Louis, our postman, delivered a red, white, and blue envelope addressed to Ralph. The children gathered round him as he inspected the postmark. It was a letter from Detroit, and was distinctly marked "Air Mail." So much interest was manifested in this letter that a trip to the airport was planned. Arrangements were made for a school bus to transport the children, as the airport is about six miles from Providence. We left school about 9:30 A. M., each child carrying his lunch. At the airport, a guide took us thru the administration building and the hangars. When the time arrived for the mail plane to land, we gathered in front of the administration building. We returned to school in the early afternoon.

Many letters resulted from this trip. Following is the one which Carmella wrote to her father, who was in Florida:

Dear Daddy,

When we went to the airport I saw a big airplane that brings mail to the airport station. It is owned by the American Airlines. It carries twenty-one passengers. Most of the people were going to Boston. One man got off at Providence. We saw the airport station, too.

Your loving daughter, Carmella

The boys, during the course of their correspondence with Mr. W....., wrote that they would like to see him again, and he promised them a surprise trip. This particular class was comprised mostly of girls, and contained only twelve boys. Six of the latter obtained permission to take the trip Mr. W..... had promised them. Since most of the group were underprivileged, he thought a trip to Benson's Animal Farm in New Hampshire would delight them. An entire day was spent in making the trip. Many interesting reactions resulted, as evidenced by the letters like the following:

Dear Mr. W.....,

I enjoyed the trip to New Hampshire very much. I thought the ride on the elephant was fun. I was not frightened when the pony threw me. I like the swing where we stopped to have supper. I am trying to have a good report for you.

Sincerely yours, Ralph

Correlation with school subjects—The activity described above was closely correlated with several of the regular school subjects. Following is a summary of these interrelationships:

1. *Art*—Paintings and drawings consisted of people writing letters, the letter carrier delivering mail, the postman collecting mail from the corner box, the mail truck at the mailbox, the clerk at the stamp window, people buying stamps, clerks sorting mail, a mail plane traveling over the city, a plane receiving mail pouches from a truck at the airport, mail trains, ocean liners that carry mail, and a mail plane leaving a ship to rush mail to port. National Air Mail Week inspired the production of several posters. Each holiday and each birthday of a member of the class or his family presented an opportunity for creative art. Cards commemorating the day were made, as were the envelopes for mailing them. Play money, imitation stamps, and envelopes were made for all our correspondence.

2. *Arithmetic*—The children saw the need of number combinations in the operation of their post office. They learned to make change in the buying and selling of stamps. This familiarized them with the size and denomination of coins. Multiplication helped them when a customer purchased several stamps of the same denomination. The postal clerk often found it necessary to solve problems of a two- or three-step nature. The children learned to tell time from the study of postmarks, as the clerk marked the time on each envelope passing thru our post office.

3. *Geography*—The collection of stamps stimulated interest in the various countries and their location on the map. Reading the postmarks of domestic mail familiarized the children with the name of practically every state in the United States.

4. *Reading*—There was seldom a seat vacant at our library table with its colorful and interesting books pertaining to mail. Pamphlets from the Post Office Department in Washington and booklets made by the children were also placed in our library. The need for reading was prevalent from the very beginning. First there were the plans, needs, and committees. Each child learned to read the name and address of every member of the class, as well as the names of teachers and their room numbers. Before a child could act as clerk in our post office he had to be able to read the names on the sorting case. Signs, posters, information on the letter box regarding the time of collections, and page headings in the stamp books also called for reading. Regular school notebooks were ruled off and headed by letters of the alphabet to serve as individual dictionaries. New words and their meanings were listed on the blackboard, and every Friday they were transferred to the children's booklets. These dictionaries varied in size, as many children added words from other sources on their own initiative.

5. *Language*—Situations were constantly occurring which involved oral language. From the start the interest of the children led to an eagerness of expression. In language groups the plans for building our own post office were discussed. As the activity progressed, each phase provided for a variety of oral work.

Written language also played an important part thruout the entire activity. Nearly every day some children wrote original letters to each other and to their friends outside the school. The greeting cards commemorating various holidays and birthdays bore verses and greetings composed by each child. The original letters, cards, and stories of unusual interest were mounted on construction paper and exhibited in the classroom.

6. *Poems and music*—The library books provided several appropriate poems which were read and memorized for appreciation and enjoyment. The music supervisor contributed many songs that the children found most enjoyable.

Conclusion—It is difficult to summarize all the evidences of concrete and purposeful learning which an activity of this kind produces. Many

of these have been mentioned in the preceding pages. It will suffice at this point to cite two specific cases in which the results were especially gratifying.

Ralph is not the same boy who entered the class several months ago. He is no longer an unhappy child, pitying himself because he is not liked by the other children. During the course of the activity he became the "star" correspondent of the class. He learned that suitable behavior earned approval from his classmates.

During the summer Ralph spent several weeks at a hospital undergoing treatment. He wrote to the boys of the class and they in turn answered his letters. A letter which he wrote to Mr. W. . . . during that period follows:

Dear Mr. W.,

I am feeling well and hope you are the same. Miss McCarthy came to see me yesterday and I showed her all over Crawford Allen Hospital. The boat runs all right. Last night a boat sank in the water. Miss McCarthy said she was going to play golf and she stopped to see me.

Sincerely yours,

Ralph

By the opening of the fall term Miss U. . . . had returned to Seattle, and the class had advanced to another grade. However, following the disaster that befell our city in September of that year, Patsy, the girl who had written the first letter to Miss U. . . . , came to my room one afternoon after school and asked for her address. She had composed a letter at home which she thought would interest Miss U. It read:

Dear Miss U.,

Do you know what we had? We had a storm that was a hurricane. There was a flood down city. The water was thirteen feet deep on Dorrance Street. Houses were blown away and roofs caved in. Many people were killed. Some people are still missing. The ventilator blew off the roof and fell on the grass. Mr. P. had men take it away. There was no school for two days.

Sincerely yours,

Patsy Trapassi

THE index at the back of this book is a convenient guide to particular topics and authors.—*Editorial Committee.*

AN ACTIVITY UNIT IN GRADE V

HELEN CLAIRE O'CONNOR

Fifth-Grade Teacher, Windmill Street School, Providence, Rhode Island

What are you sowing, teacher?
Chaff that the breezes carry away?
Seed that will wither and then decay?
Seed that will flourish but for a day?
Or sow you the dreams that endure alway?
Pray, what do you sow in your sowing?

Irl H. Dulebohn, in the *Journal of Education*.

WHEN CHILDREN ENTER our classrooms to begin a term's work, they prefer to invest their energies in something which will satisfy their present interests. The great wealth of the immediate present is fascinating to them. They want to know about airplanes, streamlined trains, ocean liners, radio—the things with which they are living. Around these, or some of the other vital interests of young people, the teacher plans her unit of work for the term.

In making her plan, however, the teacher provides for more than the present needs and interests of the pupils. She knows that the instinctive curiosity of children—their natural way of questioning to get at the source of things—will eventually carry them back thru the rich past. She knows, too, that a little later this same instinctive curiosity will result in naive meditation concerning the future, even tho they are not now aware of it, and she appreciates the fact that the impressions made upon these young minds today will be the stimuli of their more mature thinking in later years.

Providing the means of learning—The first step in the teacher's plan is to provide a well-equipped laboratory for the children to work in. Children learn quickly, and often by themselves, if the means of learning are given them. Like our forefathers who had no schooling but who learned in spite of that fact, boys and girls like to explore, to experiment, to make comparisons; and when they have drawn conclusions, they are anxious to verify them. They also want to create, and since this tendency is the immature expression of what they wish to contribute to the world, the means for it must be generously provided. While their contributions are often worth very little to anyone but themselves, various mediums of expression must be supplied.

Many people still feel that too much money is spent on the things which make school life pleasant for children. Such people do not realize that these pleasant methods produce an emotional reaction which far surpasses in effect the urging and bribing of parents who are anxious to have their children like school. They do not realize that these attrac-

tive methods have a disciplining power which greatly exceeds that of the old dunce cap and rattan system of ruling. Nor do they appreciate the fact that bringing children into frequent contact with the beauty of the world—nature, music, art, literature, friendship, and human kindness—helps to fortify them against the uglinesses of their present and later lives.

Plenty of suitable reading material (of a general nature, since the unit of work has not yet been selected) must be placed in this laboratory. Thru our books we travel, we meet people of the past and present, we enjoy other people's experiences, we form likes and dislikes. And while we are thus growing intellectually, socially, and morally, we are acquiring a taste for something with which to occupy our leisure time, now and in the future.

The opportunity to progress in arithmetic, language, spelling, and penmanship must be available also. One cannot work without tools, whether in constructing a table or in developing his own cultural background. But fortunately the tool subjects are no longer emphasized as ends in themselves; nor are they any longer presented in the stereotyped fashion which formerly caused many a child to become absolutely allergic to the mere mention of the word "school."

Finally, there should be a trained technician in this laboratory. The teacher's place in the picture might be compared to that of a chemist's. She must have a knowledge of the science which treats of children's moral, social, mental, and physical characteristics and needs. She must be able to provide whatever vitamins her pupils need for their general growth. And she must, by her own sympathy, sincerity, and encouragement, make her classroom laboratory a happy, busy workshop.

Selecting the topic of the unit—The second step in the teacher's plan is the actual selection of the topic which is to be the basis of the term's work. The method of selection will vary with the children, the teacher, and the environment. Let us step into a specific classroom during the first week of the term to see what procedure was followed there.

Miss X had a fifth-grade homeroom and had been more or less familiar to her new charges when they were in the lower grades. Nevertheless, as they entered her room the expressions on their faces were somewhat doubtful. They seemed to reflect the idea that one never knows what a person is like until one has lived with him. Some children smiled tactfully; others quickened their steps to get seats near some object of interest. One or two whose older brothers and sisters had left a successful record on Miss X's book introduced themselves as the brother or sister of "So-and-so." That seemed to be a good opportunity to make the situation less formal. Miss X expressed delight in meeting these younger members of families with whom she had

already become acquainted. Some of the other children sought immediately to make themselves acquainted thru some common interest. One child remembered a visit which Miss X had paid his former teacher; Miss X had admired his drawing of a fire truck at the time. One boy's father worked in the bank and knew all the teachers. Another child's father was a state representative. He, according to the little girl, was going to ask for higher salaries for the teachers.

The situation was warming up. The children were asking what the unit of work was to be. Miss X suggested that they just think about it for a few days while they were getting settled in other ways. If she had any plan or secret hope for the work that was to be carried on during the term, it seemed wise to withhold it for the time being. She was not yet acquainted with the group as a whole. She was anxious to study the charts which would enlighten her as to the abilities and achievements of the newcomers. Desks, chairs, and tables had to be arranged and rearranged to fit their physical and social needs. The room had yet to take on a little personality and "atmosphere."

The principal of the school, in making his morning visit a few days later, asked the children what decision they had made regarding their term's work. There were as many responses as there were children in the room—architecture, farming, radio, astronomy, communication, manufacturing, aviation, woodcraft, and whatnot. It occurred to the principal and Miss X that many of these topics are included in the study which the Boy Scouts have to make before they become full-fledged members of that organization. Since there were two scouts in the class, this opinion was easily verified. A very lively discussion ensued, the scouts telling in detail of what their work consisted, and the other children asking questions.

That afternoon the two scouts wore their uniforms to school. They also brought their scout manuals and samples of different kinds of work which they had learned to do at scout camp. They had personal photographs showing the details of their out-of-door scout life, and they invited the rest of the class to accompany them over their favorite trail to a nearby camping site on the following Saturday morning. This aroused wild enthusiasm. One boy suggested "Living with the Boy Scouts" as the title of the unit of work. The school principal thought that the young ladies in the class might think differently, but since there were only eight of them and since the enthusiasm of the thirty-two boys was completely overwhelming, the idea was adopted. Later it was learned that very little is taught to the Boy Scouts that is not also taught to the Girl Scouts.

Planning the program of work—On Monday morning after the hike, the teacher's program read, "8:45 A. M.—Conference to plan work."

When the children were faced with the responsibility of planning how the work should be carried on, they were not at a loss for suggestions. The conference was a bit noisy and not too orderly, since everyone was anxious to be recognized. (Later in the term such conferences were quite as dignified as any attended by adults.) The activities suggested by the members of the group who could be heard on that first morning are summarized below:

1. Appointment of a committee to bring in books and other reading material on Boy and Girl Scouts and their work.

2. Appointment of a committee to make a relief map which would show the route taken by the hikers on the previous Saturday.

3. Making a scale drawing of this route.

4. Practice in using a compass, and a night study of the sky to determine the position of the North star. (The children had been told on their trip that every true scout can find true North by this star.)

5. Making a fire without matches, making a tent, making a blockprinted hanging showing several kinds of native trees, visiting an airport, etc.

Using the tool subjects—During the conference just mentioned, nothing was said about arithmetic, language, spelling, or the other tool subjects. Quite unconsciously, however, these children provided their own problems in arithmetic—reading scale maps and finding surface measurements, perimeters, and many a use for common fractions. At a later date one of the boys brought his scout manual to Miss X. He was reading a section about trees, which stated, "The Redwood tree is a giant tree which is often 190 to 350 feet in height and 8 to 20 feet in diameter."

"What does 'diameter' mean?" he wanted to know. "And how can I tell the diameter of a tree when I want to know it?" The boy was given the information which he sought, and he in turn gave some practical demonstrations of his knowledge when he and his companions were near trees whose size aroused their curiosity.

One group of children, in making a tent, used a piece of unbleached cotton cloth ninety inches wide and five yards long. Much practice was involved in estimating the dimensions of various-sized tents and in measuring the material for construction of their own tent. As the term's work went on, problems developed which required the teaching of every step of fifth-grade arithmetic and much more.

Every type of language work also was used in developing the unit. In all conferences, good English and sentence structure were kept in mind. Business letters were written, asking for the prices of books, for crystal radio sets, for literature on forest conservation, and in one case, for permission to visit an observatory on some clear night. Personal letters, original compositions, and original poems were written; stories were told; a "boy scout's dictionary" was made; and the Open Eye Club was organized for and by the members of the class, with the

requirement that each member must be on the alert to observe in detail all worthy things which he might see, either indoors or outdoors, for the purpose of relating these observations to other members of the class.

The construction of a class book entitled *Boy Scout Composers* was a major part of the written language work. Papers submitted for this book were rewritten many times because of errors in capitalization and punctuation, improper use of quotation marks, poor titles, incorrect language usage, bad paragraphing, or an inadequate working knowledge of the parts of speech (even tho, in this grade, the pupils are not expected to know much about the parts of speech as such). Making reports, debating, and giving directions were other valuable phases of the children's experience in constructing this book. Remarkable patience was exhibited by the children thruout the undertaking. They seldom complained or tired of their job. The incentive to have their work accepted for the class book seemed to outweigh any aversion which they might have felt. The principal of the school, who took an active interest in the entire proceedings, suggested that the finished book be sent to the children's ward of a local hospital. This the children heartily approved.

Penmanship and spelling went hand in hand with the other work. No child was allowed to put any word into his dictionary unless he thoroly understood its meaning and could use it in his conversation. He was not obliged to have mastered the spelling of the word, altho it was hoped that its frequent use in his written work would fix the correct spelling in his mind. Carelessly written papers were returned to their authors. Papers on which the letters were incorrectly formed were also returned to be rewritten.

Manual activities—As part of the industrial art work of the class, Indian wampum belts were made on handmade looms. Gay borders about the room showed the various scout symbols and explained the significance of each. One group worked on a blockprint hanging which told the story of a communication from the primitive Indian methods to the presentday systems of radio and wireless telegraphy. (The children learned the Morse Code and used it freely in their own communication.)

On one occasion the children were taken by bus to the state's large airport, where they were escorted to the radio tower and allowed to listen to messages coming in from planes which were then on their way to the field. They watched a wireless operator working on outgoing messages. They were instructed in the procedure which planes use in following radio beams, and they witnessed the arrival of one of the largest passenger planes in use on the Atlantic coast.

A few days later, work on a small crystal radio set was begun by a group of boys in the class. The directions for making this set were taken from the book, *Boy Electrician*,¹ by Alfred Powell Morgan. The building principal again gave personal assistance in arranging the inside and outside aerials, and in clarifying such technical terms as "double-slider tuning coil" and "fixed condenser."

Developing patriotism and good citizenship—During the entire school term, great emphasis was placed upon the two major aims of the Boy Scout organization—patriotism and citizenship. The special teacher of social studies tried to instill in these young minds a true appreciation of the ideals of those men and women who have fought for the welfare of this country. This teacher thoroly enjoyed going back into the past with the children. She made the stories of the Pilgrim fathers and the other early settlers take on a personal meaning for them. The story of the American Revolution thrilled them. She found them very much touched by the story of the Civil War, Abraham Lincoln, and slavery.

As a part of their activity the children demonstrated to other classes the various forms of respect which are given the American flag. They showed how the flag is used as a distress signal, how it is used in unveiling ceremonies, and how it is used in window displays or on platforms or as a sign of mourning. They put on an original short sketch entitled "Honor Thy Neighbor," in which good citizenship was the keynote. On Friday afternoons a fifteen-minute period was devoted to telling about good deeds of scouts the world over. On one occasion a girl in the class spoke of the compliment which Colonel Theodore Roosevelt once paid the scouts who, at the time of a terrible fire in Manila, had helped 3000 homeless people to safety and distributed food and clothing to the sufferers.

During this fifteen-minute period on Fridays, a group of children in the class worked out concretely their ideas of helping in times of distress. The result was the construction, in miniature, of a town flooded by the rising waters of a river. In this miniature creation, houses, automobiles, business blocks, and trees were wholly or partly submerged in water, the water being represented by papier-mâché molded and colored to look like a strong current full of dirt and debris. Falling chimneys, floating roofs, uprooted trees, and other terrible results of flood were shown in this representation of disaster. Boy Scouts were shown helping people to safety, serving food, and saving personal belongings.

Four months later a tidal wave swept the state in which these children lived, taking hundreds of lives and carrying thousands of homes out to

¹ Morgan, Alfred Powell. *Boy Electrician*. Boston: Lothrop, Lee and Shepard Co., 1914.

sea. Property damage amounted to one hundred million dollars. Martial law was declared in the city to protect what was left. Boy Scouts were pressed into service of every nature. They directed traffic, searched for lost bodies, arranged temporary shelters, and acted as messengers for the disabled telephone and telegraph offices. It was a shocking experience to these children who had been playing the part, but it showed them conclusively the value of their activities of the preceding school term.

We would like to protect our children, now and in their later years, from the sadness of such things. Since we cannot guarantee them a future free from harm, we must give them the knowledge and inspire in them the faith and moral endurance which will help them to help themselves and others under unfortunate conditions.

A dynamic morality does not consist of a set of precepts or even of a set of habits. It cannot be achieved by study, by imitation, by inspiration, or by fragmentary occasions of freedom and minute experiments in limited self-direction. Morality which is more than conventional respectability results from the *realities* of one's personal relations, not from their appearances or trimmings. . . .

The task set for any one who is preparing for the work of character education is to investigate the problem of how the community, in its institutions and daily life, may provide those experiences of fellowship, social participation, thoughtful consideration of values, and responsibility for results by which alone true character can be achieved.—Hartshorne, Hugh, *Character in Human Relations*, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1932, p. 6, 7. (Quoted by permission of the publishers.)

A SIXTH-GRADE UNIT IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

ELEANOR NOYES

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THE SOCIAL STUDIES prescribed for the sixth year by the course of study of the Montclair schools embody the geography and history of the United States. The teacher's problem is to combine these and all other subjects, except possibly the definite teaching of skills in arithmetic, into a year's unit of work having a common core of thought and designed to accomplish the following:

1. Provide the child with material which is an integral part of his environment.
2. Provide intellectual material which will be diverse enough to stimulate each child's mind at his present level of mental development.
3. Point the way to further intellectual growth.
4. Lead to purposeful activities suitable to the individual differences within the group.
5. Create situations which will bring about cooperative attitudes as well as development in habits and skills.

With these purposes in mind, the teacher in planning for the new year's work conceived the idea of constructing a large map, topographically correct, upon which the children could experience graphically the growth of what is now the United States from the earliest time about which science can theorize to the present year.

PREPARATION FOR THE UNIT

As a basis for the work, the teacher prepared the social studies subjectmatter in detail, arranging it chronologically so far as this was feasible, and constantly inserting the cultural and scientific developments that would broaden the child's viewpoint. Paralleling this, she listed a wide variety of suggested activities for both individual and group participation. The plans soon incorporated much more than could be accomplished by a class in one year. This was to the teacher's liking, for she did not propose to thrust suggestions upon the group, but wished to be ready to guide them in time of consultation.

Planning the approach—In addition to the selection and arrangement of instructional material, the problem of how to create the center of interest or initiate the unit needed consideration. The nationwide celebration of the 150th anniversary of the signing of the Constitution offered one possible approach. Why have such a gigantic celebration? Why are other democratic countries issuing stamps honoring our Constitution? Have other countries always been interested in our development? Discussion of these and many related questions could lead into the unit. Thus, a broad and flexible plan of initiation was decided upon. As will be evident later, flexibility is desirable—in fact, necessary—in

a thoughtful, modern approach to education. In this case the approach was unconsciously made by the children, without undue imposition of the teacher's ideas. A narrow, predetermined approach would have thrown the unit "off balance," and there would have been no tie-up between the children's conferences and the actual beginning of the unit.

The classroom and its equipment—Naturally, with a large map as part of the plan, a few changes were needed in the setup of the classroom. The teacher envisioned the map as being approximately five by eleven feet in order that the growth of the country might be represented adequately upon it. The classroom was small and had to accommodate twenty-eight pupils. Equipment consisted of a library table, paint table, work bench, teacher's desk, stationary book shelves, one bookcase, movable desks, and chairs. A committee of children planned the rearrangement of the room, with the map set to compass points in the center-front, and with space enough about it to work and hold discussions (see Figure I). We were rather crowded, but the children agreed that the advantages of the project more than made up for any physical inconvenience.

Initiating the unit—At the beginning of school in the fall, three things swung the group immediately into the unit. First, a boy who had spent the summer traveling told us of visiting Indian excavations in the Southwest, and showed us pottery and stone tools which he had brought home with him. Second, another child told us about her visit to a New England shop where copies of Colonial furniture are made by master craftsmen. Third, two boys told of their visit to the Maporium in the Christian Science building in Boston, where one walks thru the center of a huge glass map of the world. The teacher capitalized on this excellent series of leads, and soon the children were engrossed in studying and reconstructing the various phases of development thru which our country has passed.

THE YEAR'S WORK AS DESCRIBED BY THE CHILDREN

At the end of the year, when the unit of work had been completed, the parents were invited to school to see the map and to hear about its construction. A committee of children arranged mimeographed material to be distributed to the guests. This material, reproduced here, presents a clear picture of the unit from beginning to end:

"THE STORY OF OUR UNITED STATES MAP"

"In the beginning of the year, Billy brought some Indian relics to school with him. He got them out West where he visited some archeological excavations. We became very interested in them. We discussed how they got there, what happened to those early Indians, and what

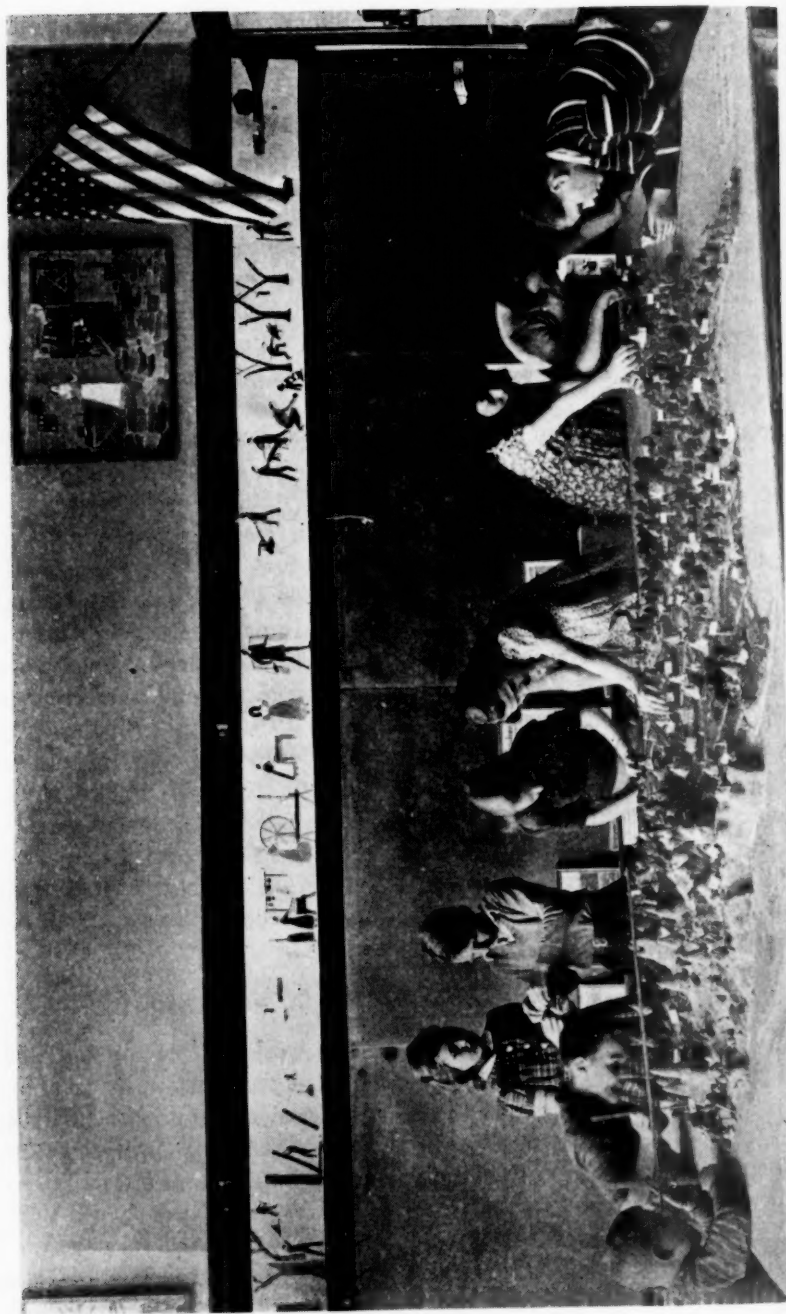


FIGURE 1—SIXTH-GRADE CHILDREN CONSTRUCTING A RELIEF MAP OF THE UNITED STATES

things can be told when archeologists dig down into the earth. This led us to talk about and look up theories of the earth's formation.

"One day when we were considering how the land appeared above the surface of the waters, George suggested drawing a map of the United States to show the parts scientists think were formed first. Dick said a relief map would be better for showing this. Three of us had made a small one last year, so we thought it would be fun to do a different one this year. Billy suggested that we make a big one. As we continued to talk about it, our plans did grow big. We would make a great big one on which we could show all the happenings that made our country grow!

"Before we could start, we had to decide about the materials to use. We agreed to use celotex for the foundation. This was to be raised above the floor about twenty-eight inches by sawhorses so we could work on it easily. But what should be used for the relief? Joanne said paper pulp was good, but sometimes got moldy and smelled. Robin said her father covered pipes with a white stuff called asbestos that might be useful. It ended by our using a mixture of powdered asbestos and cement.

"One committee planned where we could set up the map and how much room we could use for it. Another committee arranged a shopping list of materials which we would need. A third committee planned how to have the map reproduced on the celotex boards accurately. We began the actual construction of the map in October. The celotex which we ordered measured three by twelve feet when it came. The committee on materials cut the two boards so that when fitted together on the framework and sawhorses, the map measured six by ten feet as you see it now. When the two hundred pounds of asbestos and seventy pounds of cement arrived, each child mixed the amounts he needed together, added water, and used the clay-like substance as a base for his section of the relief.

"In the meantime, two children had traced the outline of the country onto the celotex by using a stereopticon slide and machine. Each person had also chosen one or two sections upon which he wished to work. We crayoned these sections in different colors to have a foundation for the relief. Each color represented a specific altitude.

"In arithmetic we worked out many problems about our map. We found the height of various important peaks and lowlands and worked out many problems in distances. The altitude scale which we felt would be appropriate is one quarter inch to five hundred feet, as you can see by the scales we've arranged in one corner of the map. Because of space, we could not have our area scale in proportion to the altitude, so we used two separate ones. The area scale is twenty-six and five-

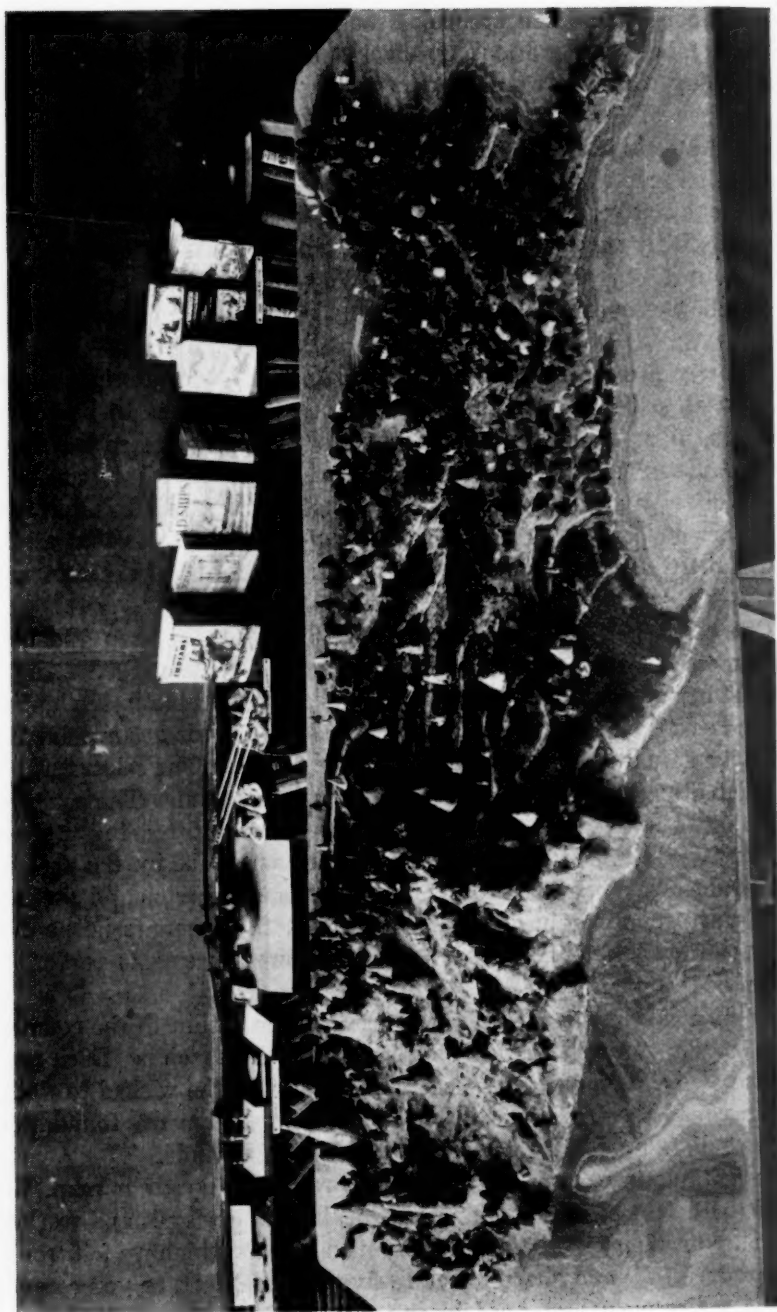


FIGURE II.—THE CHILDREN'S MAP SHOWING THE SITUATION AT THE TIME OF THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR

tenths miles per square inch. A special committee made the altitude scale on little sticks, coloring each section to match the crayoning we put on the map. With these we could make the relief correct by building up the asbestos to the matching color on the sticks.

"After each child had modeled his section, doing so in the order of appearance above the ocean, we did reference work on the types of soil in the United States and painted portions accordingly. Next we talked about the vegetation of our country and realized it would differ in various sections, due to climate, altitude, and soil. We have shown these differences by using various materials. For most growth, we used pieces of sponges fastened on twigs, dyed light green, dark green, or yellow green. Some children used painted weeds. Others made palm trees by winding the trunks and leaves from paper. To keep these movable, we held them upright in a base of plasticine.

"Then we were ready for people to live on the land. From plasticine we made and dressed miniature Indians and put them on the map. Some of you have seen our map grow and change during the year. Those who haven't will need to visualize this land of the Red Man with its mountains, lakes, rivers, forests, and plains. We showed the houses, occupations, and transportation of the Iroquois, Algonquin, Plains, Northwest, and Southwest Indians.

"Before our very eyes the White Man appeared. Small, gay-sailed, serpent-headed Viking ships, carved of balsa wood, sped over the blue waters along the New England coast. The committees working on these explorers tried very hard to make the happenings realistic.

"In due time Spanish, French, and English exploration parties crashed their way through the forests. They did not know about the land and its inhabitants. As they left the country, we put their little balsa wood boats and their plasticine men into a class museum. If you look at the things in the cabinet, you will see that as time went on everything in the past was put in the collection.

"We showed settlements by carving small cabins from balsa, locating them exactly, and erecting a flagpole with the flag of the mother country beside each one. Whenever the territory changed hands, we changed the flags. Soon we had the English along the eastern coast, the French along the Mississippi and St. Lawrence River valleys, and the Spanish in the South and West. After the French and Indian War, we had many English flags to put up in place of the French ones (see Figure II).

"As the White Man pushed constantly westward, we had to remove trees and move the Indians ever onward. We placed things in our museum as we finished using them.

"We blazed pioneer trails into the Old West and later turned them

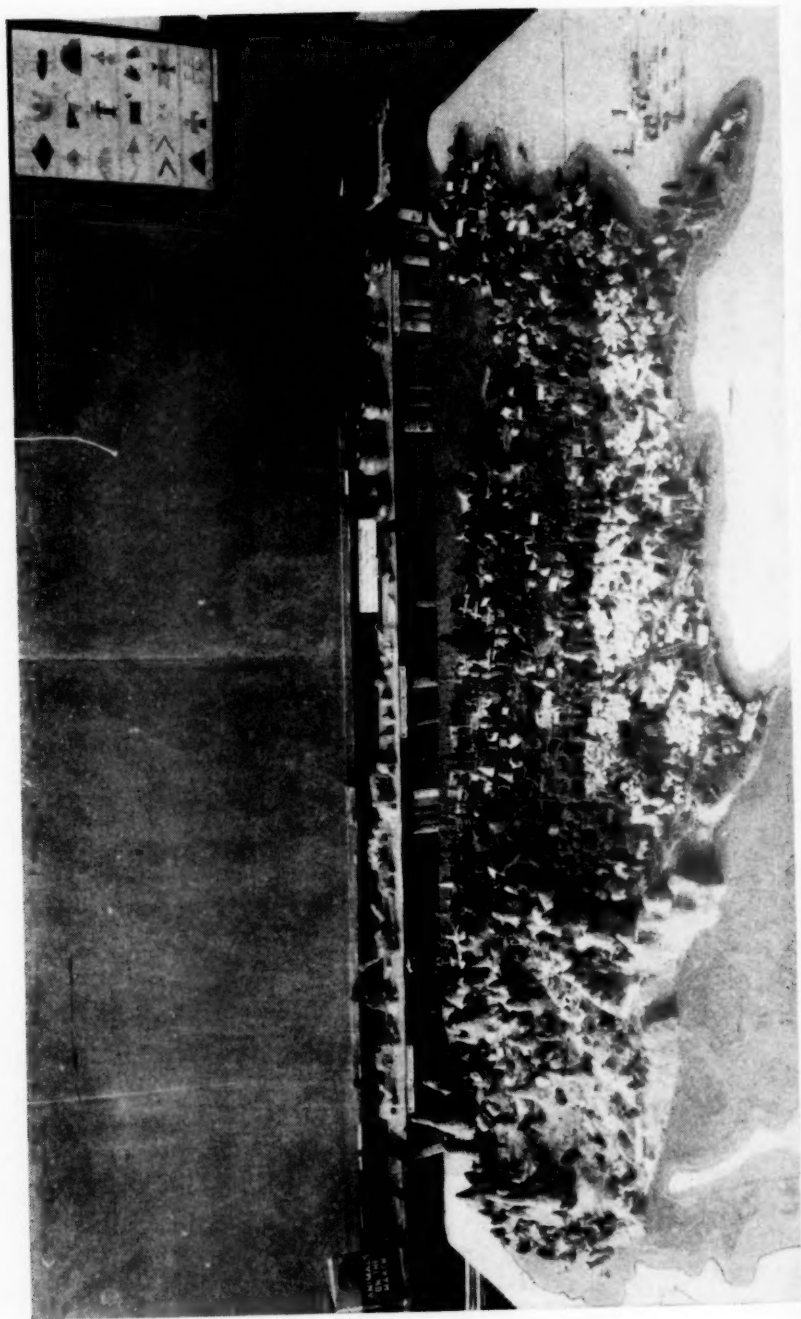


FIGURE III.—THE FINISHED MAP SHOWING THE UNITED STATES OF TODAY

into roads by painting them as they are now. We built the pioneer settlements. At Boonesboro we erected a miniature block-house and stockade. We showed the other forts the same way. It was fun to see what different activities children could show the pioneers doing.

"We didn't talk much about the wars our country had, but just enough to see how they affected the growth of the United States.

"When the United States purchased Louisiana from the French, Miss Noyes read us an interesting story of Lewis and Clark's expedition. Some children made figures of them and Sacajawea and dressed them in buckskin. They were about one inch in height and even carried rifles, powder horns, and shot pouches. As the story progressed we moved them accurately along the route through the new territory.

"All this time things happened in the East, too. Cabins changed to houses of certain architectural ideals. New towns grew up; our capital was built; clipper ships appeared at the ocean ports, and boats in the rivers. There were also new inventions. We endeavored to show all these. Look in our museum!

"After Texas and California became parts of the United States and many settlers began going to the Far West, we marked out some of the famous trails, such as: the Desert Trail, California Trail, Oregon Trail, Santa Fe Trail, etc. On the trails we had wagon trains pulled by oxen. The children who made these worked very neatly with balsa, plasticine, cloth, and airplane glue. Many people went over the trails looking for gold. On our map you could see Pony Express riders and their way-stations maintaining communication between the East and West.

"Trains began to be used extensively in the East at this time, so lines began reaching westward also. We have shown these, the Trans-continental Railroad, and many more modern ones. The tracks were made by running two pieces of cord parallel to each other and gluing ties of one-sixteenth-inch balsa wood across them. You can see the early trains we used in the cabinet. Can you recognize the Tom Thumb, DeWitt Clinton, or any others?

"Now you see our map in the year 1938 (Figure III). Notice it is somewhat of an economic map at present. We have arranged it to show what is going on in the United States today. In the South you see great plantations of cotton, tobacco fields, orange groves, and a few manufacturing cities; in the Central Plains, corn fields and hogs; in the Northeast, factories; and on the Great Plains, huge stretches of wheat and alfalfa. If you study the key we have made, you will find that we have also shown the various kinds of mining, livestock, oil fields, and agricultural crops in the smaller sections. The Indians are now on their reservations. We have streamlined cars on the rail-

road tracks, cars and buses on the roads, and airplanes that Billy made flying over the airways. If your eyes are very sharp you can see the Golden Gate Bridge, the World's Fair grounds, the important cities in every state, the Capitol building at Washington, and many other intricate things that some children have made and put on. Hop aboard one of our airliners for an air view of our finished map!"

(By *Nancy Carpenter* and *Dick Johnson*)

INFORMAL EVALUATION OF THE UNIT

No objective measure of the outcomes of this unit is available, and probably no adequate appraisal could be made with present measuring instruments. It is evident from the foregoing account, however, that the children as a group were cognizant of the geological, geographical, historic, and economic development of our country. In connection with the cultural growth of the people, they learned much literature, music, and drama of the various periods studied. Opportunity for creative and emotional experience was given in the writing of poetry and short stories, in art expression, and in giving original plays and programs. Radio bulletins and news articles took care of contemporary developments.

This unit of work became a part of the children's very existence. Its effects extended dramatically into the home and out-of-school lives of the individuals involved. Lasting hobbies were developed, fathers and mothers became interested in the work, and family trips were made to the actual spots under discussion. Enthusiasm over the work drew many children to school early and kept them there until the janitor's closing time. The teacher observed many small dramatizations enacted upon the map. For one year, then, this work and its ensuing activities played a very definite part in the development of each child's personality.

Looking back upon the unit, the teacher must confess a degree of amazement at the growth in social attitudes, usable knowledge, and basic skills shown by the children. She feels that each child according to his ability has gained an understanding of the development of the United States from earliest times to the present, and that, by becoming acquainted with the value of our heritage, he has glimpsed the great ideals still to be attained.

DEVELOPING HABITS OF INTERPRETATION AND CRITICAL THINKING

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and

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IS IT BECAUSE WE FEAR the outcomes of dealing with current issues that we avoid in the classroom the controversial questions of our day? Or are we unaware that pupils, even in the elementary schools, are turning these questions over in their minds and without guidance are making their own decisions? Why do we neglect, as a means toward teaching the more factual material in the content fields, two of the most potent factors in the educational process—the interests of pupils and presentday issues? The writers, believing that these factors should not be neglected, point out here several important elements in the situation and tell briefly how sixth-grade children have successfully studied a problem of current interest.

SOME BASIC CONSIDERATIONS

Several considerations are pertinent in deciding the extent to which advanced pupils in the elementary school should study presentday issues. These include (1) the capacity of the pupils, (2) the attitudes of parents and public, (3) the availability of time for the work, and (4) the availability of suitable materials.

Capacity of pupils—How far can pupils eleven and twelve years old take a problem of current interest and, thru their study in geography and history, trace causes and subsequent effects in relation to it? Can learning go on in a situation where sixth-grade children start with a problem of daily importance and work thru the background of that problem in an attempt to find a solution? Are sixth-grade pupils capable of this type of thinking? How far can we allow them to go? What are the real limits of critical thinking in boys and girls eleven and twelve years of age? The answer to these questions is that while the limit of pupil capacity probably varies widely, most children of these ages can accomplish more in this area than has generally been realized.

Attitudes of parents and public—A second factor is that of parent and public reaction to what may seem the school's attitude on a current issue. Strong community feeling or prejudice is bound to influence pupils. Dare the school raise the question, "What is the other side of

this issue?" If pupils return from school to present the other side in the home where opinion is already fixed, or if a local vested interest is placed in an unfavorable light, what will happen? These questions deserve careful consideration, but we should not permit fear of consequences to prevent our helping children to think critically and without bias. In these days of uncertainty as to what one shall think, as to what one may believe of what one hears and reads, and as to how far one may go with leaders who would "save the nation" with their solution of every problem, it is high time we set the children in our schools to attacking some of the problems that will soon become theirs in a very vital sense. The question is not how *long* can we defer this type of activity, but rather how *soon* may we begin it.

Availability of time—Frequently teachers and school administrators allow physical factors to play too large a part in determining whether a study of current problems should be planned. It takes a long time to develop a background for critical thinking. Where shall we find time in an already overcrowded schedule of studies to do this sort of thing? If the time is to come from English or from the geography period, the regular program in these subjects must be set aside. Fortunately for children and for education, we are beginning to worship less at the shrine of time schedules, and more at the shrine of pupil interest. We may discover that both of the content subjects just mentioned are better served thru the medium of critical thinking than thru a formal program of the traditional type.

Availability of materials—Still another factor which often deters teachers from attacking problems of current interest has to do with the available material on the pupils' reading level. Where can we find suitable material which sixth-grade pupils can read and understand? To the teacher who is afraid to undertake this type of activity the matter of reading material for pupils furnishes a ready excuse. Many teachers apparently are afraid to use current materials such as newspapers, magazines, newsreels, research reports, and descriptive pamphlets. In the writers' judgment, the difficulty lies not so much in a lack of suitable material as in a fear that the pupils will read "too much." Such teachers ask, How can we meet the problem of misunderstanding on the part of parents, and what will be the reaction upon the school if news of controversial discussions in classrooms leaks out to a public which has strong biases on certain current issues? This question is perhaps best answered by another: How are we going to develop in pupils the habit of critical thinking—the power to weigh facts and defer judgment until all "light" is brought to bear upon the problem at hand—unless we *begin* to develop that power? What better time is there to do it than when the daily lesson in any content subject causes even the pupil to say, "I

read in the newspaper that. . . .”? A great deal of appropriate material is available for any teacher who wishes to use it.

THE STUDY OF A CURRENT PROBLEM

The general plan—In this project eight VIA geography classes were studying Japan. All the geographical factors which influence life, industry, trade, and general living conditions were discussed. For a while, little was said regarding the influence of these factors upon the present crucial situation—the war with China. Then, as an outgrowth of continued suggestions by the pupils, the following questions were raised:

1. Do the geographical features of a country influence the lives of the people living in it?
2. How do trading conditions affect the relations of peoples and nations?
3. Does it matter if living conditions in neighboring countries are strikingly different?
4. What part do these factors play in war between nations?
5. Why is Japan at war with China?

It became evident that the answers to these questions were more important than the pursuit of abstract facts related to the geographical and historical features of these countries. By contrast and comparison both countries could be studied simultaneously, and the causes for war could be traced to the conditions existing between them.

Collecting and arranging pertinent material—Pupils in each class volunteered to bring from home magazines, pamphlets, clippings from newspapers, cartoons, and news items of every kind bearing on this subject. The bulletin boards were arranged so that items of any one type or on any one issue might be readily consulted by all pupils. Committees arranged, sorted, and filed or posted all materials brought in. Magazines were inspected, and pages were clipped and arranged on tables by subjects to serve as reading centers. A card-index file was made of all materials. One section of the blackboard was made into a daily calendar. Here the items for the day's discussion were listed alongside any reference material which was in the room or in the files.

Two of the city's daily newspapers were approached, the program was explained, and an invitation was given for them to furnish copies of their papers for each member of the class every day during a two-week period. Two lessons were devoted to "newspaper technics."¹

Copies of a pamphlet issued by the Foreign Policy Association, *War in China*,² were furnished to all the classes. This booklet was written so that the pupils were able to read, understand, and enjoy the material.

¹ Copies of the guide sheets used may be obtained from the Lakewood Board of Education, Lakewood, Ohio.

² Fry, Varian. *War in China*. Headline Books No. 13. New York: Foreign Policy Association, 1938. 95 p.

It presented no biased judgments and supplied sufficient sources of information. The graphs and charts were well developed.

Exchanging ideas and drawing conclusions—The program was set for a three-week period. After the research had been done under careful planning and close guidance, the pupils were ready to exchange experiences and arrive at conclusions, always tempered with the attitude that "we must have all the evidence and check our findings." At the very beginning of this phase their purposes were clearly defined and their procedures discussed. Their central purpose was to answer the question, Why is there war between China and Japan? The contributing purposes are implied in these questions: What must I know about these countries—their people, habits, customs, manner of life, and contacts with other nations (particularly my own country), both as to economic and social relationships? What is my responsibility in forming my opinions about this war?

Running parallel with the geographic and historical emphasis was the constant planning for good practice in both oral and written English. Rules for conversation were set up; the pupils were to exchange ideas freely but with careful adherence to the rule of politeness and consideration for the other fellow, tolerance in viewpoint, and constant care to speak favorably or not at all about other races and their customs. In addition, the various language technics were reviewed, namely, to speak in sentences, to mark inflections, to select words which express clearly the idea in mind, and to avoid the use of unnecessary connectives.

To furnish a background for discussion, questions based upon the materials read and worded so as to provoke critical thought were placed upon the board or given in written form to committees assigned to develop the various topics.

Written work took the form of outlines, reports, notes, and short compositions not exceeding two paragraphs of four or five sentences each. To make these compositions fit the desired pattern, the topics were well planned and limited in scope. Cooperative compositions took the form of chapters in a class book which expressed the opinions and cited the findings of the children's study.

EVALUATION OF THE RESULTS

As the major purposes here were to develop functioning information, critical thinking, better attitudes, and interest in this study, it seemed desirable that measuring devices suitable to these objectives be used.

Checking functional information—To get a picture of the information which functioned in their thinking, the pupils were asked to write on the topic, "My Impressions of the Japanese and the Things They Are Doing." Such a procedure has several advantages. It shows at least

some of the items of information closely associated with the pupils' own attitudes. It very likely gives a better picture of the information which actually functions than does a more objective test which shows whether certain items are memorized or not.

After the pupils had written on the topic assigned, the papers from three of the eight classes were analyzed to discover the number of pupils who had mentioned certain items of information or opinion. The nine items mentioned most frequently are included in Table 1. For example, twelve of the thirty-two pupils in Class A mentioned that Japan needed more land. The pupils used various expressions, but little difficulty was experienced by the investigators in identifying similar ideas.

TABLE 1—ITEMS MOST FREQUENTLY MENTIONED IN PUPILS' WRITTEN COMPOSITIONS ON THE JAPANESE PEOPLE AFTER STUDYING THE CURRENT SITUATION IN JAPAN AND CHINA (GRADE VIA)

FACTS AND OPINIONS	NUMBER OF PUPILS MENTIONING EACH ITEM			
	Class A	Class B	Class C	Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1. Japan needs more land.....	12	7	16	35
2. Japan should be given land peaceably.	1	4	15	20
3. Japan is favored over China.....	1	3	3	7
4. China is favored over Japan.....	20	6	14	30
5. Japan is merely doing as others have done to China.....	5	1	4	10
6. Japan wants to conquer the world.....	2	6	3	11
7. Leaders in Japan are to blame.....	11	0	4	15
8. Japanese are intelligent, industrious. .	20	5	4	29
9. Japanese are warlike, barbarous, etc...	0	5	1	6
Total number of pupils.....	32	13	34	79
Median attitude score ^a	5.7	4.4	4.9	..

^a Obtained by means of a scale developed in another study to measure favorableness or unfavorableness of attitude toward the Japanese. A score of 3 represents a definitely unfavorable attitude; a score of 5, a neutral attitude; and a score of 7, a definitely favorable attitude.

As shown by the responses numbered 3 and 4 in Table 1, the preponderance of opinion was clearly favorable to China as compared with Japan. There was widespread recognition of the need for land by Japan, but much less recognition of the fact that other countries have set the pace for what Japan is doing. Altho these were only sixth-grade pupils, few of the items mentioned seemed clearly to be associated with immaturity. Almost all the responses were at least as good as those which would be given by an average man on the street, and indicated a good grasp of some features of the situation. That over 10 percent of the children recognized that other nations have done much as Japan is doing indicated a valuable trend.

The application of descriptive phrases to whole races or nations is

childish and unintelligent, altho it is not confined to children. From this point of view the teacher of Class C may have done a better piece of work than the teacher of Class A.

Obviously, this method of analyzing papers needs to be studied further in order to determine its validity and reliability for individual pupils, but for whole classes it already appears to yield dependable results. The method thus shows real promise as a device for informing the teacher as to what the children are actually getting from a series of experiences or lessons.

Measuring pupil attitudes—The scale used in this study to evaluate favorableness or unfavorableness of attitude toward the Japanese was developed as a part of another study.³ By the scaled-item method, various statements are given numerical values on the scale of favorableness or unfavorableness by qualified raters. Space will not permit here an adequate discussion of the reliability and validity of this attitude scale. A rather complete statement on these points will be found in the study referred to above. Suffice it to say that this form of attitude scale has been found sufficiently reliable and valid for group study.

The median attitude score for 205 pupils at the beginning of the experiment was 4.5, slightly unfavorable to the Japanese; at the end of the experiment it was 5.4, slightly favorable to that people. It is difficult, of course, to say whether the instruction was the only factor in producing the more favorable attitudes, but it apparently tended to have that effect. If it is possible, as suggested here, to produce more favorable attitudes toward nations and races by stress on clear thinking, such emphasis in the schools is of paramount importance.

Previous to this study, the attitude scale had been used with other groups of fifth- and sixth-grade pupils to measure their attitudes toward the Germans. It is significant that the attitude toward the Germans was decidedly more favorable than toward the Japanese. Apparently children's attitudes are being constantly formed by events, news, and the opinions of adults.

By studying the attitude scores of the classes represented in Table 1 in relation to the facts and opinions given by the same pupils, some close relationships can be discovered. Class A, which had the most favorable attitude toward the Japanese, mentioned frequently that the leaders in Japan are to blame for the present situation, and that the Japanese people have desirable qualities. Class B, which had the most unfavorable attitude toward the Japanese, made much of their

³ Copies of this scale and the accompanying key may be had from the Lakewood Board of Education, Lakewood, Ohio. See also: Arnold, Dwight L. *A Study of Attitudes Toward War and Peace of Pupils in Fifth and Sixth Grades*. Doctor's thesis. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1938.

warlike traits and their desire to dominate the world. Thus, it seems quite probable that there is a relationship between information learned and attitude taken, altho the attitude may be either cause or effect in this situation. This finding at least suggests the possibility of diagnosing and correcting bad attitudes by getting at the underlying information and beliefs, rather than by "telling" pupils what the "right" attitude is.

General appraisal by teachers—To obtain additional data as to the value of these materials and methods of teaching and of appraisal, the teachers concerned were asked a series of questions. The answers from six teachers revealed a general agreement that the pupils had been very much interested in the study; that the study had made the pupils aware of the need for more evidence; that nearly all the pupils had taken part in the discussion; and that the method had been effective in teaching the usual content of geography and history. Three of the teachers thought the attitude scale had been of considerable help, while the others thought it had been of little or no help. Four teachers thought that this type of study made pupils somewhat more objective and critical toward their own attitudes.

CONCLUSION

The tendency to keep live social issues out of the classroom is probably one cause of the general lack of clear thinking on such issues today. The chief reason that so little emphasis is placed upon habits of critical thinking in the school is not a lack of pupil capacity, but very probably a lack of knowledge among teachers as to how to teach and test critical thinking. The study reported above showed that children in the upper elementary grades can deal intelligently with a current problem.

Another value of the study was that it showed how pupil interest in a current problem can carry over into the learning of pertinent subjectmatter and essential skills. The pupils learned many facts about the geography and history of China and Japan, but they did so in relation to a meaningful problem. They improved their written and spoken English, not by studying a separate subject called "English," but by using language as a tool for carrying forward an interesting project. Work-type reading likewise became not merely a series of drills to develop a skill for its own sake, but a means of achieving a significant purpose.

It is the opinion of the writers that projects of this type—utilizing pupil interest, dealing with significant social problems, and providing for growth in critical thinking and attitudes as well as in knowledge and skills—will become increasingly popular in our better schools.

EXTENDING THE SCOPE OF PUPIL EXPERIENCE

DOROTHAË DERRIG

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RECENTLY SEVERAL TEACHERS in an old school building without either a gymnasium or an auditorium decided to put into effect some of their ideas concerning the redirection of education. These teachers agreed that "knowing" should usually be associated with purposeful "doing"; that children should be helped to grow both in the ability to express themselves and in the ability to cooperate with others; and that teachers should be influential in causing children to spend their leisure time in wholesome ways. They sought to give children opportunities to practice the activities of citizenship not only in their own classrooms but also in the school as a whole. To keep the program well balanced, ample time was allowed for the drill phases of the tool subjects and for emphasis on health.

Unit teaching in the content subjects—The unit plan of teaching the content subjects was chosen because it permits a more natural interrelation of language and hand activities, and because it offers greater opportunity for experience in working toward a central objective, in evolving standards of conduct, and in cooperating with others. Usually the teacher assumed the role of a guide while the children were working out their plans, but she definitely "set the stage" for the introduction of each unit. Interesting books and objects were placed on the library table; pictures were posted on the bulletin board; a relevant story was sometimes told; occasionally a film bearing on the unit was secured from the visual education department; and, if feasible, the class was taken on an excursion. Such initial preparation gave the children a concrete background for working out their problems. The units chosen for study were rich in suggestions and opportunities for many kinds of activities. The following paragraphs indicate briefly some of the activities carried on in certain units.

The fifth-grade pupils invited a fifth-grade group from a neighboring school to hear the program given at the close of their unit on Mexico. When the visitors arrived, children's paintings depicting interesting phases of Mexican life were on the wall. In the front of the room was a Mexican market place which had been constructed by a committee of pupils. Other children had made the articles which were displayed therein—tiles, vases, and dishes made of clay, a few wooden donkeys carrying packs, two wooden carts drawn by donkeys, and two dolls dressed as peons. Before the program started, a lad welcomed the visiting group and introduced the visiting teacher. Then the first announcer came forward to preside over a part of the program. Chil-

dren gave short talks on interesting aspects of Mexican life, and, as they spoke, they displayed paintings and graphs bearing on the unit. One group of children reviewed the story "Si, Si, Rosita," and another group "Pablo's Pipe." A tapestry depicting a Mexican scene was displayed by the group who had made it. A class booklet containing reports, original illustrations, and clippings was passed among the visitors.

Prior to this final program, the activities of the unit had included taking part in both vocabulary and map drills, looking at post cards and pictures, handling interesting objects made in Mexico, reading from a basic text, skimming reference books to get material for reports, reading relevant stories for pleasure, giving book reports, participating in class discussions, planning for the activity period, making rules to govern conduct during the activity period, serving on committees, mixing clay for dishes, sawing pieces of wood to represent donkeys and carts, dressing dolls, erecting the market place, working on a chalk mural, making an illustrated map, painting Mexican scenes, designing and embroidering the tapestry, and writing and illustrating the class booklet.

Another fifth-grade teacher let the development of shadow plays be the motivating force for improving the speech, drawing, painting, and construction abilities of her class. While selecting the material to be used, the children dramatized several stories and read a few short plays. Various children painted the backdrops, made jointed puppets from cardboard, and devised the removable objects needed to bring out the meaning of their plays. The shadow stage itself was constructed and wired by the children. The stage was large enough to conceal the readers, the speakers, and the manipulators of the puppets. The children presented the plays in the afternoon after school. An admission of two cents was charged, and the money collected went into a fund used for construction materials. Language activities not mentioned above included telling how the puppets and the stage were made, announcing a performance, composing talks to advertise the plays, and writing an advertisement for the school newspaper.

A fourth-grade group which had completed a unit on pioneer life displayed a model of a stagecoach and one of a covered wagon. Scenery for a pioneer play had been placed at the front of the classroom. On the mantel, which was part of the scenery, were hand-dipped candles made by the children.

A seventh-grade history class gave a two-act play centering in the adoption of the three compromises in the drafting of the United States Constitution. The first scene showed the Congress in session,

and the second the hearing of the news by a group attending a husking bee. Every child in the class was in the play. The girls made their costumes from discarded cotton dresses, and the boys made wigs from cotton batting.

A sixth-grade class studying old-world history collected and mounted pictures of various types of architecture. During the culminating program two boys used a balopticon to enlarge the pictures and throw them on a screen. Other children gave short talks about each picture.

On one occasion the writer visited a second-grade class which was working out a unit on Indian life. She found some of the group sitting in front of a child-constructed wigwam, beating out rhythms on drums which they had made themselves, while other children in costume were giving an Indian dance. Unfortunately, the room was so small and so inadequately equipped that the dancers had to weave around rows of stationary seats.

Using the out-of-school environment to enrich pupil experience—As the teachers wished to develop in children a normal and wholesome sensitivity to their environment, they used the world outside the school both to make classroom projects more meaningful and to provide practice in firsthand observation. Interesting specimens and curios from various sources were used in class projects. The services of interested adults were frequently utilized. Children were taken on numerous trips. When a trip was too long for walking, the children rode in automobiles with volunteer drivers. For a time, school buses could be secured for excursion purposes.

Among the specific contacts with the environment which seemed especially significant were the following:

1. Flowers contributed by eighth-grade children were used by them in making artistic and interesting classroom decorations. The class enjoyed working with the bouquets so much that they left vases as their gift to the school when they graduated.
2. A few eighth-grade boys planted iris which had been donated by a neighbor.
3. A primary group became interested in the life cycle of the butterfly when one little fellow brought a cocoon into the classroom.
4. A doll bed given by a mother was used to teach bedmaking. Prior to the teaching, a few fifth-grade girls made the necessary equipment from materials secured in their homes.
5. A Chinese laundryman spoke to a fourth-grade class which was working on a unit on China. Before leaving he wrote the name of each child in Chinese.
6. A mother and a WPA clerk helped some of the older girls to make the candy to be sold at a school carnival.
7. The husband of one of the teachers helped a few boys put up a display shelf.
8. A physical education instructor from the Young Women's Christian Association gave a talk on posture to seventh- and eight-grade girls.
9. A first-grade teacher, who was seeking to integrate health instruction with experience reading, took her pupils to visit a vegetable garden nearby. On the way back to school the class stopped at a grocery store to note what vegetables were on sale. Later the children made soup from vegetables secured in their homes.

While they were eating, the teacher pointed out that the soup was healthful because it was "so thick with vegetables." The children enjoyed dictating, reading, and illustrating little stories about these experiences.

10. An arithmetic teacher took her pupils to the office of the county treasurer when the class was working out a unit on taxes.

11. An eighth-grade history class found the phrase, "trial by jury," more meaningful after visiting a courtroom and hearing an explanation by the judge.

12. Children from a second grade went to a classroom in a neighboring school to see an old hen with some newly hatched chicks. They heard the children in the room visited read stories of events leading up to the hatching of the chicks, and observed the pictures and chalk drawing which illustrated what had happened.

13. The children's librarian gave instruction in library usage to a group brought to the public library by their teacher.

14. School buses were used to take a sixth-grade group studying old-world history on a visit to several churches exemplifying various types of architecture.

15. A science class visited a greenhouse to find out how mushrooms are grown.

16. A committee of boys visited a science teacher in a neighboring school to secure advice on planting bulbs.

17. One of the teachers took several boys to see an exhibit of wooden boats made by sixth-grade pupils in another school.

Encouraging wholesome living outside the school—Believing the out-of-school lives of children to be a matter for their concern, the teachers planned activities having carry-over value and sought the aid of the parents in keeping children strong and well. Each week the upper-grade teachers set aside forty minutes for a club period, and pupils in these grades were permitted to choose the club to which they wished to belong. Children interested in art and music were encouraged to take advantage of such opportunities as receiving lessons from itinerant teachers of instrumental music, belonging to either the school orchestra or the fife-and-drum corps, joining either the boys' or the girls' glee club, working with the group of talented children who painted after school one day each week, and using facilities provided in the homeroom for painting and for making chalk murals. Children who took music lessons at school were requested to practice at home.

Once each week three of the middle-grade teachers conducted woodworking classes for boys and, at a different time, craft periods for girls. While the boys of a group were having their period for construction, the girls went to the music instructor for a class in eurythmics. When the girls were engaged in sewing and weaving, the boys either played games under the supervision of an assistant or sat in the back of the room reading interesting library books. A variety of materials for use in the craft and woodworking activities was provided—a large loom, several small looms, yarn, several frames for making hooked rugs, a jig saw, coping saws, files, hammers, clay, linoleum for blocks, wood, cloth, and crochet hooks.

Both the dramatic club and the glee clubs gave entertainments for which admission was charged. Not a few leisure hours were used in

learning and practicing parts, making costumes, and painting simple scenery. Occasionally parties were held at the school. Teachers advised the pupil committees in charge of these parties but did not dominate them. Teachers also cooperated with parents in helping children to form such health habits as going to bed early, drinking milk, and eating fruits and vegetables. Breakfast was served by WPA workers to children who had been selected by the teachers as undernourished.

Some unusually significant phases of these undertakings are listed below:

1. After displaying their collections and conversing about them, the children in the hobby club played indoor games. Frequently both boys and girls reported that they played these same games at parties held either in their homes or in church parlors.

2. A number of the boys in the craft groups purchased coping saws which they used in their own basements, and a few boys received jig saws for Christmas.

3. Several girls in one of the sewing clubs made cotton dresses for themselves.

4. Another sewing club included the following articles in its exhibit: aprons, dresser scarfs, luncheon sets, pocketbooks woven from yarn, and crocheted mats.

5. A boy was seen buying a checkerboard in a neighboring store. He had learned to play the game at school. His teacher had placed a board and checkers on a table in her room and had suggested that some child who knew the game might remain after school to teach it to a classmate.

6. Two girls asked a third one to teach them to crochet so that they might have something to display at an exhibit of handwork.

7. Late in May the science teacher took an eighth-grade group to the woods, where they cooked their lunch over an open fire. After eating, they set out to observe wildflowers.

8. This same teacher had a group of boys gather in the schoolyard after dark so that they might observe the stars.

9. A committee of mothers was requested to sell chocolate milk instead of pop at a carnival.

10. A health play given at a meeting of the local parent-teacher group brought out the value of milk as a food.

Providing opportunities for service to the school—Opportunities to serve the school as a whole have been given both to children who had shown growth in practicing the activities of citizenship, and to unadjusted children who seemed to need such practice. Each group that performed duties of a general nature was sponsored by a teacher. Children have been given such responsibilities as directing traffic, keeping the yard and the halls free from paper, caring for the teachers' rest room, setting up chairs for a mothers' meeting, helping with a paper sale, making a mural for the hall, sharpening pencils for a primary teacher, and taking sick children home. Some of the other specific services rendered were as follows:

1. One spring some of the larger boys spaded, seeded, and rolled the front yard.

2. For a long time a large colored boy took the toys from the federal nursery school into the yard in the morning and returned them to the building when school closed.

3. The traffic boys and their sponsor invited a city traffic officer to lunch with them. A conference on safety followed the luncheon.

4. Two boys cut some worn places out of the rug in the teachers' rest room. Later they sewed the parts together.

5. One Christmas some of the older girls told stories to the primary children.

6. Several sixth-grade children were assigned the duty of greeting and introducing visitors who came to see an exhibit.

7. Two eighth-grade boys helped a primary teacher take her pupils to visit a fire station.

8. A committee representing the Junior Red Cross secured the cooperation of the proprietor of a movie house in purchasing glasses for underprivileged children. The committee advertised both the cause and the show so well that every child in the school was provided with a ticket of admission. The proprietor presented two suitable films, and turned all the proceeds of the ticket sale over to the Junior Red Cross.

Conclusion—The teachers feel that their efforts to develop a balanced program of learning and doing both inside and outside the school have helped the children to grow in self-control, perseverance, social cooperation, self-expression, and capacity for enjoyment. From reports of both mothers and children they have concluded that their attempts to encourage the wholesome use of leisure have borne some fruit. Parents as well as children and teachers have seen value in the program. Last year the parent-teacher association gave three covered-dish luncheons for the teachers because, as one mother said, "The teachers have been so nice to our children."

IN the educational world there has been a growing interest in this problem of leisure and in addition a growing concern as to whether the schools *are* doing anywhere nearly all that they can do and ought to do to get their young charges ready to face a comparatively new social situation, to equip them with not only the armor of protection against the dangers of misuse of marginal time, but with downright eagerness to make of it a great boon throughout their lives, a boon to themselves and a boon to society.—*The New Leisure Challenges the Schools*, National Recreation Association and National Education Association, 1933, p. 11.

THE NEWSPAPER—A CLEARINGHOUSE FOR SCHOOL ACTIVITIES

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THE "ACTIVITY," which not so long ago was the stepchild of the educational program, has become an accepted and welcome part of school experience. As proof of this fact, one has only to note in recent publications that special activities are increasingly labeled as co-curricular rather than as extracurricular. The possible activities in a school program can be classified in many ways, but the terms "mental" and "manual" differentiate rather well those activities in which books predominate and those in which work with the hands is emphasized.

What are the values of the school newspaper?—The school newspaper is an activity which combines the mental and manual aspects in balanced fashion provided that children have full responsibility, not only for planning and organizing but also for publishing and distributing their product. Of the many values that can be derived from the newspaper, those which come from giving children the opportunity to work cooperatively in a social group, unifying the school thru having all groups share the responsibility for the success of the paper, giving the child a chance to spell, write, and draw for a purpose which is real to him, and providing a clearinghouse for other school interests and activities, are outstanding.

What form may the newspaper take?—The "school newspaper" is a term applied to a wide variety of publications. Some consist of a single sheet, and others are of magazine shape and size. Usually a group of children start simply with a hand-written product. The contributions may be written on the blackboard or on a sheet of newsprint paper so folded that it can be posted on an easel or on a bulletin board. Some primary-grade groups have used a printing set as a substitute for hand-writing. The next step is usually that of hectographing or duplicating the material so that the product may be distributed. After this paper has been circulated, a demand for more copies often results in mimeographing future editions. Many groups of children feel that they have reached their highest goal when they have produced a newspaper printed in the school printshop. Regardless of the form of the product, the experience of planning, organizing, and executing is as valuable a result as is excellence of appearance and content.

What are the problems related to content?—The quality of the content in a school newspaper depends upon many factors, such as the amount of experience children have had in newspaper production, the

kind of guidance given, opportunities to see school newspapers edited by other groups, and emphasis upon improving each issue of the paper. These factors represent conditions which can be largely controlled by the teacher and the principal.

The range of content covers editorials, the principal's page, community news, creative stories and poems, humor, sports, book reviews, features such as puzzles, advertisements, and a large section made up of school news. Since the newspaper has been suggested as a clearinghouse for school activities, it should emphasize the classroom experiences of children, summaries of work presented in homerooms for groups of children or for parents, reports of trips and excursions, and assembly programs in which the whole school shares. Activities of many types, such as dramatic, hobby, art, stamp, book, and science clubs, and organizations such as a safety squad, Junior Red Cross, school orchestra, and school council should have a place in the newspaper. Contacts between school and home with regard to parent-teacher organizations, Red Cross and Community Chest drives, local elections, and school policies can be made thru the children's publication in a very effective way. Such a newspaper then not merely becomes a vehicle for children's written expression, but meets the great need of the school for carrying its program to the public.

How does a school newspaper function?—Since a background has been set up for the school newspaper in terms of values, forms, and contents, the following picture of the development of a specific school newspaper during a year's time should help to clarify and emphasize the points discussed.

At the opening of school, a group of fifth-grade children developed the idea of having a newspaper. With their teacher they decided upon a plan which included an advisory board made up of the school principal, supervisors, and special teachers. The class wrote letters to these people explaining their plans and asking that help be given from time to time. Since the school had an Indian name, the children decided to call the paper *The Indian Runner*. Under this title their first issue of four mimeographed pages appeared. The advisory board and others were asked to criticize the form and content of the issue, as did the children themselves. Two letters, one from a supervisor and one written by the children, follow:

My dear Billy:

I have your letter and the enclosed copy of *The Indian Runner*. I think you have done a very good piece of work for your first issue. As you publish further numbers I know that you will see improvements that you want to make.

I liked especially the fact that you had divided your paper into sections and that you had included an interesting variety of material. Your first page with its line drawing helps to give your paper a finished look.

I have some questions which I should like to have you think about as you plan another issue.

Are you satisfied with the size?

Shouldn't you label all contributions by children with their names and grades consistently throughout?

Do you have someone proofread your stencils to check any misspelled words?

Shouldn't your headings be uniformly placed throughout the paper? (I note that "Poetry" stands over the left-hand column on its page, and that "Science" on the last page is in the middle and is boxed in.)

Should you leave more space between your various sections?

I am sure that you have already considered some of these items as you have seen your paper in final form. I am very much interested in having you as a group work on this problem of making a school newspaper.

Most sincerely,

Dear Miss

Our room is sending you a copy of the second edition of *The Indian Runner*. We think we have made a great improvement since the first edition. There are still a few mistakes and here are some suggestions we made to improve our next paper:

1. Include some jokes.
2. Have a Christmas cover.
3. Label sections.
4. Have more general news.
5. Include a cartoon or comic strip.
6. Number the pages.
7. Include editorial staff.
8. Include a "Table of Contents" or a "Where To Look" column.
9. Include a contest.
10. Include headlines.
11. Include weather forecast.
12. Include lost and found column.

If you have any criticisms to make we would be glad to have them.

Sincerely yours,

The group arranged an exchange with other schools which were also publishing papers. The children followed this procedure of alternately producing and criticizing thruout the school year.

What were the results of work on the newspaper?—As a result of the year's work, the boys and girls developed increased ability to organize their ideas and to evaluate their finished product. Children with a special interest in art took over bulletin board advertising of the paper. Other groups made contacts with the school printer and with a real newspaper editor, or had an opportunity to estimate comparative costs of mimeographing and printing in relation to the sales price of the paper. All children experienced the give-and-take of work in a group. For each issue certain boys and girls had the responsibility of assembling material, organizing it into a "dummy," running the mimeograph, assembling the separate sheets for stapling, and managing the sale of the publication. In all these situations children identified certain values which are evident in their replies to questions proposed to them at

the end of the year. These questions and a few of the answers are given here as suggestive of the replies that might be expected from fifth-grade children:

Do you think other children in the same grade should have the same experience? Why?

I would carry the newspaper out more and give the other children the same privilege because they would learn probably much more than we did.

WALLY SCHANTZ

I think that other children ought to have the same experience because they will learn how to do things for themselves.

WALTER RICHTER

What did you learn by doing this activity?

I learned about the stencil. I learned about the editor's work on a newspaper. I have a better understanding of a conference. We learned many little things, such as about the volume and others too numerous to mention.

WALLY SCHANTZ

I learned more about how to write sentences and better English by doing this activity.

ANNA BEHRENS

I was general news editor and I learned that you couldn't always depend upon someone else to write up some news.

REGENE SCHEFMAN

Do you have any suggestions for improving the activity?

You could take some trips to the Press building or the Herald building. I know we did take some trips.

BETTY HAAN

If it were possible I would suggest that we have the newspaper printed in the print shop for every issue.

ANNETTE VAN DORE

Get more news! Get the paper out earlier.

JEAN ANNE GAMWELL

Managing Editor

As the work on the newspaper progressed, teacher and children kept a scrapbook record of the activity. They organized in chronological order all copies of letters received and replies sent, copies of each issue of the paper, and their own comments on their successes and failures. Such a record made it possible for all concerned to evaluate the amount of progress made between the first and last editions of the year. Furthermore, this plan made the experience a unified one altho it covered the period of an entire school year.

Conclusion—Newspapers are becoming a tradition in an increasing number of elementary schools. Usually, one of the upper grades is given the responsibility for management of the paper, but all groups of children make contributions. This does not mean that the school newspaper should be a routine affair, approached merely as another task to be accomplished. If the teachers and the principal have a vision of the wide

usefulness of such an experience, the newspaper can be the most alive and absorbing interest of the school.¹

¹ For further details of practice in the preparation and management of school newspapers, see especially: Thomas, John S. "The Elementary-School Newspaper." *Socializing Experiences in the Elementary School*. Fourteenth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, 1935. Chapter 9, p. 473-502.

CURRICULUM revision in its broadest aspect is a continuous reorganization of the whole school program in terms of those experiences of childhood which come within the province of the school. It is a matter of improving every school factor involved in child development thru a series of guided experiences. From this point of view there are no such activities as are commonly designated as "extracurricular" or "cocurricular." Any activity or material having a justifiable educative value becomes a definite element of pupil experience, and as such is a part of the school's curriculum. The only justifiable basis for any of the activities or materials which are included as a part of the developmental offering of the school is the needs of the child. These needs are conditioned by a great many factors in the past experience, present environment, and future plans of the child.

—Jones, Ralph B., p. 251 of this yearbook.

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CHAPTER IV

DEVELOPING APPRECIATIONS AND CREATIVE ABILITIES

EDITORIAL COMMENT

THE DEVELOPMENT of appreciations and creative abilities is one of the chief functions of an adequately enriched curriculum. This function is not limited to the so-called fine arts. Although music, drawing, painting, dramatics, literature, and creative writing should not be neglected, it is equally important that children develop appreciation and skill in such practical arts as home decorating, dress designing, gardening, and woodworking. Progress in any of these fields depends largely on the interests and natural capacities of the individual child. Yet, while relatively few children can become professional artists, most of them can learn to enjoy beautiful things and to contribute in some way to the usefulness and beauty of their surroundings.

There are other areas of experience in which appreciation is no less desirable than in the fine and applied arts. The wonders of nature, the contributions of science, and the advantages of social organization must be understood and appreciated if life is to be lived at its happiest and best. To neglect these areas in the school is to ignore an unexcelled opportunity for curriculum enrichment.

Appreciations and creative abilities of the types mentioned above are not to be developed solely thru special activities unrelated to the rest of the school program. Many of the procedures described in other chapters of this yearbook are intended in part to foster desirable attitudes and creative skills. The unique contribution of this chapter lies in its special emphasis on these aspects of pupil growth.

The opening article, by Hufford, reviews a city school program for cultivating appreciation and taste in many areas of experience. Baird outlines a schoolwide program of creative and interpretive activities involving both group and individual projects. Neal describes the methods and materials used by children of various ages in making marionettes and in producing marionette shows. In the fourth article Perrin tells how third- and fourth-grade pupils produced an original play.

The last two articles are concerned with the cultivation of music appreciation. Patz describes a plan for developing appreciation of instrumental music thru the radio and phonograph in the primary grades. Mortimer tells how real symphony concerts were used to enrich the music program in all grades above the first.

The books and magazine articles listed on page 410 are especially recommended for further reading.—*Editorial Committee.*

A PROGRAM FOR CULTIVATING APPRECIATION AND TASTE IN A CITY SCHOOL SYSTEM

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THE GREAT TEACHER once said, "Man shall not live by bread alone." During the depression years bread has become so vital a problem with millions of people that expenditures for things which would enrich their mental and spiritual lives have been impossible for them. Moreover, reductions of school income have impelled many schoolboards to eliminate from the curriculum certain subjects that contribute directly to the esthetic development of children. Music, art, home economics, manual arts, and physical education have particularly suffered. Even granting the necessity of financial retrenchment, the elimination or sharp curtailment of these activities is shortsighted, unsound, and actually pernicious to the general welfare. Personal morale and social stability are subjected to severe stress during hard times, with the result that juvenile delinquency and crime increase. Nothing can better counteract the tendency toward social unrest than pleasurable participation in activities of an esthetic nature.

In spite of financial difficulties, therefore, conscientious school administrators and teachers have felt the need of providing programs for developing appreciation and taste which would carry over into the out-of-school lives of boys and girls. This article describes the efforts to provide such a program in a typical city school system. This system, the Joliet city schools, includes Grades I thru VIII.¹ There are approximately 7000 children enrolled with 223 teachers. These are housed in eighteen buildings, four of which have junior high-school classes as well as the six elementary grades. Various parts of the program which are believed to contribute definitely to the development of appreciation and taste are discussed in the following pages.

The cycle plan for teaching certain special subjects—Art, music, and physical education are organized on a cycle plan. Grades I thru III are designated as the lower cycle, Grades IV thru VI as the upper cycle, and Grades VII and VIII as the junior high school. Within each cycle in each of the eighteen elementary schools (Grades I-VI) is one regular classroom teacher who has had special training in music, one who has had special training in art, and one who has had such training in physical education. Each day there is a cycle period during which these special subjects are taught. Because this work is recreational in nature, it is always placed in the afternoon, usually following

¹ The Joliet Township High School, which also serves the city, is separately organized and administered.

the recess period. An actual illustration will best show how the plan works. In the upper cycle of the Lincoln School, the sixth-grade teacher handles all the art, the fifth-grade teacher handles all the music, and the fourth-grade teacher all the physical education. During the cycle period, the music teacher meets each class of the cycle in succession and directs all musical activities. At the same time the physical education and art teachers are presenting their special subjects to each group within the cycle. That is, these three teachers travel or "cycle" from room to room until all classes have been met in each subject. During the same period a similar program is being carried out in the lower cycle. In the larger buildings where there are more than three teachers in a cycle, other subjects are incorporated in the cycle scheme. Such subjects as spelling, writing, and free library reading are easily adaptable to such a program.

There are several advantages of the cycle plan. First, it obviates the necessity of having teachers devote full time to these special subjects; that is, it enables the regular staff to take care of the special work. Second, the plan provides much more expert instruction in these special subjects than could be provided if each classroom teacher handled all of them for her own class. Among applicants for school positions it is always possible to find persons who are really gifted and trained for one specialty, such as music, but it is seldom if ever possible to find a person well qualified to teach all three lines. A third advantage is that each special teacher can carry on building activities thru the use of the regular cycle period allotted to her subject. For example, at Christmas time a successful musical program is prepared in each building without calling for special rehearsals outside of class hours; from Thanksgiving until Christmas the music period is devoted entirely to Christmas music. This arrangement gives purpose to the classroom singing. Likewise, those who teach art and physical education carry on building activities that would be impossible otherwise. Moreover, programs combining these special skills are very easily accomplished. Thru this type of organization an effort is made in each building to provide a wide range of experiences that will enrich young lives.

Work in the junior high school is departmentalized. Each of the four schools has a special music teacher, a special art teacher, a woman instructor for the girls in physical education, and a man for the boys in that subject. The same results are obtained here by the departmental work as are obtained in the lower grades by the cycle plan.

Music—The primary purposes of the music program are (1) to provide as many types of musical experience as possible, (2) to discover

and direct along proper channels all children who have special abilities, and (3) to give all children the opportunity to know and love as much good music as possible. In the lower cycle the major emphasis is put on vocal work. Nursery songs, songs of the seasons, songs pertaining to special days, and folk songs are offered in great numbers. Technical training and drill are minimized in these grades in order to develop the practice of singing for the love of singing. In addition to vocal work, the children are given opportunities to organize rhythm bands and thus to lay the foundation for instrumental work in the upper cycle. In the upper cycle the program is more varied, and attempts are made to direct youngsters into the fields of music in which they are most interested. Opportunities are given for experience in band, orchestra, chorus, piano, and violin work.

Beginning with the fourth grade, boys who have either aptitude or interest in band work are given thoro tryouts. The band director goes to each building once a week to work with these boys. As soon as a boy shows suitable proficiency he is assigned to the third band, which is composed of beginners from all schools and meets weekly at the central band room for regular rehearsals. As soon as he merits promotion he is placed in the second band, which also meets weekly, and from this he may win a position in the concert band. The latter is composed of from ninety to one hundred members and plays at all school and civic affairs where its services are requested. Even in this band the spirit of improvement by competition prevails. Each section has its "first chair" soloist, and all "chairs" are ranked downward from this first one. The boys are assigned chairs on the basis of competitive trials. At any time after six weeks any boy may challenge the next one above him for his chair. The section leaders form an advisory board thru which the band governs itself. This type of organization has won for the concert band an enviable reputation within its own state and elsewhere.

Orchestra work is confined at present to the four junior high schools, each of which has its own orchestra. Group work on stringed instruments is available in the elementary grades, as is piano instruction. This work is carried on by private piano and violin teachers, who come to the schools and conduct classes at nominal fees paid by the children's parents. Children interested in wind and percussion instruments get their building instruction from the band leader. Thus, boys and girls may enter junior high school well prepared for two years in the orchestra.

Vocal work in the upper cycle includes considerable instruction in music reading, appreciation, and part singing. In some elementary and in all junior high schools, boys' and girls' glee clubs and mixed choruses

are elective in addition to the regular classroom work in singing. All the elective music groups, including choruses, bands, and orchestras, meet for one-hour periods each day following the noon lunch.

In addition to the program of musical activities just described, taste and appreciation are developed by the use of radios and phonographs.

Art—While children cannot be taught directly to appreciate art, they can acquire some degree of appreciation by working with materials from which art products are made. The art course in this system attempts to help children look for and see beauty in their natural surroundings and to express what they see in their art work. Appreciation of beauty in everyday situations is considered more important for a child than the study of art masterpieces. Units in the course of study which stress appreciation, and the grades in which they are studied, are as follows: art in the home, Grades I and V; art in our community, Grades II and IV; art in building, Grade III; art in dress, Grade VI; art in advertising—posters, packages, window display, etc.—Grade V; structural design, Grade VI; and conscious study of the principles of arrangement, Grades VII and VIII.

• The course also calls for the use of all sorts of materials. In the first cycle, use is made of crayon, chalk, charcoal, water colors, easel paint, colored paper, clay, and finger paint. In the upper cycle, in addition to those named above, use is made of fresco paint, tempera paint, colored inks, linoleum block printing, soap and wood carving, and beading. The great variety of subjects and working materials are used with the hope that each child will find one or more fields in which he can develop appreciable skill. Slides and prints of art masterpieces are used whenever their subjects apply to the activity in the unit. Traveling exhibits of art masterpieces and of children's work are shown whenever possible. Finally, children are urged to look for beauty everywhere, to discuss what they see with others, and to bring to class things of beauty which come into their possession.

Physical education—The work in this field has as its motive the development of health as a necessary factor in zestful and happy living. A series of up-to-date health readers is used thruout the grades. A great many health practices in the classroom are used to impress children with the happiness to be derived from healthful living habits. The cycle work in physical education consists largely of informal group games, folk dances, hikes, formal exercises, and corrective work where needed. In addition to this class-period program there are "extracurricular" activities, including interclass and interschool tournaments in softball and basketball for boys and girls in the elementary grades, and football, basketball, softball, and swimming for junior high-school boys. Junior high girls are limited to basketball and soft-

ball. The swimming meets are held at the local Y.M.C.A., which gives free swimming instruction to all boys over ten years of age during a "learn to swim" campaign each year. Boys are excused from classes two hours each week during this campaign, and continue the training until they pass tests indicating swimming ability.

Natural science—The study of elementary science offers opportunities for esthetic growth that many teachers have overlooked. There is no period of school life when children have greater curiosity concerning the world about them than during the elementary-school years. The period between the ages of six and ten has been called the "age of wonder." Children at this level wonder about the stars, the planets, the apparent journeys of the sun; about the changing seasons and all the responses of living things to seasonal changes; about the plants and animals with which they grow up; about machines, radios, electric lights, automobiles, and toys. Questions about these things should be answered at the time when children most naturally and eagerly ask them.

In the Joliet system, a series of science readers is used thruout the elementary grades. However, the use of textbooks is of minor importance compared to the other science activities. Children are encouraged to bring pets to school, to build and maintain aquariums and terrariums, to grow plants in window gardens, to make and bring to school collections of rocks, leaves, or any other interesting objects. They bring cocoons to school and watch the marvels of emerging *cecropias*. They take field trips to study trees and flowers and streams. They are taken on trips to nearby Chicago to visit the Field Museum, the Adler Planetarium, the Shedd Aquarium, and the Brookfield Zoo. In all these experiences the major emphasis is put upon appreciation of all life and life environments and the forces that make life possible. An effort is made to keep alive and stimulate the natural curiosity of children at this age level so that they will come to love more and more the world about them, always seeking for more truth about it; and so that, when they come to the more formal study of science in junior and senior high schools, they will have a background which will give motive and zeal to their work.

Home economics and manual training—These subjects are generally thought of as utility subjects. Nevertheless, they offer great opportunities for the development of taste and appreciation. It is unfortunate that the cost of operating such classes limits them to the seventh and eighth grades.

In home economics, these four objectives motivate the work: (1) to help the girl live a satisfying life in her present home; (2) to help her formulate, thru significant experiences, a wholesome philosophy of life

that will broaden and deepen as life goes on; (3) to help her acquire sufficient knowledge and skill to engage successfully and happily in homemaking activities; and (4) to develop her appreciation of, and respect for, woman's work in the home and its contribution to the other members of the family. Personal charm is held up as a possession that every girl can and should acquire. In the final unit of work each girl makes her own graduation dress, using uniform material but choosing her own pattern. This one experience alone has often profoundly influenced girls in regard to the matter of dress.

Manual training attempts to develop in boys an appreciation and a taste for good design and good workmanship; a joy in handling good tools and good materials; a satisfaction in completing a worthwhile construction project. Every normal boy loves to "make things." With even the limited skill acquired in two years of manual training, many are able to carry over into life abilities that give much pleasure and profit. The course emphasizes woodworking, but also provides considerable experience in mechanical drawing and in working with such simple electrical equipment as is found in the average home. Printing, weaving, and basketry are available to a limited number of children.

Social studies—This course extends thru all grades. It has been recently revised so that it attempts to deal with those social contacts which are most vital to children at each grade level, and to assist them in acquiring an ever broader view of the world in which they live. During the first three years most of the attention is given to human relations in home, school, and community. Every effort is made to develop appreciation of what responsible and happy participation in various social groups means. Trips are taken to the police station, fire station, public library, hospitals, and other places where community helpers are at work. In the upper elementary- and junior high-school grades, successive units of geography and history deal with county, state, national, and world organization and relations. The whole course has as its main objective the establishment of happier living and broader ideals in all human relationships.

Recreatory reading—The course of study in reading offers almost unlimited opportunities for enriching the lives of children and providing for them a lifelong source of joy and satisfaction. While one purpose of reading is to acquire needed information, a second and equally important purpose is to appreciate and enjoy reading material of increasingly good quality. To develop in children a real love of reading for its own sake, a well-planned schedule of supplementary reading is carried out.

A very liberal item in the school budget provides annually for the purchase of carefully selected books. While these cover all the subjects

in the curriculum, they are selected on the basis of their appeal to children and a great many of them are strictly story material. They include suitable books for all grade levels. These books are divided into sets of approximately twenty each, and there are few if any duplicates in any two sets. The sets are of three types. One contains class reading books, all of one kind with enough for each child to have a copy. Another type contains several groups of five or six identical books in a certain field, such as social studies or elementary science. The third type contains single copies of a library nature to be used in the weekly "free reading" periods. One set of each type for every grade is in each building at all times. The sets move from building to building at the end of each six weeks. By this method almost unlimited reading material is made available for all children, and definite provision is made for its use.

Each building has its own library room, thru which the teachers try to develop the library habit in children. Books are added each year by means of a special fund for supplementary reading material and by means of donations from parent-teacher groups and other organizations.

The school system also has ideal cooperation from the local public library. The director of the children's department is a most unusual person in that she not only loves children, but also knows what they like to read and never wearies of making books available for them thru any possible channel. Any teacher may ask for and obtain books in any quantity for schoolroom use. The circulation of public library books to schools amounts to more than 75,000 copies per year. Moreover, whenever new books are to be ordered by the library, school people are asked to submit lists of books which they desire for the coming year. In addition, both the school and the library encourage the children of all grades to have library cards of their own, and to make early and frequent use of this fine community service. Last fall a communication from the library stated that the number of books withdrawn from the children's department during September had broken all previous records. The withdrawals on one Saturday alone exceeded 400, and of these more than 100 were nonfiction.

Integrative activities—In addition to regular classroom work in the various subject fields, the children and teachers plan and carry out many activities that involve skills acquired in several different fields. Typical of such activities was a puppet show produced by one building last year. The puppets were designed by art classes; the making of the puppets from wood was done in manual training classes; puppet dresses were made in home economics classes; the "lines" were written in English classes; the puppets were operated by members of physical education classes; and music for the show was furnished by music classes. Almost every youngster in the upper cycle and junior high-

school classes had some part in the activity. Participation in such an event, together with the community acclaim which it is likely to receive, does something for children that formal classroom procedure cannot easily do.

Some pertinent observations—In conclusion, the writer offers three observations based on experience with the program described above. (1) Development of taste and appreciation by *all* children is as essential as mastery of the basic school subjects. (2) Lack of funds to provide elaborate programs for this purpose can be offset largely by the use of the cycle plan in teaching certain special subjects and by placing special emphasis on the esthetic point of view in such regular subjects as reading, science, and others mentioned in this article. (3) The basic ideal for work of this sort is to help children learn to do things for the love of doing them, and to help them find in their own environments opportunities for lifelong enjoyment thru self-expression in music and art, thru worthwhile reading, thru maintaining good health and developing personal charm, thru homemaking, and thru understanding in some measure the world in which they live.

WHATEVER plan of curriculum organization is employed—whether subject, activity, or core—it is essential, if optimum enrichment is to be accomplished, that the entire life and program of the school be developed as a unified whole which is designed directly to provide a rounded program of living for boys and girls. Emphasis on specific parts or aspects of the curriculum without reference to the whole will inevitably lead to maladjustment, disproportionate emphases, ignored interrelationships, and overlooked needs of children. This is a matter of special importance because of the patchwork nature of the traditional curriculum and the resulting disintegrative influence on the education of children. Plans presumed to provide curriculum enrichment should not be permitted to perpetuate this situation.

—Caswell, Hollis L., p. 247 of this yearbook.

A SCHOOLWIDE PROGRAM OF CREATIVE AND INTERPRETIVE ACTIVITIES

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COMPETENT TEACHERS as well as psychologists now recognize that each child is a unique individual with emotions, reactions, abilities, interests, and needs peculiar to himself. At the same time, they see each child as a social being who, under present living conditions, has little or no opportunity for constructive participation in community life. It is clear, therefore, that an important task of the school is to surround the child with an environment which will release his potentialities and stimulate him to create something of immediate value for himself and his community.

With this end in view, a program of individual and group activities was worked out at the Graceland School¹ in Kansas City, Missouri. This program was carried on during school hours in addition to the regular work in subject fields. It emphasized the development of attitudes and appreciations while contributing also to the children's mastery of essential facts and skills. The general procedure and an illustrative project are described in the following pages.

THE ACTIVITY PROGRAM IN GENERAL

Preliminary planning—For the first two weeks of the year, the teachers and pupils studied the school environment with these questions in mind: What would we like to do? What needs to be done? What do we think can be done? This preliminary survey was accomplished primarily thru informal discussion in class groups and among individuals. When each room had compiled its suggestions, they were handed to a central committee of teachers and pupils, who then selected those activities which seemed to be most pertinent at the time. At the same time a list of all the suggestions that had been made was put on display in a prominent place in the hall. It was not intended that this list should be permanent, but that it should be changed and added to from time to time as new opportunities and needs were discovered. Each child was then given an opportunity to consider the activities suggested and to select the one on which he wanted to work.

Selection and organization of groups—After an exploration of the possibilities in the chosen pieces of work, each child identified himself with one of the following groups: the one which wanted to construct a drive on the east side of the building; the one which would plan and arrange a playroom for bad weather; the one which would carry

¹ The writer was principal of the Graceland School during the first year of this program.

on the safety work of the school; the one which would plan and manage the lunchroom; or the one in which the child individually could carry on some piece of work in which he was interested. Each teacher likewise selected the group with which she preferred to work. These groups cut across grade lines, and pupils from the first grade thru the seventh worked side by side, each doing a part of the work which his experience and age made it possible for him to do.

The five groups just mentioned worked thruout the first semester of the school year. At the beginning of the second semester the list of possibilities was again examined and several new interests which had recently emerged were added. It was decided to continue the safety group and the special hobby group. To these were added a group which wanted to plan and plant a formal garden, one that was interested in building a playhouse and developing a play center in the schoolyard, a group interested in dramatics, and one interested in dancing.

These groups all had a more or less similar organization. Each had a teacher sponsor, and a chairman and secretary elected by the group. Each was broken up into smaller groups according to the needs discovered for carrying on the work. These smaller groups were so organized that they contained some of both the older and the younger children. Some groups had more of the older children while others had more of the younger ones, depending upon the type of work to be done. No matter what the character of the work, however, there were always some of the older ones in the group to guide and help the younger ones with their jobs.

Time allotment—The number of work periods used to carry on this program varied with the amount of work to be done and with the season of the year and the weather conditions. More time was taken for it in the early fall and again in the spring. Periods were from about forty-five minutes to an hour or an hour and a half in length, depending on what needed to be done. Periods used merely for planning were relatively short. If actual construction was going on, the periods were lengthened. Each week the program of the entire school as well as the particular work to be done in the various activity groups was considered, and the schedule for work was adapted to the need at that time.

AN ILLUSTRATIVE PROJECT

To clarify the plan set forth in the preceding discussion, one phase of the program will be described here in greater detail. The selection is hard to make, for each phase was interesting in its own unique way, and each child felt his own part to be the most significant and

the most worthwhile. With these points in mind, let us examine the work of the group interested in developing the play center.

Plans and procedures—This group was composed of about forty children ranging in age from six to twelve years. Miss Gross, the first-grade teacher, was the sponsor. Those who had elected to work in this group met with her during one of the periods and began to pool their ideas about the kind of play center they would like to have. It was their intention to build something which could be used by all the grades in the school and which they could enjoy as their own—something that would serve as a suitable place to work out various school activities and at the same time improve the appearance of the schoolgrounds. A number of discussion periods followed in which books and magazines were examined for ideas; playground experts, gardeners, and primary and intermediate directors were consulted; and resources of the environment were explored. Then selections were made and a plan was drawn up which showed all the possibilities which might eventually be included in such an undertaking.

This plan provided for a house covering a floor space of ten by twelve feet. It was to be a frame structure set on a stone foundation about two and a half feet high. At the side of the house a small garden containing popcorn, peanuts, gourds, carrots, and lettuce was to be planted. A cement fish pool surrounded by a rock garden was to be constructed at the other side. Small houses with screened runways were to be built from boxes to house pets that the children wanted to have. Simple but effective landscaping was planned, including the planting of fruit trees and other flowering trees and shrubs.

By the end of the school year the house was up. The foundation had been built, the superstructure added, and the roof put on. The windows and doors were not in, however, nor was any of the inside finishing done. The yard had been leveled and filled, the garden planted, and the pool dug and cemented. From this point the work continued the following fall. The play center will not be a finished product for some time to come, but will be changed and developed from year to year as different needs arise and as different groups desire to use it for new purposes.

Organization for work—The working organization of this group was an important factor in its progress. After ideas were collected and plans discussed, the group as a whole broke up into five smaller groups, each assuming responsibility for one part of the project. One group took over the job of building the house, one of planting the garden, one of building the houses for pets, one of constructing the pool, and one of assisting wherever needed at any particular time.

These groups met separately and went to work on the problem at hand. The group concerned with the actual building of the house sought the aid of the manual training teacher, and he consented to work with them as their adviser and leader. Much of this work was taken over into the manual training period. Types of houses were studied, a decision was reached as to what type would fill the needs defined by the entire group, and plans were drawn for construction. The group was organized under a foreman, an assistant foreman, a tool man, a water boy, and a timekeeper. These boys did all their own figuring on the amounts and costs of materials needed, shopped around and either found what they wanted or ordered it if it had to be purchased, and kept an accurate account of money spent. Not all the groups were organized exactly as this one was, but each had an organization designed to meet its needs and keep its work progressing smoothly.

VALUES OF THE PROGRAM

It is difficult to express in words the values which the sponsors of such a program feel emerge from day to day. Such values often show themselves at most unusual times and in seemingly incidental forms. The best way for an outsider to evaluate the work would be to spend some time in the school, talk to the teachers and pupils, study the experiences the children have, and observe closely the children's attitudes and actions. Since this is impossible for readers of the yearbook, a brief appraisal is attempted in the following paragraphs.

Correlation with skill subjects—Many teachers will immediately ask, "How did this tie up with the daily work of the school? Did the time consumed interfere with the academic efficiency of the pupils?" The answer is an emphatic "no." On the contrary, the activity program gave teachers a more potent approach to much of their academic work. The lower grades utilized it exceptionally well. Much of the reading, language, and writing done in the various rooms was centered directly in it. Stories were made for charts, books were written and read, illustrations were drawn, and experiences were shared in the language period. Wide reading for gathering information, reading and following directions, writing letters, making talks and giving announcements, and writing articles for the safety bulletin were other experiences which required the use of language skills.

Many opportunities also arose in which practical work with numbers was needed. Various situations afforded the lower-grade teachers many chances to develop number concepts. Accurate measuring was needed for many of the jobs to be done. Plans had to be drawn to scale. Figuring the amount of lumber and the amount of roofing material to be used required arithmetical knowledge which was new to the chil-

dren. Articles had to be bought and bills paid. Other skills, such as writing and spelling, also fitted into the work in obvious ways.

Growth in attitudes and appreciations—Of far greater importance than the correlation of the project with academic subjects, however, were the changes and growth of attitudes and appreciations within the school. The older children grew in a feeling of responsibility. They learned to respect and appreciate the work of younger children and to accept the responsibility for guiding them. The younger children came to realize that they could be of actual service to the school, and thus began to take a real part in the life of the school much earlier than usual. Interest in the school was intensified to the extent that the group as a whole developed a feeling that the school was *theirs*. In fact, interest became so great that nothing seemed to keep the children from their chosen tasks. One very rainy day the writer went to the window to make sure that everyone was safely indoors, when much to her surprise she saw four boys on the roof of the playhouse nailing shingles while four others held umbrellas over them.

Community interest in the program also ran high. Mothers and fathers lent tools, made inspection tours, and were always ready to share their experience and knowledge when needed. The school thus became an integral part of the community, with both children and adults accepting the responsibility for its work.

SOME people still believe that the only function of the school is to teach children prescribed subjectmatter. Others believe that the first, if not the sole duty of the school, is to give children an opportunity to pursue their own interests, to develop their special capacities, and to solve problems in their own way. Both views seem too extreme. There is, or can be, a middle ground where children have much freedom under wise guidance, where the welfare of the individual is identified with the welfare of the group, and where essential subjectmatter is mastered even tho it be less intrinsically interesting than more informal types of activity.—Editorial Comment in *Socializing Experiences in the Elementary School*, Fourteenth Yearbook, Department of Elementary School Principals, 1935, p. 227.

MAKING AND USING MARIONETTES

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MANY AUTHORS, in attempting to state the reasons why children so thoroly enjoy marionettes, confess the inadequacy of their words. Their feelings in the matter can be appreciated by teachers who have guided groups of children in the creative experience of producing a marionette show. Only after such an experience does a teacher fully realize how the magnetic appeal of the marionette can stimulate an activity providing growth, satisfaction, joy, and abiding interest for the child.

For some time it was popularly believed that since marionettes are a phase of art, the art teacher should be the centralizing and coordinating force in this activity. However, in some schools marionettes are beginning to play a more important role in the dramatic life of the child, and are recognized as a vital means to creative expression in several different fields. Since the production of a marionette show is an outstanding example of integration, much can be said in favor of the classroom teacher's directing the activity. For the correlation of the child's work in other activities she is already accustomed to seeking help and counsel from special teachers and other experts in various fields, and with initiative, ingenuity, and an adventuresome spirit she is well prepared to accept the challenge of a marionette performance.

Everything about marionettes can be joyful, from writing the play to the final performance. No teacher should be afraid to make the first marionette; every teacher should experience that thrill of creative effort and know a bit of the joy and sense of power the child feels when he makes one. There never was a marionette without admirers or one without character. As with other modes of creative expression, the teacher should let no lack of training postpone a beginning.

Some types of marionettes and their uses—Many people fear that marionettes will require too big an investment. The facts are that they can be made as cheaply or expensively, as simply or elaborately, as one wishes, and that their great social and dramatic values can be had with either the simple or the more complicated type. Whether children are in the lower elementary grades or in junior high school, there are marionettes which they can make, love, and use. Clothespin dolls, peanut men, or more professional puppets have their place in the development of the child's dramatic talents.

With a group of second-grade children who had written an original Japanese story as part of their social studies, we used clothespin dolls

manipulated with one head string. For the weighting, heads, and hands we used salt-flour clay.¹ Each clothespin was anchored in a small standard of this clay so that it would stand erect and not tip over easily. After modeling the egg-shaped head and adding a bit of nose, we ran a darning needle threaded with cord thru the head at the point of balance. Later the head string was attached to the ends of the cord. The face was painted with water colors; a cap, a hat, or some embroidery-thread hair was glued on the head; and pipe cleaners were twisted securely around the clothespin to serve as adjustable arms. Children have their own ingenious ways of clothing dolls, and in this case they tied on a straight piece of cloth for the skirt. Another piece of cloth was folded in half, slit up the front, gashed for sleeves, and girdled at the waistline to complete the kimona costume.

These marionettes were used very successfully with this second-grade group, in which a majority of the children spoke broken English and were shy, reticent, and poorly adjusted in many ways. It had been impossible for these pupils to dramatize plays in the usual way with any degree of satisfaction to themselves. Concealed behind curtains, however, individual children experienced the freedom necessary to carry thru their various characterizations, and the entire group was thrilled with their fine expression and improved speech. We know that the talented child shares this feeling of greater freedom and experiences a sense of attaining new heights of expression when he is hidden from the spectators, while the retiring child who is unable to perform before his classmates often is amazed at his own potentialities under such conditions. After such an awakening, desirable personality changes often occur easily and naturally.

Wishing to present "Jack and the Beanstalk," a third grade followed Edith F. Ackley's clear-cut suggestions² for making marionettes of pale yellow Japanese crepe, stuffed with hospital cotton and weighted with lead sinkers. The features of the face are sewed on with colored thread and the blush of the cheeks created with a colored pencil. Of course, these marionettes are made more elaborate and operate with more strings than do simpler ones. The children appear to prefer a modeled face to a flat one—a preference due probably to the effect of lights

¹ Salt-flour clay has proved a most satisfactory medium for modeling because it is very inexpensive, takes water colors readily, can be made at home, and is very hard and durable when dry. The proportions are 5 parts salt, 3 parts flour, and 2 parts water. Make a smooth paste with the flour and water. Put the salt over a low flame until it snaps and crackles, stirring constantly to insure uniform heat. Remove from stove and stir into the flour paste. The hot salt cooks the flour paste, making it into a dough. As soon as the mixture can be handled, knead until smooth, working in any salt that is not a part of the dough, and pack in a covered jar so that it will keep moist until needed. Like regular clay it can be moistened with water during the modeling process to assure smoothness. While drying, it shrinks some but does not crack, and when thoroly dry it can be dropped or knocked about without breaking.

² Ackley, Edith F. *Marionettes*. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Co., 1929. p. 6-12.

making shadows and seemingly causing changes of expression on the modeled face as the head is moved.

In a rural school we had the problem of constructing marionettes which could be made by the older boys. As there were no tools with which to work, we created a jointed body of wood taken from orange crates. We heated a piece of fence wire in the jacketed stove to burn holes for tying the sticks together at the joints. For head, hands, and feet we again used salt-flour clay. For our stage we borrowed two ordinary kitchen tables, placed one top-side down upon the other, cut a proscenium arch in beaver board, fastened this to the legs of the up-turned table, and further concealed the players with sheets at either side. We presented "Snow White" at an evening meeting of the community parent-teacher association, holding flashlights because there were no electric lights. The audience appreciated the show. These were the first marionettes the rural folk had even seen.

As an inexpensive, quickly made marionette, this jointed wooden body with salt-flour clay head is very serviceable. We found that lead feet helped balance the figure better and made manipulation easier. In fastening the clay head to the jointed body, the cord thru the head should make a "V" course from the points of balance to the neck, and a small loop of cord should be left at the base of the "V." With marionettes of this type a fourth-grade class gave its versions of "Hansel and Gretel," "Ali Baba and the Forty Thieves," "Three Pills in a Bottle"³ by Rachel Field, and "Knave of Hearts"⁴ by Louise Saunders.

More recently another fourth-grade group used the type of doll recommended by the Kingsland Marionettes⁵—a body made of unbleached muslin stuffed very hard with cheap cotton, weighted with lead, and provided with head and hands carved of balsa wood (see Figures I and II). Altho someone more capable of handling a jackknife than the average fourth-grader was needed to do the carving, the marionettes were so much more attractive that we thought them worth the extra work. Since we were concerned chiefly with the language activity involved, it mattered little that more expert hands helped to make the marionettes. After working with marionettes of both types for two years, this class favored the stuffed body because its added weight permitted more animation. With this type of marionette the group presented the Grimm fairy tale, "In the Garden of the Sorceress," and "Humpty Dumpty."

For our Christmas tree decorations one year, we made peanut men dressed in paper clown costumes. The children exclaimed over them

³ Field, Rachel L. *Three Pills in a Bottle*. New York: Samuel French, Inc. 1934. 31 p.

⁴ Saunders, Louise. *Knave of Hearts*. New York: Longmans, Green and Co.

⁵ Mabel and Cedric Head, of the Kingsland Marionette Summer Workshop at Brandon, Vermont.



FIGURE I—THE CAST OF "HUMPTY DUMPTY"

and suggested that they would make good marionettes. So we tried it. After making the peanut men in school and putting on salt-flour clay heads, the members of one group took their men home to obtain help in dressing them, while the other group dressed theirs at school. Many people might think it impossible for third-grade children to dress peanut men, but our experience indicates otherwise. In this instance the group dressing their own men at school received most of the compliments.

Since the stage needs to be in proportion to the marionette, we used a paper-towel carton for the peanut men, cutting portions of each end to provide exits and entrances. The third-grade children were satisfied with these marionettes, found them easy to manipulate with the two strings, and discovered they were truly expressive. While peanut men are cheap and easily made, they represent one step in the art of manipulation and provide an adequate basis for writing and acting good puppet plays.

Selecting the story and writing the play—Choosing the story is important. The children have found that the play should not be too long,

should have few scenes, and should not place too many characters on the stage at one time. Adhering to these principles benefits the actors as well as the audience. Rather than have many scenes and show everything, we try to have characters tell some of the incidents thru their conversation. Since we are attempting to create an illusion, we must leave something to the imagination of the audience. Children like best the stories with humor, action, and a bit of the fantastic or the dangerous element. In the preparation of plays or novelty acts using material from social studies and natural science, we put in as much dramatic action and humor as possible. Things must happen for the audience to see as well as to hear. The emotional element is partly controlled by the scenery, lights, and actions of the marionettes themselves.

In writing plays from stories, we read the story until the children are quite familiar with the movement of the plot and can give brief synopses, omitting all distracting details and conversation which at the beginning of the work they so eagerly include. Then we select the scenes which have the greatest amount of action, and in determining these we consider the properties and lighting. We try to visualize the characters with respect to definite action and grouping. Since the audience can become better acquainted with the characters if only a few are on the stage at one time, much attention must be given to the arrangement of characters on the stage. Last of all, we decide whether to present the more spectacular and fantastic incidents directly or thru conversation.

The first writing of the play is done solely to develop a central theme. It is usually short, and sometimes even abrupt, choppy, and very commonplace. In the second writing we enlarge the conversations, decide on the tempo, and add original rhymes, songs, etc. Next we check our play for consistent characterizations, because with a group offering so many suggestions, lack of harmony may arise. For the third writing we view critically each speech and rewrite it in more effective language, noting especially the opportunities for picture words and phrases having dramatic appeal. Usually by this time we think our play is about the best ever, and so we turn our attention to the settings, properties, and costumes.

Preparing costumes and stage settings—Altho a few suggestions here may prove helpful in regard to the problem of costuming, nothing can take the place of originality and ingenuity. Usually the children themselves have plenty of ideas on the subject. We try to visualize the costumes of the characters who are to appear in the same scene, both in relation to each other and in relation to the backdrops. We plot the groupings in advance with bits of material and chalkings, having the children use the "color wheel" to check for harmony. We consult social



FIGURE II—OUR MASTER OF CEREMONIES GREETING A PERFORMER

studies and history books for illustrations of period costumes, including peasant and royal dresses, hats, and boots.

Of the various methods and materials we have used in making scenery backdrops, our favorite for both effectiveness and simplicity is finger-painting on unbleached muslin with a starch solution colored with a small amount of alabastine or Tintex dye. A backdrop like this can be folded up, stored in a small place, and used again and again. The same starch solution when thinned may be applied with a brush and used for regular painting. The starch gives the dye sufficient body for easy application, and when the starch falls out the color remains. In making oriental draperies we cut grotesque designs from Manila paper, pinned them on dark cambric, and then sprayed alabastine over the entire surface, later removing the paper designs. For wall hangings in a Persian interior we tied kernels of corn in unbleached muslin and then dipped the material in a deep dye, thus obtaining a beautiful tie-dye effect. Leaving the muslin unpressed gave an illusion of crushed pile when the lights shone upon it. We have found that plain-colored cloth, subdued in pigment and either draped or hung flat, makes a fine background for specialty acts and lends dignity to palace interiors. There is great op-

portunity for experimentation with colors and their effects, since the purpose of the setting is to create atmosphere and strike emotional tone in keeping with the action of the play.

For the first production children are inclined to suggest too many properties and distracting details for the stage, but after a bit of experience in manipulating puppets with and without detailed furnishings, they choose the simple stage. The two common styles of setting are the realistic and the suggestive, and often the two styles are used in one show. Platforms, stairs, and walls with visible thickness are easily constructed and add to the illusion of reality. Then again, a garden wall may be used to suggest the garden beyond, or the steps to the throne may suggest the whole interior of the throne room. Simplicity often lends dignity.

For shows in the schoolroom our lighting equipment consists of two flex-arm desk lamps and a set of Christmas tree lights. Tissue paper and cellophane provide convenient ways of changing the colors of the "spots." When our shows are requested by a large audience, we move to the college auditorium stage where the carbon-arc spotlight is used.

Rehearsing and presenting the show—In preparing for a marionette show it is desirable to have a double cast of characters so that each child may have experience both as an actor and as a critical spectator. The development of a constructively critical attitude is of great importance. We make great effort to praise commendable points as well as to point out those needing correction. The children take one another's criticisms well, even tho they be harsher than adults would dream of giving. Under such conditions every rehearsal brings improvement. From the very beginning *ad libitum* remarks are encouraged because we have found that this promotes spontaneity, confidence, and resourcefulness.

The children have no false notion that the puppeteers are the whole show; they have learned that the part of those who "pull the strings" is only a fraction of the complete whole. The production of a marionette show is a splendid opportunity for developing social responsibility and an appreciation of the contributions of various workers. To accomplish this, ample credit should be given to the prompter, the curtain man, the advertising chairman, and the entire backstage crew. Too many children backstage may cause some confusion, but if they are well organized and have a fine sense of cooperation, there is great social value in the experience. Often we change duties and casts to increase the children's flexibility and their capacity to assume new responsibilities.

The manipulator of a marionette must strive for perfect coordination between his interpretation and expression and the movements of the marionette. Even when almost motionless, the marionette can be

animated and responsive to the manipulator's expression, and the child with fine expression and sensitivity can create this effect on the stage. Mere string-pulling does not convey life or animation and lacks the quality of human vibration. The good puppeteer therefore feels himself on the stage thruout the duration of a scene. The child must learn to lose his own identity for the time being; he must first feel the mood and emotions of the character, and then express and direct that feeling down thru the strings. Soon he is surprised to find manipulation second nature, and then he completely forgets the strings. With a good cast, the show backstage is even more interesting than the one which the audience sees. For example, the "queen," in calling her son, stands on her toes as she makes her voice high, thin, and trailing. The "prince," as he falls on the thorns below the witch's tower, doubles his body as he shrieks and moans. In weeping, it seems so necessary to bow one's head and sob into one's hand that it is difficult to peek thru one's fingers to watch the marionette. An observer sees freedom and genuine expression behind the curtains.

Summary of values—It seems hardly necessary to say that the final production is not the most important part of the marionette activity; the learning which goes on as the work progresses is of far greater value. In addition to the variety of rich opportunities for creative expression which is provided, one cannot fail to be impressed by the interest in speech improvement which such an activity arouses. Of their own accord the children recognize the need of projecting their voices and of enunciating their words with force and intelligence. Children are checked by their classmates for correct pronunciation of such words as *just*, *again*, and final *ing*. Thus, in working with marionettes the children experience the possibilities of artistic expression thru lights, color, sound effects, the play, and beautiful speech.⁶

⁶The following books will be especially helpful to teachers who are undertaking work with marionettes for the first time: Ackley, Edith F. *Marionettes*. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Co., 1929. 115 p. ¶ Mills, Winifred H., and Dunn, L. M. *Marionettes, Masks and Shadows*. Garden City. New York: Doubleday, Doran and Co., 1927. ¶ Inverarity, Robert B. *Manual of Puppetry*. 2d edition. New York: Binfords and Mort, 1938. 222 p.

THE books and magazine articles listed at the end of each chapter are especially recommended for further study.—
Editorial Committee.

WRITING AND STAGING A PLAY IN GRADES III AND IV

NELLIE HATON PERRIN

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CREATIVE ABILITY depends upon one's experiences, understandings, and appreciations, as well as upon one's native talents. The individual must learn to know and appreciate a phase of his environment before he can create anything which will truly and artistically represent that phase. He must also have practice in using suitable materials and technics for expressing his knowledges and appreciations. In accordance with these basic principles an attempt was made to develop certain creative abilities in a group of third- and fourth-grade children thru the writing and production of a play. The background and procedure of this project are set forth in the following pages.

Background of the project—The class participating in this activity was in a laboratory school and was in the same room during the entire year under the guidance of the writer, who was assisted by three student teachers.¹ The creative work was done in the second semester. The need for this work arose unexpectedly after the pupils had studied a unit on pioneer life and one on transportation during the first term. The unit on transportation recalled certain facts about caveman and Indian travel which had been learned in the second grade, stressed again the methods of pioneer travel, and developed the following understandings and appreciations with respect to modern travel:

1. Transportation today is faster, safer, and more comfortable than formerly.
2. Roads are better because new methods of transportation have required better roads.
3. The inventors of improved means of travel tried many times before their inventions were successful.
4. The inventors were once boys and girls like those in the class.
5. Each new invention gave still more ideas for better means of travel.
6. We are indebted to the earlier settlers who, thru hardships and perseverance, helped our country to be what it is today. In turn, we should aid our country in making further progress and in increasing the safety of its people.
7. Poems and songs sometimes make us hear train sounds, airplane sounds, etc. The rhythm and sound of the words make us feel speed, slow movement, or heavy loads.

These understandings were gained from reading, from oral and written reports, from a moving picture entitled "Daniel Boone," from trips thru an airplane and a Pullman coach, from a display of miniature boats and airplanes constructed by the junior high-school boys,

¹ The student teachers were Helen Zwerner, Helen Hungerford, and Charles Wendholt.

and from activities in art which were the culmination of the unit. To summarize the work, a frieze was made by five committees comprising the entire class. This frieze was named "Transportation thru Five Ages," the five ages being caveman days, Indian times, the early pioneer period, the later pioneer period, and modern times. Stories written by the children were attached to explain the pictures.

At the close of the unit an interesting situation arose. The children expressed a desire to do something more with transportation. What to do was the first question. Someone suggested having a play. This idea was conceived probably because in the past many of the children had taken part in Christmas plays. They also had dramatized a valentine story and had broadcast it over a local radio station. At any rate, the suggestion was accepted. What to name the play was the second question. A child suggested using the title of the frieze, "Transportation thru Five Ages," and this name was chosen unanimously. Thus the setting was established for an experiment in creative work.

General plans and procedures—The five divisions of the frieze became the basis for the five acts of the play. The same committees which had worked on the various parts of the frieze assumed responsibility for the corresponding acts of the play. Charts twenty-four by thirty-six inches were planned for recording suggestions and showing the progress of the play. The first chart was to be the title page. The second would name the acts and the children working on each one. On the third chart would be a description of the scenery for each act, while the fourth would describe the costumes needed. On the fifth chart the script was to be recorded. In addition, there were to be two charts on which each child would record his contributions and write any suggestions he had to offer. The forms for these last two charts were as follows:

MATERIALS BROUGHT IN

NAME OF CHILD CONTRIBUTING	MATERIALS

SUGGESTIONS FOR OUR PLAY

SUGGESTION	BOOK	AUTHOR	PAGE

The work outlined so far was directed by the supervising teacher, but at this point the three student teachers took charge. One of them was entirely responsible for the art work. The other two assumed responsibility for the writing of the play and the making of costumes. All the groups worked at the same time for one and one-half hours each day for four weeks. Four groups worked on lines and costumes in the classroom while the other committee worked on scenery in another room. All the groups came together at the close of each period and reported their progress for the day. As soon as one problem was completed, the next was attacked.

Making scenery and costumes—First, the whole class decided what scenery and costumes would be necessary so that contributions might be brought from home. The children went to the college playhouse where adults were making scenery to see how to start work on that phase. When they returned they listed their needs and the possibilities for supplying them. Then the charts were made showing the materials to be obtained for each act of the play. The materials for the first and last acts are listed below:

CAVEMAN DAYS

SCENERY	COSTUMES
Cave. A packing box	Fur Real fur
Trees for all scenes. Painted cardboard on standards	Beards. Stockings worked into wigs and beards
Backdrop for all scenes. Craft paper	Women's dresses. Pillow cases painted with brown spots
Water. Painted on drop	Men's clothes. Brown cloth to look like skin
Animals. Painted cardboard on standards	Stone axes. Stones tied on sticks with whang leather

MODERN DAYS

SCENERY	COSTUMES
Airplane.....	Toy suspended from top of backdrop
Station.....	Movable blackboard for timetable. Clock. Small chairs for benches.
Cars.....	Toys showing thru opening in top of backdrop
	Ordinary clothes
	Long dress for mother

The materials came in fast and work was begun. Nails, hammers, needles and thread, and other necessary equipment were brought from home. A department store gave crates and packing boxes for cardboard and lumber. Prior to this experience the children working on the scenery had constructed very few things large enough to play with. They were meeting new problems of making parts fit together and fit available spaces. They were learning something of what goes on behind the scenes of a play, and were realizing that the job was not an easy one. Soon the problem of shifting the scenery presented itself, and four "property men" were selected to work that out.

Making the costumes proved to be easier than building the scenery. Each child made his own costume. Following are some experiences of the committees which worked on the caveman and Indian costumes:

1. A piece of fur was brought in for a cap. It was large and was used instead as a dress for a cavewoman.

2. Virginia brought pillow-cases. The ends were cut and the material was fitted on her for a dress, but before she had finished with this, gunny sacks were brought in and these seemed much more appropriate for her costume. Therefore, a gunny sack was colored to look like a spotted animal skin.

3. Donald brought some brown and yellow spotted furry material which he sewed on a pair of shorts. When finished, it looked like a leopard skin.

4. Jimmy brought some brown material which was ripped up and made into a costume that looked like a brown skin torn to fit a caveman.

5. Two complete Indian suits were brought for the Indian group. One of these, a boy's, was used as the chief's suit. The top of the other was used for Betty, who designed a belt and a headband of brown paper to go with it.

6. Dale's trousers were made of gunny sack too. He basted the trousers, cut them out, and colored them with bright crayons. Albert made an apron of gunny sacks, which he fringed and decorated with designs.

7. A doll was brought for a papoose; a board was cut and colored in an Indian pattern; and a blanket was made for the doll from a gunny sack.

8. Dale brought two blankets. One was used to complete his costume and the other was used for Roberta, a squaw.

Another committee worked on the pioneer costumes at the same time. Nickie made a coonskin cap by sewing fur on a stocking and

pinning a coon's tail to it. He wore this to represent an early pioneer, and then used a top hat, a red tie, and a cane to represent a later pioneer. Dale drew a pattern for chaps, and each cowboy made his own from Craft paper. One child showed how Coca-Cola caps could be punched and fastened with brads to the chaps to make them look more real. The early pioneer mother wore a Colonial costume, while the mother of the later pioneer period brought her grandmother's black dress and sewed a barrel hoop in it to serve as a hoop skirt, the slack being caught into a bustle. The pioneer children wore their mothers' skirts, and made blouses from pillow-cases and lace curtains. A black shoestring was used to lace their bodices.

Planning the music—Preparations had not gone far before it was decided to have singing between the acts. Someone mentioned that the popular song "Wagon Wheels" might be sung because it makes one feel the slow movement of wagon wheels. Finally the music teacher was asked for help and furnished a list of appropriate songs. From that list the children selected "Indian Lullaby,"² to be sung preceding the Indian scene; "Wagon Wheels," to be sung after the pioneer acts; and "The Railroad Train,"³ a song with a catchy rhythm and very expressive words giving the idea of speed and safety, to be used as the finale for the modern transportation act. All songs were practiced at the regular music periods. Then, when the play was performed, the groups which were not performing sang as a part of the chorus during the shifting of the scenery.

One child said he knew an Indian dance which he could do. He was appointed to talk with the physical education director to see if his group might learn it. As a result, "Jumping Dance"⁴ was given at the close of the Indian act.

Writing the script—Preparing a script for the play was another new undertaking. The children had seen shows, read plays, dramatized stories, and "made up" plays, but they had never *written* a play. They had to learn that a script must hold to certain standards, as follows:

1. It must be interesting.
2. Something must happen.
3. The lines must supply information which the characters and scenery do not portray.
4. The lines must follow in logical order.
5. There is a particular form for plays.
6. Correct English should be used.

² Glenn, Mabelle, and others. *Tunes and Harmonies*. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1936. 192 p.

³ Foresman, Robert. *Manual for First Grade Music*. New York: American Book Co., 1931. p. 96.

⁴ Shafter, Mary S. *American Indian and Other Folk Dances for Schools, Pageants, and Playgrounds*. New York: A. S. Barnes and Co., 1927. 77 p.

The writing was a group project. A student teacher recorded what was said, and the children later copied the lines. They realized that what they were writing was based on information they had learned earlier. They became critical of how a thing was said. They shared their ideas. When they began to speak their lines, they discovered that gestures and facial expression helped to interpret their feelings. They found that they needed to have poise, to enunciate clearly, to speak with expression, and to face the audience. They thought of better ways of expressing their ideas every time they practiced, and the lines finally used were the result of many revisions. The finished script for the first and last acts is reproduced here:

ACT I

Setting—One caveman is on the stage, sitting in the door of the cave. Another caveman, who has been chased by an animal, runs on.

FIRST CAVE MAN: We'll have to be careful. The trees are slippery for it has been raining. When we take to the trees, we might slip and fall.

SECOND CAVE MAN: Let's call our women. We must decide where we'll go from here.

(Caveman beats on tree. Women enter.)

FIRST CAVE MAN: Here come some of the women now.

FIRST CAVE WOMAN: What is the matter?

SECOND CAVE MAN: The animals are closing in. There are no more berries. We must find another place to live.

FIRST CAVE WOMAN: We must go back to our old home.

SECOND CAVE WOMAN: I hope the animals haven't moved into our old cave.

FIRST CAVE MAN: What will we do about the river?

FIRST CAVE WOMAN: We could swim, but it will be too far.

SECOND CAVE WOMAN: Have we time to hollow out logs?

SECOND CAVE MAN: No, it will take too long.

FIRST CAVE WOMAN: We'll have to walk a long way to the river.

SECOND CAVE MAN: I think we'd better float on the logs.

SECOND CAVE WOMAN: We'd better start now so we will have a good start by sundown.

(Exit.)

ACT V

Setting—Father helps family out of bus and walks to station to wait for train.

FATHER *(helping family)*: Be careful. The traffic is pretty fast along here.

DAUGHTER *(running ahead)*: Here's a seat. Let's wait out here for the train.

SON: I'll sit on my suitcase. *(Reads magazine.)*

MOTHER *(knitting)*: I'm glad we have comfortable air-conditioned trains to ride in. If we had lived in pioneer days, we wouldn't have gone so fast.

DAUGHTER: Just think, you can go from New York to San Francisco in five days and it used to take two months to make the trip.

FATHER: Yes, and you can go in less than twenty-four hours in an airplane.

DAUGHTER: Oh, look! There's an airplane now. *(All shade eyes.)*

FATHER: I believe it is going to land at the airport.

SON: Oh, I believe it is the China Clipper. Here is a picture of it in my *Popular Mechanics*.

(Whistle blows.)

FATHER: There's the train. Let's go.

(Music, "The Railroad Train.")

Making other arrangements—As the time approached for the play to be given, the cast wondered who the audience would be. Since the school needed money to pay for band suits, and since the music department had helped with the songs, it was decided to invite the whole school, to charge five cents admission, and to donate the proceeds to the music department. Then advertising became necessary. First the children experimented with small posters to discover what kind would have the greatest appeal. The best of these were then reproduced on newsprint twenty-four by thirty-six inches, and these larger posters were put in conspicuous places in the school building.

Since the principal values of the project were derived from the preparation rather than the actual presentation of the play, it is not necessary to describe the latter in detail. Suffice it to say that the performance went off as smoothly as could be expected of third- and fourth-grade children, and that it was thoroly enjoyed both by the participants and by the audience.

Summary of values—It is impossible to measure objectively, and difficult to state adequately in words, the results of a creative project of this kind. To those who directed it, however, this particular activity appeared to have many values, not only in developing creative talents as such, but also in motivating subjectmatter learning, providing practice in basic study skills, and improving the children's attitudes toward work and toward the contributions of each member of the group.

Each part of the activity was the result of felt needs. It recalled knowledge gained from past experiences. It opened the way for new experiences. The actual construction gave a better understanding of the hardships of early travelers, who had to repair their own vehicles under much less favorable conditions than those enjoyed by these children. The entire project showed that ideas are expressed in speech, in writing, in art, in drama, in music, and in inventions. It helped the children see that the history of transportation has been one of gradual progress, and that each invention in this field has helped to make travel today more comfortable, faster, and safer. It made them realize that organization, careful planning, and manual labor are necessary for a stage presentation. It showed them that work is necessary to complete a project, and that work itself may be fun. It presented a problem—the solution of which depended entirely on the ingenuity and endeavor of the children. It proved that the sharing of ideas and responsibilities results in a better piece of work than one child alone can produce. Finally, the whole experience encouraged these third- and fourth-graders to feel that they have worthwhile ideas, and implanted in them a desire for further creative activity.

DEVELOPING APPRECIATION OF INSTRUMENTAL MUSIC
IN THE PRIMARY GRADES

GUSTAV PATZ

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THE MUSIC PROGRAM of the Augusta Street School is centered in group singing. While this program is believed to be basically adequate, the principal and teachers recently came to feel that they were missing opportunities which, if wisely utilized, might give the children a more vital interest in and a more intelligent appreciation of music, both instrumental and vocal. The attitude of the faculty was frankly experimental; the teachers had no preconceived notions as to the probable outcomes or as to the best methods of procedure. There were two factors in the school situation, however, which inspired them to make a beginning: (1) an unusually responsive first-grade class, and (2) a teacher who was not only enthusiastic about music in general, but a fine musician as well. This article tells briefly of the experience of this class during a three-year period in studying about orchestral instruments and in learning to enjoy orchestra music.

Procedure in the first grade—To begin with, the following aims were tentatively set up for the first grade. It was felt that none of them was beyond the abilities of the children to achieve.

1. To make children familiar with the better music early in life
2. To create situations in which children may hear good music often enough so that it will become part of their emotional experience
3. To develop good habits of listening
4. To introduce the four divisions or "families" of a symphony orchestra (the names of the instruments).

The chief source of material used to achieve these purposes was the Damrosch music appreciation hour, broadcast every Friday afternoon during the season from two to three o'clock. The instructor's manual and the student notebooks prepared by Lawrence Abbot to aid in interpreting these programs were provided for class use. As those familiar with the programs know, the concerts are divided into four series—A, B, C, and D. Series A and B are broadcast one week, and series C and D the next week. The series are graded as to difficulty, A being the easiest and D the most difficult. The first-grade class used series A.

The children's initial interest was aroused by referring to the experiences they had already had with a rhythm band in the kindergarten. With this as a point of departure, interest in larger and more fully developed orchestras was aroused. The interest was particularized by introducing the orchestra and Mr. Damrosch by means of pictures, the radio, and press notices. Children's questions were used as the basis

of further developmental work. From this point it was comparatively simple to work around to the suggestion that the class listen to the orchestra and to Mr. Damrosch, who would from time to time speak about the instruments themselves. In addition, the class purchased "The Instruments of the Orchestra," a set of pictures and accompanying descriptions issued by the Radio Corporation of America. The pictures were displayed and explained as the children were introduced to each instrument in turn.

The lesson of each week was discussed in advance of the broadcast so that the children might be more adequately prepared for Mr. Damrosch's talks. Occasionally, when his explanations were too difficult for them to follow, the program was "tuned out" and a simpler explanation was given by the teacher, the program being "tuned in" again in time for the music. The children were so caught with the spirit of the music that they frequently reacted to it in rhythmical movements. When marches were played a young "Mr. Damrosch" led the other children so that their movements might be executed in strict time with the music.

These broadcast programs were supplemented by the use of phonograph records. It was felt that one hearing of a musical selection was not sufficient. Phonographic recordings were admirably adapted to bring to the children favorite selections for enjoyment or those of current interest for further study. In addition, the singing both in assembly and in class was continued so that all phases of music might have approximately equal attention.

Procedure in the second and third grades—As indicated above, the work of the first grade was necessarily elementary in character; the emphasis was upon listening to and enjoying music rather than upon the acquisition of even remotely technical musical information, with the exception of learning the *names* of the instruments of the symphony orchestra. The response and growth of the children was such, however, that the work was continued on a somewhat more advanced level when the class had been promoted to the second grade. The following aims were set up for the program in that grade:

1. To continue to work toward the first three objectives listed above for Grade I
2. To develop specific knowledge by
 - a. Learning the names of the instruments in each "family"
 - b. Recognizing the individual instruments by sight and sound
 - c. Learning the characteristics of each family, such as the method of playing and the type of mouthpiece
3. To introduce (in preparation for the third grade) the four orchestral voices—soprano, alto, tenor, and bass
4. To develop the ability to recognize differences in the tonal qualities of the four families of the orchestra.

While the activities in the second grade followed the same general lines as in the first grade, it was possible to carry them further because of the greater maturity of the children and the background of experience obtained during the preceding year. Perhaps the most interesting reaction of the children was their interest in musical instruments which they brought to school. These were toy instruments, to be sure, but they were of sufficient range to enable the children to play tunes very acceptably. They included, among others, the harmonica, slide trombone, and clarinet.

In addition, the children gave special attention to the descriptive portions of the music played. In the "Bird House" from the *Carnival of Animals* they listened for the fluttering, twittering, and chirping of the little birds in their cages. In the "Overture" from *William Tell* they listened for the thunder of the storm as represented by the kettle drums. So also in the "Dance of the Mosquito" the violins and the triangle imitating the sound of the mosquito were noted. The children were especially interested in learning to tell when a new instrument joined in the music or dropped out, and to name such instruments.

Finally, since reaching the third grade, these children have been having Friday afternoon musicals. All who play instruments of any kind are encouraged to play for the class. No special preparation is required; sometimes a child even plays the current "piece" which he has been studying at home. The response of the group to this activity has been very encouraging.

Results of the program—Because of the school's interest and enthusiasm it would be easy to overstate the results of these activities. There is no doubt, however, that the following outcomes have been achieved: (1) The children have learned to identify the instruments of the orchestra by name, and almost all of them by sound. (2) They have learned to know and enjoy some good music; some of the parents report that the radio hours at home are devoted to listening to such music at the request of the children. (3) They enjoy group singing; some of their favorite marching songs are even sung spontaneously as they march out of the room to piano music after assemblies. (4) The music program has helped to create a happier school.

USING SYMPHONY CONCERTS TO ENRICH THE MUSIC PROGRAM

FLORENCE C. MORTIMER

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THE NATIONAL SYMPHONY ORCHESTRA of Washington, D. C., under the leadership of Hans Kindler, offers each year a series of three or four concerts for children. Each series of programs is built around a central theme. One year the theme was "The Origin and Growth of Music," and the four concerts demonstrated (1) values in music, (2) shapes in music, (3) moods in music, and (4) color in music. At the first concert the music of central European countries was played, including compositions by Bach, Handel, Mozart, Haydn, Beethoven, Brahms, Dvorak, and Smetana. The second concert featured the music of Latin countries, and the children heard compositions of Berlioz, Corelli, Delibes, Bizet, Debussy, and others. The third concert gave them an idea of the music of the northern Europeans, as composed by Tchaikowsky, Grieg, Sibelius, Rimski-Korsakov, and Moussorgsky. At the closing concert the music of Anglo-Saxon countries gave the children an opportunity to know MacDowell, Elgar, and other more recent composers.

During the season of 1937-38 the theme of the concerts was "The Old and the New in Music." The subject of the first program was "From Shepherd's Song to Symphony"; of the second, "From Ram's Horn to Wind Choir"; and of the third and last concert, "From Woodpecker's Tap to Machine-Made Rhythms." These programs showed the development of the different instruments and gave the children an opportunity to become familiar with them. At each concert certain instruments were introduced and explained, and selections were played to demonstrate the beauty of tone or rhythm that could be produced on those instruments. Bach's *Air for Strings*, Mozart's *Concerto in A Major for Piano*, Bernard's *Concerto for the Drummer*, and the pizzicato movement from Tchaikowsky's *Symphony No. 4* were typical numbers on these programs.

General plan for utilizing the concerts—When the children's concerts were inaugurated five years ago, the teachers of Wheatley School, recognizing the cultural opportunity thus offered to children, decided not only to encourage their pupils to attend, but to prepare them beforehand to understand, appreciate, and enjoy the music. The plan was presented to the parent-teacher association, and the approval and cooperation of that organization were secured. The association agreed to furnish bus transportation for all children who wished to attend the concerts. In addition, several of the mothers asked that they be allowed

to go to the concerts with the school group and to visit the classrooms during the preparatory lessons, so that they might share with their children the appreciation of the programs to be presented. A teacher chairman was appointed to take charge of the project and to make all arrangements, such as securing the tickets, procuring a copy of the program at least two weeks before each concert, buying phonograph records of the selections to be played, and getting music appreciation readers and stories of composers from the library. The school purchased a set of large charts illustrating the instruments of the orchestra, and a set of the records that demonstrate these instruments.

Preparatory lessons at school—Every teacher of Grades II thru VI gives music appreciation lessons several weeks before each concert. During these periods various technics are employed according to the ages and needs of the pupils. The first lessons utilize the pictures and records of the instruments, so that all children become familiar with the make-up of the orchestra, know the names of the instruments, and can recognize them immediately both by sight and sound. This procedure arouses a lively interest in the orchestra. When the program for a particular concert arrives—usually two weeks before the date of the concert—the children of the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades are given the names of the composers whose works they are to hear, and during their research time in the school library they find interesting facts about these people to bring to the class, including the countries to which the composers belonged, stories of their struggles with poverty or physical handicaps, their perseverance, and their triumphs over difficulties. When sufficient interest has been aroused, the records of the selections to be heard at the concert are played, with the idea that children, like adults, enjoy music more if it is somewhat familiar to them.

At the first playing of a record the children listen quietly. When the record is finished, the teacher stimulates discussion by such questions as these: "What did you like particularly?" "Did you hear the oboe?" "Could you recognize the theme when it was repeated?" "How many times did the theme come in?" "Did you feel like dancing?" "Did the music suggest anything to you?" "What will you listen for this time?" Often she concludes the discussion by saying, "When we play the record again, will everyone who feels like dancing or in some way expressing what he hears, please feel free to do so."

One day the writer happened to go into a second grade in which the teacher was preparing her children to enjoy Dvorak's *Carnival Overture*. First, those who had attended any kind of a carnival told what they had seen there. Thus the "carnival spirit" was aroused, and when the record was played everyone tried to listen for the different features—the dancing, the singing, the animals, etc. Their imaginations gave

life to the music and their faces showed their enjoyment and delight. At the second playing, everyone "went to the carnival" and did just what the music told him to do. Some danced, some went about the room "visiting exhibits," and others stopped for a lemonade, but all kept time to the music—and lived it! There could be little doubt that these second-grade children would thoroly enjoy that number when the symphony orchestra played it.

The fifth- and sixth-grade pupils, in addition to learning something about the composers, knowing the instruments of the orchestra, and becoming somewhat familiar with the selections to be played, have had some experience in recognizing the differences between an overture, a symphony, a suite, a symphonic poem, and an opera. As a result, when these terms appear on the concert programs they have a real meaning for the children.

Attending the concerts—While these music appreciation lessons have been enjoyed by all children above the first grade, only about one-sixth of the pupils have been able to attend the concerts, for several reasons. The concerts are held either in the late afternoon (after school hours) or on Saturday morning. Many children have music, dancing, drama, or other private lessons at these times, which they cannot or do not care to miss. Others are not able to afford the small admission fee, which, of course, is necessary in so large an undertaking. The school has a limited fund which is used to purchase tickets for those who long to go but cannot buy their own tickets. Those who can get the price of a ticket hurry to the chairman with it eagerly, always hopeful that the house will not be sold out or the Wheatley buses filled before their orders get in. The teacher-chairman attends to all these details and makes all arrangements to the satisfaction of everybody concerned.

When the long-awaited time for the concert arrives, there is an air of suppressed excitement and joyous expectation. The chairman has notified everyone as to where and when the group will meet. Usually, if the concert is to be held on Saturday morning, they begin to arrive about half an hour before the appointed time. Shoes are carefully polished. "Sunday" dresses, hats, and coats are much in evidence. Everyone has on his or her best clothes.

The chairman has envelopes ready, with a block of tickets in each. The children have been divided into groups of ten to fifteen, each with a teacher chaperone, and as the teacher receives her envelope with the tickets inside and the names of her charges written on it, she gathers them to her side and finds places in the bus for her party. The children remain with the teacher to whom they are assigned until their return to the school after the concert. Thus, their safety in a great crowd is carefully guarded. The interest and enthusiasm of the teachers

have been so great that a majority of the faculty have attended all the concerts, even when not specifically assigned as chaperones.

Attendance at these concerts has produced many interesting incidents. In connection with their study of Norway, one of the fifth grades had used phonograph records of the *Peer Gynt Suite* by Grieg, had dramatized the story, and had given a performance of it for the intermediate grades at an assembly. The boys, costumed as gnomes, had danced about Peer Gynt, throwing tiny paper darts and finally disappearing off-stage with a great noise as they seemingly threw the mischievous Peer Gynt down the mountainside while the music of "In the Hall of the Mountain King" crashed. The girls had improvised a dance to the music of "Anitra's Dance," which, while less exciting, was fully as enjoyable to them. Having become familiar with this music, the children longed to hear the orchestra play it, and so letters were written to Dr. Kindler asking that their number be given. Their joy, when he announced at the next concert that he had received letters asking him to play the *Peer Gynt Suite* and that he would do so, was almost uncontrollable. When the final crash came in "In the Hall of the Mountain King," they actually hugged themselves with glee as, in imagination, they again saw Peer Gynt tumbling down the mountain.

Outcomes of the experience—What have been the results of our five years of work with the symphony orchestra? The first and most important has been an evergrowing love and understanding of the best in music. Many children who perhaps would never have had any interest in music are spending their leisure time studying some instrument and practicing daily. The violin, the trumpet, the drum, the saxophone, the clarinet, the banjo, the guitar, the xylophone, the piano—all have their devotees. At Christmas time many have asked for musical instruments, and a remarkably large proportion have realized their desires. One little fellow received a complete set of drums and traps from his mother and father, and is taking lessons from a band man. Was he proud when, in February, he appeared on the stage at assembly and gave an exhibition! The two boys who carried the outfit to the stage and placed a chair for him felt that they shared in the glory.

To play in the school orchestra is the goal of many who are practicing and looking forward to the day when the orchestra teacher will accept them. A little boy in the third grade said to the writer recently, "Miss Slattery listened to me play today and said that by next year, if I work very hard, I'll be ready to play my violin in the orchestra."

To sum it all up, the whole school has become music conscious and appreciative of the best in music. Leisure time is being used to good advantage, and boys who might otherwise have developed into problems are having their energies turned to worthwhile activities.

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FIFTH-GRADE CHILDREN PREPARING AN EXHIBIT TO SHOW HOW
THE EARLY AMERICAN SETTLERS MADE THEIR HOMES AND
PROTECTED THEMSELVES AGAINST ENEMIES

*Photograph by courtesy of
Mrs. L. R. Duganne, Principal, and
Dorothy R. Eberly, Fifth-Grade Teacher,
Shepherd School, Washington, D. C.*

CHAPTER V
ENRICHMENT THRU SCHOOL MATERIALS
AND EQUIPMENT
EDITORIAL COMMENT

BOOKS have long been, and probably will continue to be, among the most essential tools of learning. Progressive schools today are using a larger number and a wider variety of books than in the past. Yet the best-equipped library cannot serve all the purposes of a modern educational program. If learning is to be made concrete and if appreciation and taste in many fields are to be developed, the school must have a generous supply of visual and auditory aids.

While such expensive types of equipment as sound motion pictures are invaluable in certain situations, a school need not spend large sums to acquire a useful stock of visual materials. Teachers and pupils can collect pictures and objects, make their own lantern slides, take photographs of things they have seen or done, and obtain free material from commercial institutions. Thus, even the school with very limited financial resources can have an effective visual aids program.

It is not sufficient, however, merely to provide a wealth of instructional materials. Unless they are wisely and skilfully used, such materials may actually interfere with the enrichment of pupil experience. They must be made to serve the purposes of education rather than of mere entertainment. They must become integral parts of significant learning experiences rather than supplements to book learning of the traditional type. Administrators, supervisors, and teachers have a joint responsibility for making these tools of instruction effective.

Other chapters of this book mention materials and equipment in connection with the activities described. This chapter focuses attention on the selection, provision, and use of certain types of teaching aids. Reed reviews basic principles and problems in the field of visual and auditory aids. Wright discusses visual aids which can be made or obtained at low cost. Dye tells how a teacher and her pupils made photography a significant curriculum activity. Brooks describes the instructional uses of a public address radio system in his school.

The last two articles deal with aids of a different sort. Morley explains the equipment and use of the library in a school with no regular librarian. Weinberger tells about a lending library of children's toys.

Five years ago this Department devoted an entire yearbook to the subject of instructional aids. That book, together with other helpful publications on the subject, is listed on page 448.—*Editorial Committee.*

VISUAL AND AUDITORY AIDS TO ENRICHMENT

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VISUAL AND AUDITORY MATERIALS can aid in enriching the school experiences of boys and girls if those who are most concerned for their learning will really let these materials aid. But before there can be intelligent use of these newer classroom materials, teachers and school administrators must have a functional understanding of them. They must correlate that understanding with their knowledge of education, with their regard for the achievement of desirable objectives, and with their skill as teachers.

Pictures, whether still or moving, whether printed on paper or projected on a screen, are the most commonly used visual aids to enrichment. Sounds recorded on the narrow margin of a motion picture film, sounds etched or pressed on the surface of a rotating black disc, and transmitted sounds received by turning a knob on a radio receiver are the potential auditory enriching aids in modern classrooms. These mechanically reproduced pictures and sounds are but means of communication. They are the means for bringing to pupils, more concretely than can be brought with words alone, the experiences that are remote from them in time and space. They are the means for bringing illusions of reality into the classroom when reality itself is inaccessible. When intelligently used, they can give meaningful, varied, and challenging experiences to boys and girls in many classroom learning situations.

Differences between education and entertainment—Because the radio and the motion picture have been most widely exploited as entertainment media, many who have attempted to use them in education have blindly followed entertainment patterns of use. They have shown pictures to boys and girls and turned on school radios without too much concern for the children's immediate interests. They have herded children together in large assembly hall groups without regard for variations in grade levels and in individual needs. They have not thought of such things as readiness for seeing and hearing. They have not considered the values that accrue from follow-up discussions and from the drawing out of meaningful generalization. They have not thought of these things because, when they seek entertainment in the theater or at their home radios, preparation and generalization are not ordinarily a part of their experience. They have failed to base their thinking about the educational use of motion pictures and radio programs upon the fundamental functions of these offerings as media of communication. Without sufficient thought they have assumed a similarity be-

tween entertainment and education which does not exist, and have acted accordingly.

The preceding statement does not mean that radio programs and motion pictures for use in schools should not be vitally interesting to boys and girls. It does imply, however, that the factors which make them interesting in the classroom may not be identical with the interest components of entertainment. It means definitely that the best methods of perception and reception in the classroom evolve from a recognition that such objectives as "to understand," "to gain information," and "to learn" differ markedly from such objectives as "to be amused," "to pass the time away," and "to escape from reality."

Real, live teachers will always be dominant in children's learning under school guidance; visual images and mechanically reproduced voices and other sounds can only aid teachers, never replace them. This consideration of visual and auditory materials as aids has led to the use of the term "supplementary aids," which is unfortunate because it carries the connotation that these materials are not essential. Lantern-slide pictures, motion pictures, pictures in textbooks, charts, and maps too often become but marginal illustrations appended to verbalistic teaching, rather than the concrete enriching experiences which are essential to useful verbal generalizations.

Creating the illusion of reality—Concreteness is an important element in a genuine enrichment experience. Most visual and auditory aids are illusions of reality, and their effectiveness is somewhat dependent upon the degree to which they approximate reality. In turn, the degree of reality or concreteness to the learner is dependent upon his previous experiences as well as upon the concreteness of the aid itself. Motion pictures with natural sounds usually communicate a greater illusion of reality than a series of still pictures. A sound motion picture of the threshing of wheat, for instance, is more concrete than still pictures of the same operation. But these still pictures can be very real to the boy who has lived and worked on a farm. To that same boy a chart showing the number of bushels per acre may be more concrete and meaningful because of his previous experiences than it would be to a city boy. A recent book¹ classifies all visual aids on a scale of concreteness, with the school journey as the most concrete, and charts, maps, and graphs, which are line symbols of reality, as the most abstract of such aids.

Mere exposure to concrete materials, however, will not bring pupils the kind of enrichment they need or are entitled to, altho such superficial contact may be more valuable than the too frequent bombard-

¹Hoban, C. F.; Hoban, C. F., Jr., and Zisman, S. B. *Visualizing the Curriculum*. New York: Cordon Co., 1937. 300 p.

ment of pupils' eyes and ears with verbal abstractions that bring them little real meaning. The best utilization of materials will result from careful planning and preparation by teachers who understand pupil needs and capabilities, and who are well aware of what they are teaching and why. Such teachers will give visual aids, radio programs, and electrical recordings an integral place in their teaching plans. There must be an abundance of excellent materials for them to choose from, and their selection will be based upon pupils' needs and interests. Materials must be available when needed and must be wisely and skilfully used when obtained.

Providing mechanical equipment—The role of the principal, then, in administering visual and auditory materials and in supervising their use in the classroom becomes more clearly discernible when he thinks beyond the educational "gadget" stage and understands their function as a means of communicating enrichment experiences. Occasionally a principal becomes too intrigued by the mechanical nature of his equipment. His impressive battery of "gadgets" may reflect his mechanical aptitude, but the use of them in his school may not indicate a genius for educational leadership.

The availability of various visual materials should be a major factor in determining the kinds of projection equipment secured. The principal whose school is located within the service range of a university film library or some other reliable film source will want a 16-millimeter motion picture projector. Whether he will want a sound or silent projector will depend upon the results of his careful survey of materials available. In making his decisions about motion picture equipment, he will be cautious about relying upon the apparently unlimited supply of "free industrial" films; he will consider the relationship of these free materials to his educational objectives and philosophy. Shall the school acquire a lantern slide projector, or a film strip projector, or an opaque projector? Again the answer will depend upon the availability of materials to use in them.

With projection equipment acquired, there must be adequate facilities for their use. The back of a map is a poor substitute for a projection screen. The school assembly hall is not usually as efficient a place for projecting pictures as a regular or special classroom where individual class groups can meet to study pictures related to their own needs. Space for filing collections of mounted pictures should be provided. Space and encouragement for the assembling of objects, specimens, and models also will be the concern of the principal who conceives as a part of his responsibilities the provision of administrative facilities for a well-rounded visual program.

Should the school be equipped with radios? The principal's answer

to this question will be determined by the answer to another question: What programs are available over the stations that can be heard at all times within his school? Whether a public address system with a radio centrally located and loud speakers in each classroom should be installed can be determined only by knowing something of the use that will be made of it. If the reception of broadcast programs from established radio stations is to be its only use, perhaps small radio receivers that can be moved from room to room as listening opportunities become available will prove more practical and economical. But if the enrichment opportunities inherent in pupil-created broadcasts to other pupils are considered, the public address system with its microphones and other studio facilities will be desirable equipment.²

Acquiring and appraising visual materials—While adequate equipment is essential, its importance lies not in what it *is* but in what it *does*. Administrative organization within the school should permit a steady flow of worthwhile vicarious experiences to reach eager learners thru these newer media. Probably every school should have its own library of low cost visual materials. Film strips, glass lantern slides, mounted still pictures from magazines, and three-dimensional object materials are financially within the reach of every school and should form the basic visual library. Such reference material, available at all times for the answering of questions, for the clarifying of difficult concepts, and for the stimulation of new interests, is an indispensable aid to teachers who really teach.³

Logically, reels of motion pictures should have their place in such a visual library, but their higher unit cost makes this seem impracticable at present in most schools. However, city boards of education have set up central film libraries to serve their many schools. Groups of schools in townships and counties are cooperating in the organization and operation of mutual film library plans. State departments of education and the extension divisions of universities are performing an invaluable motion picture service to schools thru their visual education divisions. Supplementing these sources are commercial libraries that rent and lend film materials to schools.

Altho there is an abundance of motion picture material available, much of it is unsorted. Many films are unedited, outdated, and limited or lacking in value. Until satisfactory standards of evaluation are set up and reliable national listings are made, individual schools and groups of schools will have to perform these functions for themselves. Schools that are doing this have been realizing values commensurate with their efforts. For example, they sometimes order films which from

² School use of a public address system is described by Brooks later in this chapter.

³ For further discussion of a low cost visual aids program, see the article by Wright in this chapter.

the titles would seem to be useful but which, upon being previewed, are found to be unsuited to local needs. This information, systematically recorded, precludes a reordering of these films. Altho much remains to be desired in the film distribution systems that have evolved in this country, there is no conceivable system in which the elementary-school principal will not have an important part to play in aiding and guiding his teachers.

Utilizing available material—Assistance to teachers is probably needed even more in the actual utilization of visual and auditory materials than in making such materials available. These newer methods of communication have been brought into the classroom in the years since many teachers were graduated from teacher-training institutions. Even now, comparatively few of these institutions take into consideration the need for teacher training in the use of visual and auditory aids. Until this need is filled in some other way, the principal must assist those teachers who are not making the most of their visual enrichment opportunities. Skilful mechanical manipulation of equipment is only a small part of the intelligent utilization of materials. A thoro understanding of the function and the power of these methods of communication is more important. With this will come the almost instinctive preparation of classes for seeing and hearing, the alert and eager anticipation of the pupils, and the thoughtful discussion leading to meaningful generalization that marks the work of the superior teacher. Principals have guided teachers to this kind of understanding thru well-planned teachers meetings, thru suggested readings, and by encouraging teachers to enrol for visual aid study in extension or summer school courses. In some schools a visual committee under the chairmanship of the most interested teacher has accomplished much in promoting the organization of materials and in stimulating new enthusiasms.

Producing visual aids in the school—All who are concerned with the improvement of instruction thru effective use of visual and auditory aids recognize that the nationwide problems of production, distribution, and utilization are closely interwoven. This same interrelationship exists in the individual school. Instructionally impoverished is that school whose teachers have not assembled collections of pictures and objects and models. The hand-making of lantern-slide pictures with pencil, crayon, and water color on etched glass or plastic materials has brought enrichment to many classrooms. Fortunate indeed are the children in those schools where teachers who make a hobby of photography have learned to capture on film many experiences their pupils could not otherwise have. But the production of visual materials is not a prerogative of the teacher alone. When it is possible for pupils

to participate in the creative production of visual aids, their experiences are doubly enriched—once in the doing and again in the viewing. The builder of models knows this and so does the photographer of nature, whose eyes, intent upon directing his camera lens, have seen more than could ever be recorded in words or on film either. Some of the best visual materials of the future are going to be produced by teachers and pupils cooperatively.⁴

Conclusion—As one continues to ponder the importance of visual and auditory materials in curriculum enrichment, he is impressed by the fact that much that is said about the use of newer materials in instruction is not new at all. Visual enrichment experiences have been an integral part of effective learning for centuries. If there is a new emphasis on their importance in the teaching process, this has no doubt been brought about thru scientific and technological developments. The advances in photography, the photoelectric cell, and the audion tube have given us faster and surer means of communication. In attempting to understand these newer devices and to discover ways in which they can be used to improve classroom instruction, much is being learned about all methods of communicating information and ideas and of influencing attitudes and opinions. Continuous advances in this whole field are bringing an increasingly impelling challenge to teachers who recognize the need for curriculum enrichment and the power of visual and auditory materials to enrich.

⁴The experience of one school with photography as a curriculum activity is described in the article by Dye.

WE must justify visual aids, not on the ground of money saving but on the ground of the enrichment they afford. When the nation has learned how to manage its resources intelligently it will find that it can afford to pay for an enriched education, and that, in the long run, enriched education will pay, not thru immediate saving, but thru the increased productiveness of its citizens.—Freeman, Frank N., in *Aids to Teaching in the Elementary School*, Thirteenth Yearbook, Department of Elementary School Principals, 1934, p. 139.

DEVELOPING A LOW-COST VISUAL AIDS PROGRAM

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ONE FREQUENTLY HEARS elementary-school principals say, "I should like to have a visual aids program in my school, but it takes so much money that we cannot afford it." This mistaken idea is causing many schools to fail to take advantage of visual aids that are available at little or no cost. It is well, of course, to be able to install sound projectors, stereopticons, balopticons, film-strip projectors, and other modern and relatively expensive equipment, but the lack of them should not prevent a progressive principal from having a worthwhile visual aids program. On the contrary, it should stimulate him and his teachers to greater effort to provide a homemade program that will make for better teaching in his school. Any school, no matter how poor financially, may begin in a modest way and with persistent work on the part of the teachers and principal, aided by the pupils, who are invariably alive with interest in such an undertaking, may within a few years develop a visual program that will be a real educational asset. The following types of aids seem to offer the best opportunity for a low-cost collection:

1. Flat pictures from magazines
2. Photographs made by children
3. Excursions
4. Pupil-made slides
5. Classroom museums
6. Free commercial materials.

The remainder of this article discusses each of these types in turn.

Magazine pictures—The possibilities of the flat picture field are almost limitless. Publishing companies are flooding the news-stands with picture magazines of all types. In most of these the photography is done by experts and the pictures are so skilfully made that they fill most of the requirements of good teaching pictures. These magazines come into many homes, and when not available at home they can often be obtained by the children from neighbors. Most people are glad to give old copies of such periodicals to any child who asks for them.

When the pictures have been cut from the magazines and brought to school, classes may be organized into committees to classify them. All pictures dealing with the same or similar topics may be temporarily grouped together. After this is done, the teacher should work with each committee as an adviser in making a final selection of pictures to mount for permanent use. While helping to make these selections, she should bear in mind the requirements of a good teaching picture.

In the first place, the picture should be simple and there should not be a great number of unrelated objects in it. One object should be dominant and the others subordinate. If there are too many objects of equal attraction, the child's "fixation" will not be good and he will not retain as clear an idea about the picture. Too many pictures at once are as confusing as too many ideas at once.

There should be in every picture some object familiar to the child, thus enabling him to form a concept of the correct size of the main object in the picture. A common practice is to have a man in the picture to show the relationship. In some instances a yardstick or some other standard of measure is inserted. Unless some such device is used, the child will have no way of obtaining a correct impression.

Objects should not be deliberately distorted. Many years ago it was not uncommon to see in a primary reader a giant ant or rabbit or chicken talking to an extremely small and overawed child. We don't find this any more. Textbook publishers have long since learned that such distortion makes their product undesirable from the standpoint of good teaching. All objects in any picture should show a true relationship in size.

The best teaching pictures have bright and accurate coloring. Children delight in color, and true colors are of great value in teaching, especially in pictures of costumes, animals, birds, insects, and the like. Such colors are absolutely necessary in the study of "protective coloration," for example. The beautifully and accurately colored plates in the *National Geographic Magazine* are probably the finest single source of material of this type. From time to time this publication has carried and still carries series of pictures on birds, fish, butterflies, animals, means of transportation, clothing, foods, people of different lands, and many other subjects. Recently, when a southern city undertaking a visual education project asked its citizens to send in old copies of the *Geographic*, it received more than 20,000 copies covering a long period of years. It is needless to emphasize the tremendous teaching value of such a mass of fine material when properly distributed and wisely used.

An interesting method of using these plates is to mount them on celotex wallboard and saw them into jigsaw puzzles. They may then be put into empty hosiery boxes, labeled, and classified for use with various units of work. A set of questions about each picture should be prepared and coded to correspond with the box code. When a child has successfully assembled the picture, the teacher gives him the questions for further study. The task of assembling the picture compels him to give close attention to its details, and his success at this task stimulates his desire to work out answers to the questions.

When pictures have been cut out and grouped according to subject, they should be mounted on cardboard and a coat of thick shellac or varnish should be applied. This treatment makes them easier to handle and prevents wear, tear, and soiling. A cheap mounting may be obtained by utilizing the cardboards that come in shirts returned from the laundry.

In all instances sets of questions or statements should be made for each picture. These may be pasted on the back of the mounting or handed to the pupil separately. The former method has the advantage of keeping the questions with the proper picture. If pupil committees are permitted to make up these questions, they will have an additional learning value.

Photographs made by children—The alert teacher will not fail to take advantage of the current "candid camera" craze in her classroom work. She will not discourage the bringing of cameras to school; on the contrary, she will encourage it and will help the pupils to develop their camera technic. A good plan is to form a camera club in the school for children who are interested. The Eastman Corporation in Rochester, New York, will furnish for ten cents a complete course in photography, developing, and printing. It is amazing how quickly elementary-school children can acquire these skills.

The children in the club should be taught the requirements of a good picture, and then should be permitted to take pictures of their own classroom activities, their classmates, their pets, buildings in their city, modes of transportation, manufacturing processes, parks, special events, and anything else that has teaching value. The child who makes the picture should always be permitted to describe his own picture to the class. It is his creation, and his interest in it exceeds that of anyone else.¹

Excursions—A third inexpensive visual aid and one available to every teacher is the excursion. The importance of this splendid teaching aid cannot be overemphasized. Even if no subjectmatter learning took place on an excursion, it would still be worthwhile under the right kind of teacher leadership. The fine personal relationships engendered by the group's leaving the restraining walls of the classroom and learning to know each other in the freedom of the open make any well-managed excursion pay dividends in the form of better class spirit. These values recall the words of the exiled duke in Shakespeare's *As You Like It* when he tells his companions:

And this our life, exempt from public haunt,
Finds tongues in trees, books in the running brooks,
Sermons in stones, and good in everything.

¹ The activities of a school camera club are described in some detail in the next article.

To be sure of getting the most from an excursion, the teacher and pupils should carefully plan it together. Committees may be appointed to watch for certain specific things, so that they may report on them later in the classroom. The camera enthusiasts should be reminded to take along their cameras and a plentiful supply of film. The pictures they make will be of great value in class discussions by strengthening and fixing impressions that may have been indefinite and fleeting during the excursion.

Pupil-made slides—In a school that possesses a stereopticon, pupil-made slides are a cheap and highly productive visual aid. Two types of slides may be made—those drawn directly on etched glass and those made by mounting film negatives on thin paper between sheets of thin glass.

The standard size for glass slides is 4 x 3¼ inches. Scrap glass is available to most schools in great quantity, and boys in manual training classes get much pleasure and at the same time learn a valuable skill by cutting such glass into the required sizes. The actual slide-making is a splendid project for classes in art. Drawings may be made directly on etched glass with heavy pencils or ink. This is not the best type of slide but can be used to advantage. Others may be produced by tracing, typing, or writing on transparent paper, placing the paper between two sheets of glass of the required size, and then sealing the edges with gummed tape.

A splendid activity to follow up an excursion is the making of slides from the negatives of photographs taken during the excursion. This is done by inserting the film between two sheets of glass and sealing the edges as explained above. Slides of this kind are unexcelled for large group teaching.

There is virtually no end to the variety of slides that pupils may make. The field of photography is unlimited, and it may be supplemented by charts, maps, graphs, cartoons, drawings, diagrams, poems, songs, or any other material the child may devise. One class in nature study made a beautiful set of slides with real butterfly wings, but found them to be extremely perishable.

Classroom museums—Any classroom, no matter how small or humble, may develop its own museum. All the pupils need is a little encouragement and help from the teacher, and in a few years fine results may be obtained. In the writer's judgment, no museum should be undertaken as a single year's project; it ought to be continued over a period of several years.

Children will bring in all kinds of objects, some of which may be revolting to a sensitive or squeamish teacher. She, however, must never let a child see her distaste for his contribution. All specimens should

be accepted with a smile and a "thank you," so as to encourage further pupil effort. The ingenious teacher will find ways of getting rid of unsuitable donations without offending sensitive pupils.

All specimens should be cleaned, neatly mounted, classified, and properly placed. A card should identify each object and give credit to the donor. A conglomerate, chaotic assembly of dirty specimens has no real teaching value and will quickly discourage any desire on the part of the pupils to continue their collection. On the other hand, a neat, clean, and carefully arranged collection will be a constant stimulus to further effort, and can be used in a productive manner in daily classroom work.

Free commercial materials—Finally, the teacher who does not mind writing letters has at her command an almost limitless amount of free visual material of a high order. However, the distributors of such material have been so swamped by pupil requests that most of them have ceased sending it except at the request of principals or teachers. It is a good idea, therefore, to write for it on official school stationery and to give a school return address.

Most of the free material now being distributed has been prepared under the direction of skilled specialists and is of exceptionally high quality. Most of it is practically free of advertising or propaganda. Several lists of such materials are available, but space does not permit naming them all here. One of the most authentic and recent is that contained in *The Audio-Visual Handbook*.²

Conclusion—The principal or teacher who wants to use visual aids will find ways to obtain them. Lack of funds, while eliminating the possibility of installing expensive mechanical equipment, will not thwart creative teachers and administrators. Their horizons are limited only by their imaginations and their will to work. Realizing that one good picture is still worth ten thousand words, they will utilize every available device for enriching the curriculum thru visual experiences.

² Dent, Ellsworth C. *The Audio-Visual Handbook*. Second edition. Chicago: Society for Visual Education, 1937. 180 p.

PHOTOGRAPHY AS A SCHOOL ACTIVITY

HELEN ALMA DYE

Kindergarten Teacher, Beard School, Detroit, Michigan

WHEN THE WRITER first started taking pictures of school activities, she had no idea where the venture would lead. With a borrowed camera and no knowledge of its manipulation, she set out to try to satisfy the desire expressed by her principal in the oft-repeated remark, "I wish we had a picture of that." Since this simple beginning, she has become the "official photographer" for all school activities that are to be recorded, as well as the sponsor of a camera club with a membership range from Grade I thru VI. By relating some of her experiences in both these capacities, she hopes to show why she believes that photography should have an important place in the school curriculum.

PHOTOGRAPHS MADE BY THE TEACHER

Everyone will agree that schools abound in what might be called "picture situations." The writer soon realized, however, that since many of these situations arise spontaneously and can never be reproduced, it is highly important to have the facilities on hand for taking pictures at a moment's notice. At first, most of the pictures were limited to activities in the kindergarten, where the other teacher could assist with the children while the "snapshooting" was in progress. Little by little, as the mechanics of operation were managed more smoothly, the pictures of various school activities became a source of great pleasure to all concerned. This was only the beginning, however, of the part these pictorial records were to play in the school's instructional program. Even now—nearly three years since the project began—it is felt that the surface has barely been scratched in this fertile and fascinating field.

Making pictures on class excursions—From the beginning, valuable pictorial records were added to the kindergarten collection whenever the class went on a trip or excursion. The necessary equipment was carried along and pictures were taken of things seen on visits to the post office, the fire station, the produce terminal, the fruit market, and other places. Pictures were also taken showing what the class did before and after the trip, thus making a complete record of each project.

In 1937-38, for economic reasons, it was not possible to take the children on as many trips as usual. In this situation, slides made from photographs taken the preceding year worked wonders. The children's interest was especially keen because the pictures had been taken of kindergarten children in their own school, their own neighborhood, and



FIGURE I—A SCHOOL-MADE PICTURE OF A STORY HOUR AT THE CAMPBELL BRANCH LIBRARY

their own city. Their delight at seeing someone they knew on the screen (many had brothers and sisters who had been in previous kindergarten classes) knew no bounds. One child expressed the general attitude very well when he said, "I like the pictures because they're about kids like us."

New ideas for the use of these pictures have constantly revealed themselves. Slides made from the films can be studied leisurely, and thus the children often find things which they have not noticed before. Such slides also offer a means of reviewing children's previous learning and are a fine stimulant for conversation, which often leads to new units of work based on interests aroused by something seen in the slides. Photographs of children's summer experiences are used just before vacation time to give the pupils an idea of what others have done on previous vacations. Pictures of the school's annual fall exhibit of things made or collected during the summer are shown and critically examined in an attempt to raise the children's standards for the use of leisure time.

Using the photographs in public relations—Not long after these photographic activities had started, parents began to ask if the pictures might be purchased. The writer was delighted with this response. It was realized that in purchasing pictures of their children, parents not only obtain portraits of them as "children," but as active participants in all kinds of learning situations. In this way, parents are automati-

cally informed of school activities. Also, as photography is an expensive art, such sales are an aid from a financial standpoint.

As a result of the parents' interest in the pictures, plans were made to use them as the basis of an educational program for parents. The visual education department of the school system made stereopticon slides of films showing the children in various learning situations related to the changing seasons. An accompanying talk was prepared which described these activities in terms of the objectives of early elementary-school training. After the program, many of the parents remarked that they felt as if they had actually seen the inside working of the schoolroom. This was considered excellent publicity, as these parents obviously had been convinced of the value of the kindergarten program.

Use of film slides in teachers meetings—By means of slides a teacher can present very quickly a cycle of instruction that has been carried on over a fairly long period of time. At best, an actual demonstration lesson can show only a few stages of development at one time, but slides can present concrete evidence of the gradual development of an entire unit of work. The slides mentioned above, which showed the continuity of instruction growing out of the seasonal activities during a school year, were shown to a group of kindergarten teachers at the request of the supervisor of kindergartens in Detroit. The possibilities for such use of still photographs in the training of teachers seem practically unlimited.

Pictures as an aid in school appraisal—Not only for parents and professional groups have there been new revelations thru teacher-made photographs; a teacher using this medium cannot help evaluating her own work more critically. The pictures, observed in sequence, gradually begin to array themselves into a story of the bustling activities of the school. At the end of the year, one can view the results, not in so many words as written plans would indicate, but in visible evidence of the many life situations in which both teacher and pupils have had a part.

When a teacher first surveys the school or classroom in search of picture material, she begins to see things thru new eyes—to view learning situations in a different light. She finds herself planning class work with a picture-making mind. In teaching, as in selecting activities to be photographed, she unconsciously begins to separate the unimportant details from the all-important fact. At this point, however, the photographic viewpoint may become, like fire, "a good servant but a poor master." One must beware of overdramatizing learning situations, for the schoolroom is not Hollywood in spite of the fact

that a good "director" is needed just as much in one place as in the other.

PHOTOGRAPHY AS A PUPIL ACTIVITY

Organization of a camera club—Not long after the writer started photographing various school activities, the children too began saying, "I wish we had a picture of that." They took such an interest in the picture-making process that a school camera club was organized. No mother hen has ever been more bewildered at the growth of her lone duckling than has the writer at the rapid strides taken by this club.

A survey revealed that half the school was camera-minded and wanted to join such a club, thus indicating a natural interest that needed only an opportunity for expression to keep it alive. That interest has never flagged. A good picture, in fact, seems to be the one thing which interests children and adults to the same degree; it is mutual ground upon which the outlooks of youth and age meet on equal terms.

Membership in the club was finally limited to children with cameras. Such a conglomeration of cameras as they had must be seen to be appreciated. Fortunately, most of these were simple box cameras which were easy to operate and inexpensive to keep up. Children in the elementary school should confine their efforts to these simple, fixed-focus types because the main object is to take pictures and to be able to recognize picture possibilities, rather than to develop technical perfection.

Learning the essentials of picture-making—The most logical thing to do first, of course, is to teach the owners how to manipulate their individual boxes. This is not easy when the pupils range in age from seven to twelve years, and when their cameras are even more varied. To help meet this problem, the services of a salesman in one of the large photographic concerns in the city were enlisted. He brought numerous types of cameras to the school and showed the children the parts which all types have in common. Then followed lessons on how to load the camera, how to use it in taking indoor and outdoor pictures, and what kind of film to use and why.

Laboratory lessons on developing, printing, and enlarging were carried on in a "borrowed" darkroom. The object of these laboratory lessons was not necessarily to have all these children develop their own pictures, but to give them a basic knowledge of what happens when one clicks the shutter. In the writer's judgment, the chemistry of picture-making should be seriously studied only in the junior or senior high school, unless a pupil shows a pressing desire or a special bent in that field. If a good general foundation in photography could

be laid in the elementary grades, the high school could concentrate on perfecting the technics of picture-making.

Trips and exhibits—When the children had learned how to operate their cameras, they quite naturally wanted to go on a trip to take pictures. They chose Greenfield Village as their destination and decided, before they went, that they desired especially to photograph such diversified subjects as the chair in which Lincoln was assassinated and the figures of "Gog" and "Magog" on an old clock imported from England. Of course, they were also anxious to visit the old-time studio where a white-haired photographer still practices the fast-vanishing arts of making daguerreotypes and tintypes.

When the pictures had been developed, they were proudly displayed on the camera club bulletin board. Later, by means of the opaque projector, they were enlarged for critical study by the children. Thus a beginning was made in establishing certain standards of quality on the part of the children. Now was the time to bring in "good" pictures from outside sources. The group wrote to the more prominent adult camera clubs in the city and managed to secure some very worthwhile exhibits to hang on the bulletin board for study. Not only did these adult clubs send exhibits, but they also sent speakers to talk about their prints.

Later in the year the children visited the annual newspaper-contest exhibit at one of the large department stores. Following that, they received and accepted an invitation to display their own work at a prominent camera shop in downtown Detroit.

In the course of the school year, several trips besides those mentioned were taken. An unusual type of trip was taken by selected members of the camera club. These members accompanied various groups as photographers on visits to the zoo, to a local newspaper plant, and to the produce terminal. If one measures success in terms of pictures, it must be admitted that not all the trips taken were successful, but the practical experiences and basic understandings obtained were invaluable to the children.

Hearing outside speakers—The speakers who have talked to the club have been from varied walks of life, including a clerk from a large department store, a member of an amateur camera club composed of employees from one of the city's largest public utilities, an X-ray specialist, the director of art education at Wayne University, and an explorer who was second cameraman to Father Hubbard in Alaska. All these people have mentioned the spontaneity and intelligence with which their talks were received.

An interesting outgrowth of the two fine illustrated talks on Alaska resulted from the speaker's mentioning that he was going back to

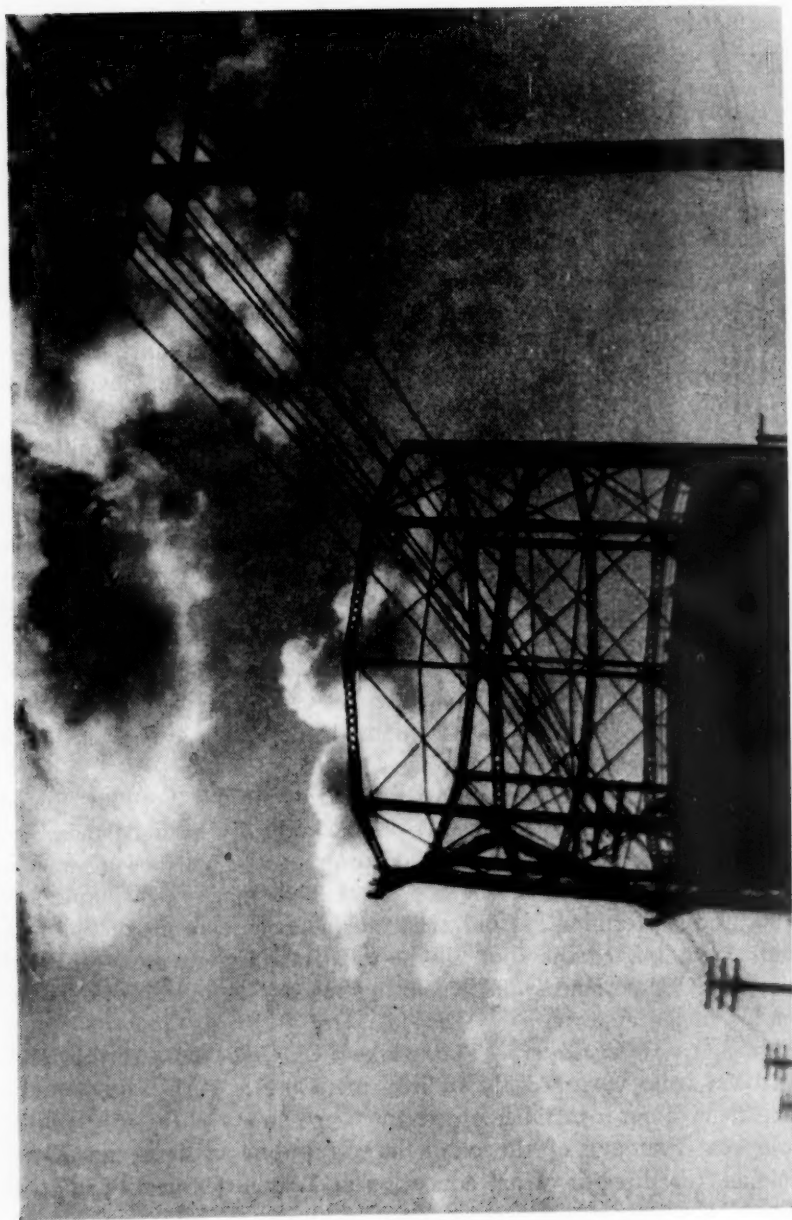


FIGURE II—BEAUTY IN EVERYDAY SURROUNDINGS AS RECORDED BY AN ELEVEN-YEAR-OLD CHILD WITH A "BROWNIE" CAMERA

Alaska the next summer and would be glad to take any letters which the members of the club might care to write to the Eskimo children. The children became very enthusiastic over this suggestion and decided to send, along with their letters, pictures of things in the neighborhood which contrasted with rural Alaska. To prevent duplication, they made an outline of the pictures they wanted to take. Then they took a trip around the neighborhood and made the photographs. The children selected the best of the letters which had been written in their literature classes, chose the best pictures, and organized them all into a scrapbook. This book is now somewhere near Juneau, Alaska, and the club members expect to hear from their Eskimo friends in the near future.

Planning club programs—When the program for the past year was being planned, the pupils decided against a regular club setup. They thought the responsibility of guiding such a club program as they wanted should be carried by a teacher rather than by a pupil. They chose from their own group a secretary, a chairman for pupil-contribution meetings, and a business manager, but accorded the writer the privilege of guiding them.

As the club meetings occupy only one half-hour period every week, the limited time available has created many problems. To obtain the best results, it has been decided to arrange the meetings in this fashion: One period each month is devoted to contributions by the children; a second period, to an outside speaker; a third period, to a short trip; and the fourth meeting, to a lesson by an instructor.

The members of the camera club plan most of their own activities and materials. They keep up a bulletin board upon which are placed pictures and articles brought in from outside sources. A year ago last Christmas they compiled a list of gifts which a camera enthusiast would enjoy. Just before vacation one summer, they issued a bulletin of suggestions about what they would like to do to further their photographic abilities during the summer months.

Toward the end of the year the children decided to have a school photography contest for both teachers and pupils. They planned an advertising campaign and evolved their own rules for contestants as well as rules for judging the pictures submitted. The prizes, suggested by the pupil committee in charge, were books on photography.

Outgrowths of the activity—Since belonging to a camera club was as new to the teacher as to the children, it was necessary to devise and revise the club procedure as various needs arose. Consequently, the program has been diversified and its outgrowths surprising. The discussion of pictures made by others has developed an attitude of good sportsmanship; the children try to view their own pictures as

impersonally as they do those found in books. Enlarging only the best contributions to keep in a permanent school collection has added to the zest of picture-taking. During the past year the club has been engrossed in the fascinating history of photography. This study was begun when a member discovered several tintypes in her attic during the summer vacation. She brought them to school in the fall and immediately wanted to know what other types of photography had preceded them. As a result, dusty trunks were searched for daguerreotypes, ambrotypes, and Civil War photographs by Brady. These treasures are now on display in a room which is proudly called the "school museum." Finally, a self-appointed committee wrote a short history of photography, which was mimeographed, put into a booklet, and sold for a nominal sum.

Financing the activity—A big problem in using photography as a school activity is the financial one. However, if the school staff and patrons are sympathetic to new trends, means can be evolved to take care of this problem. As stated earlier, some money was obtained by selling pictures to pupils and parents. In addition, the club business manager suggested that the organization have a "show." This being agreed upon, the group decided to include a "March of Time" on the program. The artist members of the club drew pictures illustrating news of the day and enlarged them for the audience by means of the opaque projector. Also in the "March of Time," actual photographs which had won prizes in various national contests were shown and a commentator told why they had been chosen. Finally, a survey was made to discover all pupils in the school who had 16-millimeter movies of their own. Since more than enough reels were located, the club chose a censoring committee to select the ones it considered appropriate for the program. The entire show was given after school hours. The admission charge was only five cents, but even so the club made money.

When the children need money for films, they often use their candy and movie allowances or earn the money by running errands. The practice of taking only worthwhile pictures and thus conserving expensive film is one of the most valuable lessons to be learned in photography.

Conclusion—During the past year a Detroit camera shop exhibited enlargements of pictures taken by members of the school camera club. The comments made by many people who saw these pictures revealed that the layman, who is usually interested in photography as an art, has a viewpoint entirely different from that of the person who is interested in its educational value. To the majority, those prints were a series of fairly good pictures lacking in scientific perfection, but to

the club sponsor they represented an adventure in character building, a striving for appreciation of beauty close at hand, and a desire on the part of children to make the most of their environment.

It is to be hoped that the time will come when school budgets will include money for photographic equipment, just as some do now for musical instruments, art supplies, and other aids that open broad, rich areas for children to explore. Perhaps there will even come a time when elementary-school camera clubs thruout the nation will be exchanging exhibits and new ideas. What powerful agents such clubs could be for promoting greater understanding among the widely diversified sections of our country!

THE modern conception of education presents a new vision for child life—a life so rich, so vital to the child, and so full of challenging problems and opportunities for successful achievement under wise guidance, that the child's personality develops naturally and vigorously into a well-balanced whole. In the modern school the out-of-class activities are becoming generally accepted as a part of the regular school program. Educators are realizing that these activities provide an excellent opportunity to express in concrete form the educational philosophy that education is life itself.—*The Classroom Teacher and Character Education*, Seventh Yearbook, Department of Classroom Teachers, 1932, Chapter 5, p. 102.

EFFECTIVE USE OF A PUBLIC ADDRESS SYSTEM

FRED E. BROOKS

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FORTUNATE INDEED is the school that possesses a complete public address radio system. Such a system is built to serve many purposes in addition to receiving outside radio programs. Unless wisely used, however, it may be just so many extra pieces of furniture to clutter up the school building, or an actual impediment to classroom efficiency and curriculum enrichment.

In April 1935 the school of which the writer is principal was equipped with a centrally controlled, two-way radio system, and during the past four years the faculty has devoted considerable study to the problem of its most effective use. Perfection has not been achieved, of course, and there are probably many ways to utilize the equipment that have not been tried in this school. The activities described here have been found very helpful, however, and may be at least suggestive to other principals and teachers who have a public address system, or who contemplate installing one, in their schools.

The general plan—Soon after the installation of the system, the pupils were asked to select a call-letter name, and they finally chose the letters W-O-R-K. At the beginning of each semester two radio announcers are selected from the VIA classes. During the first two weeks the pupils in these classes prepare for the final audition. Oral English is stressed and room tryouts are held. During the tryout period pupils are selected daily to serve as temporary announcers. At the end of this period the candidates who have been chosen by the pupils for the final audition make one-minute talks to all rooms. Pupils then cast ballots, and the boy and the girl receiving the highest number of votes become the announcers for the semester.

The first duty of the two announcers is to learn to operate the broadcasting equipment. This equipment, located in a large cabinet in the principal's office, consists of a radio receiver, an amplifier, a microphone, a monitor speaker, a turntable for electrical recordings, and a control panel. Pupils can learn to operate the equipment very efficiently.

The announcers then begin to schedule programs. They talk to all the rooms, inviting pupils to participate in programs individually or in groups. All regular programs are scheduled at 9:00 A.M., and are not to exceed ten minutes in length. On Monday, Wednesday, and Friday mornings pupil or room programs are scheduled. On Tuesday announcements are made concerning the week's activities, and on Thursday "News of the Week" is the topic. The latter may consist

of school, local, national, or world news, and the commentators are selected from upper-grade rooms.

Some areas and methods of enrichment—Pupils who have individual talents are encouraged to develop these by means of individual performances. This practice often helps with personality adjustments and assists in overcoming feelings of inferiority. All new pupils are introduced or announced over the radio and are made to feel welcome. If any child loses an article he may report the loss to the radio announcer, who will arrange for him to describe his lost article to the school. The broadcasting of original songs, poems, stories, and instrumental numbers is encouraged at all times.

Pupils who are to participate in a radio program must not be late. They must be present at the appointed time or the whole program suffers. The broadcasts always begin promptly; there is not even a second's delay. The piano must be in place and the other musical instruments must be ready. Seldom is a program rehearsed before the microphone. If a blunder is made, the children realize it and set about to prevent its recurrence.

Pupils who speak over the radio soon realize that each word is important. Correct English, clear enunciation, and good style are all emphasized. The pupil knows that defects of expression are more discernible over the loud speaker, and he often recognizes quickly his own errors. Children are encouraged to prepare their radio announcements with great care. They often ask for help, and the teacher has a wonderful opportunity to teach what they want to learn. Thus, good oral and written English becomes a vital necessity in the life of the child.

Programs are built around the experience activities of the classroom and are outgrowths of both individual and group work. They may take almost any form in which oral or written English is used. The primary children read short stories from their books or stories which are original. Dramatizations are very successful, and they raise problems of radio interpretation for the pupils themselves to solve. In such programs the microphone is arranged with twenty-five feet of cord and is carried by the announcer and his assistants to the children who are speaking. Older children read reports, describe experiments, give news items, tell stories, and promote contests. There are unlimited ways of using radio broadcasting to give practice in the use of language.

The radio has become a center around which the music activities of the school revolve. The school has an orchestra, and a number of the children have special music ability. Solos, duets, and any other combination of voices or instruments may be worked out by the pupils for broadcasting purposes. The broadcasts are not intended as

an outlet for finished products, but as an opportunity for pupils who want to learn. Records of the best selections are played for music appreciation.

In the field of physical education, announcements are made concerning games, scores are reported, and school spirit is fostered by means of the radio.

Other uses of the equipment—No outside radio program is sent to a classroom during working periods unless the pupils and teacher have made preparation for it. During the morning and noon recreational periods, the reception of music broadcasts is arranged for in the gymnasium and in classrooms where desired. The use of outside programs is not so valuable to the school as it would be if there were more educational broadcasts which could be utilized during school hours.

While school broadcasting does not take the place of the school assembly, it has a definite place in the school life and is a center around which many of the school activities revolve. Such broadcasting increases the value of the assembly, as "previews" of assembly programs are often given "on the air." It also helps to develop interest in the school newspaper, the club program, the physical education program, and the school orchestra. At one time, school songs written by pupils were read or sung over the radio in preparation for the selection of a song to represent the school.

In the everyday activities of an elementary school there are many occasions when messages must be conveyed to the classroom from the principal's office, and vice versa. Sending a child with such a message to a large number of rooms has always consumed valuable pupil time. By means of the public address system, however, all communications of a general nature may be transmitted with little interruption of classroom work. Teachers may contact the principal's office by merely touching a button conveniently located in the classroom. A call for the school nurse, the doctor, or the child's parents may be sent to the principal's office in this manner. The time saved by this modern device can be used for activities which really enrich the school lives of the pupils.

Summary of values—Four years of experience with a public address system in an elementary school have convinced the writer that, when wisely used, such a system contributes to curriculum enrichment in the following ways:

1. It develops pupil initiative and responsibility.
2. It helps to promote democratic living and an appreciation of the will of the majority.
3. It stimulates pupil interest and pupil participation in school affairs.

4. It offers opportunity for creative expression in oral and written English.
5. It assists in discovering the special talents of individual pupils.
6. It causes the pupil to see a need for self-improvement.
7. It saves much time and brings the school closer together for administrative purposes.

IN the use of the radio in the classroom we realize that we need a deeper psychological understanding of the process of learning by ear. We need an increasing willingness to look at a great educational facility as a help and not as an interruption to more stereotyped forms of classroom life. We need also a full recognition of the fact that the radio teacher in the studio relieves the classroom teacher of the necessity of personal presentation, and by so doing gives the classroom teacher some free, untrammelled moments for the closer observation of individual children, their habits of attention, their ability to comprehend, and their response to special interests. From the radio period she might emerge with a clearer picture of the individuals who spend most of their waking day with her and whose ambitions, interests, and hopes she must endeavor to foster.

Radio, like any means of communication, is a shared and social aspect of life. As schools use it with increasing effectiveness, the coordination between school, home, and community is bound to broaden and deepen. . . . The radio can make the school a more vital, thrilling, interesting force in the community at the same time that it brings the services of the finest instructors to the classroom itself.—McGregor, A. Laura, "School Use of the Radio," in *Educational Broadcasting 1936*, University of Chicago Press, 1937, p. 220. (Quoted by permission of the publishers.)

EQUIPMENT AND USE OF THE SCHOOL LIBRARY

CHRISTINE C. MORLEY

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IN SURVEYING THE FIELD of enrichment materials, one should not overlook the important item of books. While the newer visual and auditory aids are gaining a well-deserved popularity, reading will probably always remain one of our most valuable sources of information and pleasure. In fact, a genuine love of good books and a knowledge of how to use them are so essential to the enrichment of living that their development in children is a major objective of the elementary school. Experience has shown, however, that this goal is not likely to be achieved unless plenty of interesting books are available to children under intelligent and sympathetic guidance.

The school library can play an important part in reaching the desired goal if the teachers understand its functions and cooperate in carrying them out. It is essential that there be close coordination of the various factors involved, including the personnel in charge, the selection of books, the building of collections of supplementary material, the arrangement of library periods for classes, and the administrative measures taken to provide library instruction and to correlate it with classroom work. These must all be part of a unified program carried on over a period of years, if the library is to satisfy the reading interests of pupils while fostering good taste in books and scholarly habits in using them. The librarian or teacher in charge of the program should have a clear idea of these purposes, as well as a thoro knowledge of the whole curriculum and of the work being done in each classroom. This article describes the setup and operation of the library in the school with which the writer is associated, and attempts to show how this library helps to achieve the purposes mentioned above.

Personnel—The writer, as principal, has assumed the responsibility of organizing and directing the work of the school library, with the cooperation of several teachers of reading and social studies in the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades. These teachers have developed excellent methods of stimulating interest in reading, assisting and guiding pupils in their choice of books, and making the library serve the individual needs of the pupils for study and recreation. It should be emphasized that the school has no regular librarian; the principal and teachers alternate in taking charge of the library.

Equipment—The library occupies two basement rooms formerly used as classrooms. Each one is furnished with tables and chairs for thirty-five pupils. The circulation room has built-in bookshelves with space

for 1200 books. The reference room is equipped with several portable, open bookcases containing *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia*, *Britannica Junior*, *World Book Encyclopedia*, and other books of reference. One bookcase with doors that lock is used to hold a few books that need careful handling.

The circulating collection includes about 1300 volumes of fiction, general literature, and miscellaneous information. In addition, there are the magazines *Child Life*, *Boys' Life*, *Nature Magazine*, *Story Parade*, *Children's Activities*, *Safety Education*, and *Geographic News Bulletin*; miscellaneous pamphlets; *Compton's Pictured Teaching Units*; selected back numbers of the *National Geographic Magazine*; and some collections of maps, pictures, and clippings. One of these collections, relating to local history, is greatly needed because there is very little published material available on that subject.

The catalog cards for books and authors are filed in a two-drawer portable file. In addition to these, there is a growing file of subject-index cards containing book references under subject headings or units. The following samples were taken from this file:

Card No. 1

LIGHT (references)

1. *World Book Encyclopedia*

See Vol. 19, p. 8661, for study outline and page references;

Also Vol. 10, under *Light* and *Lamp*

2. *Britannica Junior*

Vol. 8, under *Light*

3. *Compton's Encyclopedia*

See index under *Lighting* in volume containing "L."

4. *Light Then and Now*—Lacey

5. *Candlelight Tales*, Chapter I

6. *Young Folk's Book of Invention*

7. *America Today and Yesterday*

8. *Long Ago* (for Candles)

See life of Edison in these books:

American Leaders—Book II

Heroes of Progress

Pilots and Pathfinders

Brief Biographies in American History

Leaders in Making America

The New Winning Their Way

Card No. 2

BEAVER. THE AMERICAN (references)

1. *Wild Animals of North America*, p. 441-44

2. *Pathways in Science*—Book II, "Out of Doors," p. 55-57

3. *Pathways in Science*—Book IV, "Earth and Living Things," p. 209-18

4. *Secrets of the Woods*, p. 48-51

5. *Brownie, the Engineer of Beaver Brook*

6. "Mickey the Beaver," in *National Geographic Magazine* (see index)

7. *Early Journeys in Science*—Book III

8. *Nature Magazine*, August 1935

Card No. 3

EXTENSION READING FOR UNIT, "BOYS AND GIRLS OF OTHER LANDS"

Alice in Jungleland
Alice in Elephantland
Friends in Strange Garments
Children of the Mountain Eagle
Children of Other Lands
Boys and Girls of Many Lands
Saturday's Children
Nanette of the Wooden Shoes
Little Swiss Wood-Carver
Girls in Africa
Robin and Jean in England
Robin and Jean in France
Rambles in Europe
Tisza Tales
Little Friends from Many Lands (costumes)
Picture Book of Travel

Selection of books—The selecting of books offers a real opportunity for enrichment, because the right book placed in a child's hands may be the means of approaching him thru an absorbing interest. The problem of drawing out the misfit pupil and fixing his attention on his schoolwork can frequently be solved by exploring his interests and establishing a link between his out-of-school life and the schoolwork which he apparently finds so dull.

In studying the needs of the pupils and how to meet them thru the library, consideration is given to the home environments of the children and to the community resources for reading. We find that the majority of our pupils have in their homes reference books and books for pleasure reading, and that many go regularly to the Upper Darby public library, which maintains children's departments in two buildings. About 10 percent of the pupils have no reading matter of any kind in their homes, and another 15 percent have nothing but newspapers and inferior books and magazines. With these facts in mind, we must choose books that will appeal to a wide range of tastes and that will suit the various levels of reading ability represented.

Before the annual textbook order is made up, it is our practice to decide at faculty meetings what books are needed for the next year's program, including those wanted for library use. Recommendations of teachers for new fiction and reference books, a selection of new texts from titles listed in bibliographies, and titles of books asked for by pupils are added to the current list of books wanted, which is kept up to date and revised from time to time. By spending time occasionally looking at new publications in bookstores and in children's libraries, the principal finds it possible to keep reasonably up to date

on the best reading material, and to order with discrimination after estimating the reading difficulty and content appeal of each volume.

From time to time during the year, a small fund is used to buy good books for which a need was not anticipated but for which a demand has arisen because of something in the current news or some new interest among the children which merits encouragement. For example, the Martin Johnson films, the Byrd expedition, the latest crisis in Europe, the Seth Parker broadcasts, and a new interest in marionettes have caused a demand for something to read for further information on these and related topics. Even tho a child's curiosity may have been stirred originally by some trivial point, it may be possible to foster his interest and awaken a desire to continue reading.

There are also a small stock of well-illustrated books such as the Happy Hour books, the Follett social studies pamphlets, and the Uncle Ben books; a series of story books about houses, food, coal, wheat, oil, and similar subjects; and a number of inexpensive linen or paper books about animals, Indians, and children of foreign lands. It is an advantage to place these books in the central library because it makes available at minimum cost a variety of good reading matter having a fairly wide vocabulary range and suited to the reading needs of different groups. Some of these books are sent to primary classrooms when needed, while others are kept on hand for the few older pupils who are such poor readers that they could not otherwise find anything interesting which would be within their reading comprehension.

In general, the choice of books to be added to the library is based on the following principles:

1. Before purchase, the books should be read or at least be examined by someone in direct contact with the pupils.

2. An expensive book may justify its cost more than several cheaper books costing the same amount, for some children would never become acquainted with beautiful books unless they saw them at school. There should be a few sumptuous volumes with fine bindings and beautiful illustrations.

3. It is advisable to have a few books in each of many fields, rather than to build up extensive collections on a few subjects. The purpose of the school library is to establish interests and stimulate independent search for other sources of information, rather than to satisfy any reading appetite completely.

4. The pupils' outside interests and activities should be studied and then stimulated by supplying books about such occupations as handicrafts, play production, collecting, costume design, and hobbies.

5. Since not all children have access to good books at home, some books should be chosen especially as a bridge to better taste for those children who find pleasure only in a "series" or in the cheap, sensational adventure stories which have succeeded those of Alger and Oliver Optic. It is a problem to find wholesome substitutes that will appeal to habitual readers of trash, without lowering the library standard of good taste.

Library periods—The fifth and sixth grades have one forty-minute library period each week in charge of their respective reading teachers.

During this period they choose their books for home reading, return those taken out the previous week, use the reference books, or spend the time in other reading. The teacher keeps the record of books taken out or returned, using a book-charging system which requires no individual cards and greatly simplifies the clerical work. This procedure leaves the teacher free to guide pupils in their choice and use of books, and allows time for informal discussions connecting current classroom work with books to be found in the library.

In addition to these regularly scheduled periods, any teacher may arrange to take her class to the reference room for study. As such visits are for specific research and not for "browsing," the books needed from the circulation room are chosen beforehand by the teacher, placed in the reading room, and afterward placed on reserve for the group using them.

Whenever the principal can keep the time free from office duties, she assists the teachers during the weekly circulation periods by helping pupils to find the books they want or by teaching them how to use the encyclopedias. On another day she takes charge of the reference room during a forty-minute study period when pupils may ask to spend the time there. Taking part in this way gives her an opportunity to get better acquainted with the children and their tastes and to see how well the books are supplementing the teaching in the classroom. By looking at the curriculum and class activities from the standpoint of pupil reaction in the library, the principal has learned much that has been helpful in planning improvement and enrichment of the program of instruction.

Presenting material for enrichment—In choosing enrichment material to be given to pupils thru library channels and in finding the best means of presenting it, we have not attempted to limit either the variety or the quantity of such material except on the basis of its suitability to the age and maturity of the children. We have not tried to standardize a procedure for presenting it, but have used every avenue of approach we could find. We use bibliographies made by pupils and teachers. We arrange labeled displays of natural history specimens, collections of relics, models, examples of art, and other objects that might have an educative value, accompanied by suggestions of books to read for further information about the articles displayed. A child with a special talent or hobby is encouraged to learn more about it and to share it with others thru one of the special activity groups which are organized as clubs with a voluntary membership. The child with slight ability is helped to find a way of making a contribution to the activities of his class.

In research work by pupils, we find that their chief needs are a knowledge of how to pick out the right headings for tracing a topic thru an index or table of contents, and specific training in condensing and organizing the information after they have found it. It requires coordination of classroom and library work to secure success in these phases of research.

Conclusion—The program described above may be summed up as an attempt to place the right book in every child's hands at the time he needs it and to lead him to make the most of it. This is no easy task, as every well-informed principal or teacher knows. Educators are apt to agree on the minimum essentials of a course of study, but there is a wide difference of opinion about the best choice of material for enrichment. Whatever that material may be, it should be chosen to give individual pupils a chance to progress at their own rates on their own levels of learning. A bright child should have enough to do that is worth doing so that his potentialities may develop and his talents unfold. The dull-appearing child, too, should have his chance. In the schools of today are the artists and craftsmen, the philosophers and scientists, of tomorrow—not yet identified, but ready for the spark that may fire their genius. True enrichment of their studies requires freedom from regimentation, once the essential tools of learning have been mastered. The library can make an important contribution to such a program if it is equipped with carefully selected books and administered with the purpose of stimulating independent thought and creative activity.

THE single textbook is no longer considered adequate by many teachers. Reference books and supplementary texts are now eagerly sought in most school systems. Just as the laboratory has become a complement to the textbook in the teaching of science, so the classroom library and the general school library have tended to play a comparable role in the teaching of all subjects.—Reavis, William C., and others, *The Elementary School: Its Organization and Administration*, University of Chicago Press, 1931, p. 254. (Quoted by permission of the publishers.)

A TOY LENDING LIBRARY

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WHAT is a toy lending library? Briefly, it is to toys what a library is to books—a collection to be used for circulation. Toys placed on shelves in a separate room are borrowed by children for use at home during a given period, usually a week or more.

Why should the school concern itself with playthings? Hasn't it sufficient problems without adding to them from other fields of activity? Is the school to assume responsibility for, and control over, children even at play with toys? Is it the school's function to serve as a guide in the selection of worthwhile toys? In short, can the use of toys be properly included in an already overburdened curriculum?

Educational leaders have stated frequently in recent years that pupil interests and needs should determine the content of the curriculum. If the schools are to be truly child-centered, we cannot afford to overlook this important phase of child interest—contact with toys. Toys have always appealed to children of all ages. To the child, the toy world is not merely a place in which to have fun. It is a miniature reproduction of reality in which, for the time being, he reacts as he would to people and objects in the real world. Much of his early interpretation of life comes from his experiences with toys. Moreover, such experiences can often be used as a basis for further learning in the home and in the school. Since playing with the right kind of toys has educational as well as recreational significance, it would seem to be a proper function of the school to guide children in the selection and use of such objects.

Beginning of the project—In accordance with this point of view, a toy lending library was established in the school of which the writer is principal. The idea of having such a library for our pupils was originally suggested by a probation officer, who urged its establishment purely on recreational grounds since we were located in an underprivileged, problem district. The many social problems of an underprivileged community convinced us that something along this line was needed, and we felt that it might prove particularly valuable if it were established within the school building and under school supervision. Toy libraries had already been developed in settlement houses under the sponsorship of the Heckscher Foundation and New York University, but their objectives were merely recreational. Our aims were to be educational as well.

Parents, teachers, and pupils of the school were consulted about

their willingness to cooperate in this new project, and all of them supported the idea enthusiastically. A room was set aside and shelves for the toys were installed. New toys were obtained by outright gift from interested individuals and groups, while old toys were brought in and made usable by our pupils. The toys were numbered and cataloged by a pupil committee recommended by the teachers. Circulation cards and parental consent slips were agreed upon and distributed. The "Toyerie" was functioning.

Even in its inception the project had many educational values. Pupil participation in planning and organizing the library, as well as community and teacher cooperation toward a definite end, was a significant experience in itself. A new spirit was generated among all concerned—a satisfaction and pride in achieving something novel and worthwhile for the school and community. Having taken the initial steps in building the toy library, we discovered that the school curriculum was enriched, spiritually and materially, by the activities incident to these preliminaries.

Guidance in choice of toys—That children are fond of toys is almost axiomatic. But what kind of toys do children usually own? Aren't they the kind that fond parents and adult friends and relatives think children want? Aren't they often toys that parents themselves like to play with? Do these toys teach a lesson or are they merely for pleasure? Since toys are an educational medium, we believe it is the responsibility of the school to guide both parents and children in the selection, as well as in the use, of toys. The toy lending library sets an educational standard for the types of toys most suitable for children. It helps in deciding which toys—pistols or "Erector" sets, "dice" or table tennis, putty blowers or clay-modeling sets—have the greater social value. Both parents and children can thus derive educational benefits from the project.

Operation of the library—The operation of the toy library is relatively simple. One day each week, some of the children are sent from their classrooms to the "Toyerie" to make a selection of toys for use at home or outside the school. With a school enrolment of approximately 2000, it is obviously impossible to distribute toys to all pupils at any one time. Therefore, only a selected group may borrow from the library at these weekly intervals. Each class, by means of discussion, determines the basis for the selection of pupils who may get toys during a given week. The basis for choice may be the amount of effort shown by the pupil during the week, the amount of improvement in a certain trait such as neatness or respect for public property, or progress toward some other school objective agreed upon by the class. Such planning and discussion provide endless opportunities for self-expression and pupil growth.

Pupil librarians in the "Toyerie" keep a record of the toys borrowed, their condition at the time of lending, and their condition on the day returned. In general, toys are returned in good condition, because the children are aware that their borrowing privilege will be curtailed if a toy has been mishandled. Normal mortality in toys is, of course, taken into consideration. A supervising teacher, who is a WPA assistant, has general charge of the project and the functioning of the pupil committee.

Upon return of the toys, they are exposed to sunshine or fresh air for at least twenty-four hours, and are washed in a disinfecting solution as an additional safeguard against contagion. A committee of parents takes care of the latter process, and the service is willingly rendered. Children developing contagious diseases are not required to return their toys. Thus, future borrowers are protected and both pupils and parents are made health-conscious. Broken or discolored toys are mended and repainted, either in class or at home, by pupils with shop-work ability. The idea of cooperation is thus further fostered.

Toys may also be borrowed for classroom use during school hours. Teachers and pupils know what toys are available for this purpose, and they borrow those which can be used as visual and objective aids in their current class work. A toy microscope, sewing machine, train, safety signals, and many other toys are valuable for illustrative teaching.

Objectives achieved—The above description has suggested some of the values of a toy lending library in curriculum enrichment. Critical thinking is developed in planning the project, in repairing the toys, and in offering suggestions for improvement of the library. Cooperation is developed when children play together in a spirit of fairness and sportsmanship. This outcome is evident also when children are careful of toys so that others may use them—when they realize that the toys are for the many rather than for any single individual. In keeping records, in repairing and repainting toys, and in actually making toys for other children to use, the pupils are expressing themselves and are applying many basic knowledges and skills for which they now see the need. It is difficult to estimate just how much opportunity is provided for the realization and development of the child's individual aptitudes.

Character development, we believe, is an equally important outcome of the toy library project. Taking care of toys, assuming responsibility for them, contributing toys to the library, practicing desirable social attitudes toward other children, making an effort to improve in ability or skill while using the toys—all these things tend to develop good character. In our own school community, with its underprivileged

children, the temporary ownership of toys apparently reduces the temptation to steal from other children or from store counters. Furthermore, when the children are kept profitably occupied with toys, they are less likely to engage in undesirable activities that might lead to delinquency.

However, so far as the children themselves are concerned, the recreational phase is the one most stressed. Games, both active and passive, are available for individuals and groups. Leisure time at home and in the neighborhood is occupied healthfully and happily. Children do not find it so necessary to play on the streets; they have their own friendly groups in which, with the aid of well-chosen playthings, they can enjoy plenty of safe and wholesome fun.

Daily we see our children growing thru the educational and recreational values of attractive toys that may be taken home. Our experience leads us to believe that the toy lending library actually does enrich the lives of children, both in and out of school.

TOYS are no longer regarded merely as things to amuse children. Play is an essential of childhood, and toys are the tools of play. Modern education recognizes that wisely chosen play materials perform specific functions in a child's development. Furthermore, through play the child lays the foundation for the development of a wholesome personality and the ability to adjust satisfactorily to the world in which he lives. The best preparation we know of for a happy, successful adulthood is a happy, wholesome childhood.—Kawin, Ethel, *The Wise Choice of Toys*, University of Chicago Press, 1938, p. 1. (Quoted by permission of the publishers.)

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CHAPTER VI

MAKING USE OF COMMUNITY RESOURCES

EDITORIAL COMMENT

IMPORTANT as are visual and auditory aids in the classroom, they cannot take the place of pupil experience in many real-life situations. While some kinds of direct experience can be obtained within the school, other kinds must be sought beyond the school walls. The development of broad social insight and of cooperation for the common good calls for firsthand study of community life and for pupil participation in community improvement. In science and nature study also the out-of-school environment offers superior opportunities for concrete and purposeful learning and for the growth of appreciations.

Curriculum enrichment of a different kind may be contributed by individuals and agencies in the local community. The varied backgrounds and interests of adults can be used to extend and vitalize the school experiences of children. Theaters, play centers, radio stations, and other institutions can help teachers directly thru their educational and recreational programs.

As is evident thruout this yearbook, community resources are being used in a wide variety of school activities. This chapter gives special consideration to the possibilities in this field. In the opening article Harap reviews and illustrates a number of these possibilities. Jones tells how one school studied local institutions, made trips to nearby communities, and cooperated with cultural and recreational agencies. Horsman describes local excursions taken by children in various grades. Lipe reports the procedures and outcomes of a second-grade study of community life. Yoder tells of vitalizing seventh-grade geography thru class journeys to industrial plants. Robertson shows how an excursion to a distant city was planned and executed by fourth-grade pupils under careful supervision.

In the next article Newell discusses the contributions of parents to the program in her school. Johnson tells how adult sponsors for all grades helped enrich pupil activities thru their knowledge and experience in particular fields. The concluding article, by Sutton, tells how three rural communities cooperated with a state university in providing schools for children during the summer vacation.

A selected list of references on the school use of community resources will be found on page 505.—*Editorial Committee.*

SCOPE OF AN EFFECTIVE SCHOOL PROGRAM FOR
UTILIZING COMMUNITY RESOURCES

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A COMMUNITY is a group of families living within fairly definite boundaries and using many social institutions in common. It probably would be universally accepted that one of the most important purposes of the school is to improve living in the community.

There are those, however, who maintain that the study of a particular community is too narrow and confining. The writer can see no conceivable basis for such a point of view. The culture of the people—that is, the whole of the life of the people—comes to a focus in the local community. From this center the pupils may reach out in all directions to the remotest people and the remotest country. In time it may be possible to reach back into the past and forward into the future. It may also be necessary at times to delve deeply into all the reservoirs of systematic knowledge.

In the belief that every community offers invaluable opportunities for curriculum enrichment, this article discusses the school activities thru which such opportunities may be effectively utilized.

Making a community survey—It is highly desirable, in making use of community resources, to begin with a survey of the life of the community. The thoroughness with which the survey is carried out will vary from community to community, depending upon educational leadership, the quality of the teaching staff, the availability of data, and other factors. But no school or school system should be deterred from making such a survey on the pretext that it does not have the required technical ability. The writer has had sufficient direct experience with a number of groups, including college students and several small school systems, to be convinced that a highly valuable study of the community can be made by the average teaching staff.

The group engaged in the survey first determines the important phases of community life to be studied. Experience has revealed from ten to fifteen phases which deserve attention, such as the following: (1) brief history of the county, (2) topography and natural resources, (3) population, (4) health, (5) home and family life, (6) recreation, (7) government, (8) organized group life, (9) economic life, (10) communication and transportation, (11) the arts, and (12) public and private welfare work.

The basic outline or schedule for the study of each phase is then developed by a committee or an individual responsible for that phase.

There are a half dozen available survey guides which make it relatively simple to formulate an outline for each major classification.¹ It is important that each community make its own outline because local conditions vary.

Information may be secured by observation, interview, and the study of statistical reports and other documentary sources. The public library, the chamber of commerce, the local newspapers, and governmental agencies may have the necessary data. During the past few years many local and regional studies have been made by relief agencies. The use of such material saves much direct gathering of information. Each chapter of the survey report is prepared by a committee and is considered in conference. When generally accepted, it is ready to be incorporated in the complete report. It is very important for educative purposes that all members of the survey staff participate in the planning and evaluation at every stage in the production of the survey report.

With the survey data gathered and conveniently organized, the next task consists of segregating those community needs which will form the basis of good learning situations. To illustrate this step, let us consider a hypothetical case: A survey reveals that a region is rich in timber resources which are not fully utilized. The class then might undertake to discover what uses are now made of the timber and what new uses might be made of it. Are the timber resources being wasted, and is there a need to conserve them? Since there is a growing pulp industry in the region, what is the possible relation of the timber resources to this industry? What other local industries are making use of the plentiful supply of timber in the region?

Another phase of this survey shows that malaria ranks first among the diseases in the region. Is this a problem for the school? Why do so many people in the region have malaria? What is its cause? How may it be prevented? What role may children play in reducing the incidence of malaria?

The survey also reveals the increasingly important role that the government plays in welfare work. The pupils might undertake to study the whole federal program in this field. Since the data are made public, they could be analyzed to discover the number of persons who have been aided and the extent and variety of physical improvements that have been made. Is the federal program of relief likely to become permanent and, if so, what will be the effect upon the region? These are typical of

¹ For example, see: Harap, Henry. *An Outline for a Community Survey*. Bulletin No. 64. Nashville, Tenn.: Curriculum Laboratory, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1938. 8 p. (Mimeo.) 10¢. † Curriculum Laboratory, George Peabody College for Teachers. *Bibliography of Aids in Making a Community Survey*. Brief Items No. 4. Nashville, Tenn.: the Curriculum Laboratory, 1937. 2 p. (Mimeo.) 4¢.

a great many problems which are revealed by such a survey and which may become the basis of classroom learning activities.

Including community problems in the curriculum—When the environmental problems have been isolated and clearly formulated, they should be brought to the attention of all the teachers in the community. The teaching staff should be requested to make a list of those problems which are appropriate for study in each particular grade or subject field. Each teacher then may be urged to plan learning units around the problems for her own grade or subject. Probably the most fruitful possibilities for the development of such units lie in the social studies courses. Much of the learning in the social studies at present is uninspired because it is too closely bound up with the textbook. Problems revealed by the survey of community living offer many challenging situations for inquiry and research which should deepen the social understanding of the pupil and ultimately contribute to the improvement of living in his locality.

Too much of the learning program of children in school is theoretical. The community survey gives teachers an insight into the possibilities of developing courses around practical problems of life. In building such courses the teachers may draw extensively on the community needs as revealed by the survey. These will give learning a vitality and a reality which it needs if it is to challenge the interests and abilities of pupils.

The most advantageous use of problems revealed by a community survey lies in the gradual development of a core curriculum, based upon the several important areas of community living. Such a curriculum will embrace the common needs, activities, and responsibilities of both children and adults.

Children's contributions to community improvement—In recent years many dramatic instances of school projects in community improvement have been described in books and periodicals. While these enterprises have great immediate social value, it is equally significant that they offer excellent opportunities for learning and growth. They bring out all the values stressed in our current emphasis on the development of social insight. They provide opportunities for critical thinking and develop the ability to solve problems. They cultivate a disposition to act for the general welfare and they give the pupil a glimpse into underlying social forces.

These projects in community improvement provide an opportunity for the pupil to originate, plan, and direct an enterprise. They provide for cooperative or group activity in which young learners assume significant responsibilities. There are abundant opportunities for self-expression and for adjustment to individual interests. The pupils have many meaningful and socially real experiences. They make extensive

use of concrete illustrative material and they are obliged to use contemporary, authoritative sources of information.

Numerous problems, hitherto neglected by the school, await solution in the local community. There is no reason why many of these problems should not be included in the curriculum of the upper elementary grades. While the study of community problems is most commonly found on the secondary-school level, there has been sufficient experience with gardening, health, and similar projects in the upper elementary grades to assure resourceful teachers in these grades of considerable success in dealing with other areas of community life. A recent article² mentions a surprisingly large variety of elementary-school projects, such as removing debris bordering a school playground and planting twenty kinds of wild flowers; planning and building two community playgrounds; transforming an unsightly clay bank into a beautiful rock garden and open-air theater; drawing parents into musical entertainments; developing a cooperative community library; giving marionette performances for parents in the homes of foreign children; stimulating home canning in country homes; developing water systems in the homes of mountain children; giving a party and entertainment for the inmates of a home for aged women; sending books and instructional supplies to a distant rural school; giving a Christmas party in a home for very young children; participating in a campaign to prevent fires in the neighborhood; assisting in the regulation of traffic; and gathering acorns to be used as winter food for quail.

In Covington County,³ Alabama, a sensitive teacher became aware of the need for bringing a little beauty to home surroundings which were generally bare and drab. Hardly 2 percent of the dwellings had any flowers growing around them. An excursion introduced a group of sixth-grade children to grass and flowers on carefully arranged lawns. Farm journals containing illustrations of home beautification were brought in by the children. The cost of seed was investigated, and the children began to plan a flower bed for themselves. They studied seed catalogs and looked up methods of planting and cultivation in bulletins and magazines. They made some elementary analyses of soil and found that they needed to secure the help of the farm demonstration agent. Some advice was also secured from the state college of agriculture on how to transplant native shrubs and how to arrange the plants on a lawn.

In the spring several homes showed an unusual and gratifying change from slovenly and cluttered sand wastes to grassy lawns with attractive landscaping. This was followed by a flower show held in the school

² White, L., compiler. "Community Enterprises of Elementary School Children." *Childhood Education* 13: 225-28; January 1937.

³ Alabama State Department of Education. *Procedures in Large Unit Teaching*. Curriculum Bulletin No. 4. Montgomery, Ala.: the Department, 1937. p. 187-93.

auditorium. The children began noticing vases of flowers in the churches they attended and in the homes they visited. They brought flowers to school and arranged and exhibited them in the classroom. The whole experience helped to improve the appearance of the school and the homes in the community and gave the children a new insight into the value of art in community life.

A recent volume ⁴ summarizes a large number of socially useful community enterprises carried on by schools in the United States and abroad. One group of projects represented in this book is concerned with the protection of the school community from traffic and other accidents. For example, in an East Greenville, Pennsylvania, school a captain and lieutenant select a patrol which directs traffic and helps in the supervision of fire drills.

Numerous enterprises in cooperative improvement and decoration of the community are reported also. Garden City in Worcester, Massachusetts, is a self-governing community of boys and girls who, in cooperation with the local police department, plant and work their own gardens on deeded property, using seeds supplied by their own organization. During a period of ten years, the records show that no junior citizen among the several thousand has committed a criminal offense. At Flomaton, Alabama, the fourth- and fifth-grade pupils, dissatisfied with the schoolgrounds, drew up a plan for landscaping, dug up shrubs in the woods, and planted these around the schoolhouse according to their plan.

On the island of St. Helena in South Carolina the pupils in the Penn School induced their parents to set aside an acre of land to be worked by them as a learning project. Up to the time of this experiment, cotton was the only crop raised on this land. The pupils, however, undertook to raise corn, and the first year their crop was valued at \$3000. Later they experimented with crops for a typical island farm, including food for home use, feed for the stock, and crops for land improvement.

While the federal government completed the Hillside Housing Project in New York City, the faculty in the nearby school suggested that the children be permitted to furnish a single apartment in accordance with a fairly good standard of beauty and utility. The entire responsibility of furnishing and decorating the rooms was assumed by the several classes. Most of the furniture was built in the school shops, and the drapes and textiles were woven or pieced together in the workrooms and studios of the school.

Widespread interest in community study—A number of states, counties, and cities have prepared pamphlets designed to stimulate interest

⁴ Hanna, Paul R., and others. *Youth Serves the Community*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1936. 303 p.

in community study among teachers. A half dozen southern states working on long-time programs of curriculum development have included social and economic surveys of state resources. The state departments of education in Pennsylvania⁵ and Michigan⁶ also have prepared inventories of their human and natural resources. All of these publications have stressed the use of local resources in the curriculum. In addition, the Alabama State Department of Education⁷ has published a workbook for community analysis. Westchester County, New York, has for several years prepared pamphlets to help the children understand the history, geology, and industries of the region in which they live. The last of these publications⁸ describes twenty-two specific industries, nearly all of which may be visited by children.

A number of curriculum bulletins issued by state and city school systems include sections in which the use of the natural and social environment is discussed. The most recent of these are the California,⁹ Pasadena,¹⁰ and Michigan¹¹ bulletins. Some years ago the schools of Oakland, California, published a handbook¹² describing the experiences of twenty-five teachers in making school journeys. One of these teachers organized all her work around living situations and made a total of twenty-five community contacts. More recently the San Jose school system issued a leaflet entitled *Interesting Places to Visit*,¹³ which includes suggestions on preparing for trips and a list of possible journeys organized around major community activities. This leaflet enables the teacher conveniently to select and arrange for any one of ninety-seven field trips. The newest publication in this field that has come to the writer's attention is entitled *Expanding the Classroom*¹⁴ and was issued by the Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction in September 1938. It contains a discussion of the place of the school journey in the school curriculum. Seven teachers report their experiences on journeys to such places as a farm, a store, an artists' colony, and a museum. An

⁵ Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction. *Increased Social Opportunity through Community Planning*. Harrisburg, Pa.: the Department, 1936. 36 p.

⁶ Michigan Department of Public Instruction. *Michigan Today*. Bulletin No. 307. Lansing, Mich.: the Department, 1938. 301 p.

⁷ Alabama State Department of Education. *Survey Work-Book for Community Analysis*. Bulletin No. 2. Montgomery, Ala.: the Department, 1937.

⁸ Park Avenue Elementary School, Teachers and Pupils. *Port Chester's 100 Years*. White Plains, N. Y.: Superintendent of Schools, 1937. 28 p. 25¢.

⁹ California Curriculum Commission. *Teachers' Guide to Child Development: Manual for Kindergarten and Primary Teachers*. Sacramento: State Department of Education, 1930. 658 p.

¹⁰ Pasadena City Schools. *Suggestions to Teachers in Guiding Pupil Experience*. Pasadena, Calif.: the Schools, 1936.

¹¹ Michigan Department of Public Instruction. *Instructional Guide for Elementary Schools*. Bulletin No. 301. Lansing, Mich.: the Department, 1936.

¹² Oakland Public Schools. *Some Oakland School Journeys*. Course of Study Series No. 125. Oakland, Calif.: the Schools, 1931.

¹³ San Jose Elementary Schools. *Interesting Places to Visit*. San Jose, Calif.: the Schools, 1938. 16 p.

¹⁴ Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction. *Expanding the Classroom*. Harrisburg, Pa.: the Department, 1938. 72 p.

appendix contains suggested schedules of journeys for different types of schools and a list of places of interest in each county of the state.

The Minneapolis school system has an organized field-trip service for teachers and pupils. The program involves the participation of over 30,000 children a year. A field worker devotes full time to providing helps for teachers, arranging for transportation, and making contacts with the institutions to be visited. The service is supplied at the request of the individual teacher.

Making school journeys an integral part of learning units—Some teachers seem to have the impression that the making of a journey is an independent activity to be grafted upon the curriculum. Nothing is further from the truth. Any contacts that children make with the community should be an integral part of a particular learning enterprise. Sometimes the environmental agencies, materials, and conditions may even be brought into the classroom to good advantage. There should be a constant flow of activity to and from the school building.

Let us see how a unit of work on the purification of water involved environmental contacts. Some pupils in Cleveland wished to study the city water supply system. They investigated the intake of water in the school building and in their own homes. From the telephone book they found out how the department of public utilities was organized, and a diagram of the organization was made. A letter was written to the division of water and heat asking for printed materials and for permission to visit a filtration plant. The study of a leaflet supplied by this division led to the problem of reading water meters. The inquiry made it necessary to use firsthand sources of information, such as government pamphlets, city records, newspapers, letters from officials, maps, charts, and blueprints. The trip to the filtration plant led to an extended inquiry planned by the children. They asked many questions, and these were later recorded in class. They brought back samples of raw water and alum. Questions arose later which had to be answered by study or by sending letters of inquiry to officials.

A reference to the purity of rain water resulted in an actual experiment in washing the hands in rain water and in ordinary city water. A pupil brought in a water bill, and the class recomputed it on blanks secured from the division of water and heat. The filtration plants, pumping stations, and reservoirs comprising the water supply system were indicated on an outline map prepared especially for this purpose. This map was used also to show the route followed in going by automobile to the filtration plant visited. On the basis of a blueprint furnished by the filtration plant, a complete diagram was made showing clearly the eight steps in the process of purifying water. The complete unit involved the following direct contacts with the community: corre-

spondence with city officials, use of the public library, use of documents, and a field trip to a filtration plant. It also included the constant use of materials and equipment from the home, shop, and public building.

In connection with the work of the department of social studies at the University of Minnesota, an experiment in pupil study of community life has been carried on in cooperation with several communities of the state. Each teacher formulated a general picture of her community. In one rural center, the children's inquiries began after the rural mail carrier had talked to them and gradually spread to include a comprehensive study of the postal service. In an isolated rural community, a broad interest in American history grew out of a study of how the local people came to make their homes in Minnesota. The fifth grade in the laboratory school at Moorhead State Teachers College explored the evidences of Roman contributions in use today. They took pictures of public buildings and bridges. The state attorney talked to the children on elements of Roman law in Moorhead courts.

During a period of several days the writer visited small schools and larger consolidated schools at widely separated points in Arkansas and observed a number of classes in which teachers were extending learning into the community. In one class the children had built birdhouses, brought in birdhouses, and made detailed plans for the protection of birds in the neighborhood. The same group was making plans for the planting of a garden for each child, this garden to be cared for independently during the summer vacation. A second grade was conducting a real grocery store, the children carrying out transactions among themselves and with wholesale grocers. Another second grade was conducting a class post office which involved the actual exchange of letters and was based upon a close contact with the town post office. In a first-grade class, tools were brought from home, boxes were furnished by storekeepers, and lumber was bought at the lumber yard for construction purposes. A third-grade group working on houses was getting ready to go to the sawmill. A sixth grade was conducting a class bank, the deposits of which were taken weekly to the downtown bank.

Conclusion—It seems safe to predict that the emerging curriculum will be concerned with the improvement of living in the community. The pupil will have increasing contact with his natural and social environment. The whole community will serve as a laboratory for learning. The school will be a community of children within a larger social community, and its program will touch every phase of group experience—home life, government, industry, commerce, recreation, transportation, communication, and organized social life. The school of the future will indeed be a *community* school.

SOME EXPERIENCES IN USING COMMUNITY RESOURCES

ANNA B. JONES

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THE FUNCTION of modern education is threefold: to assist each individual in developing his own personality to its fullest, to prepare the individual for adjusting to society, and to prepare the individual for helping to readjust society. . . . A school which draws its curriculum vitally out of the society it serves occupies a position in relation to human progress unparalleled by any institution."¹ This article tells some of the ways in which the teachers of the Cucamonga School have undertaken to use community resources, both local and more remote, in giving children insight into the conditions, demands, and limitations of the society in which they live.

STUDYING INSTITUTIONS IN THE LOCAL COMMUNITY

The railroad—We begin to awaken an interest in, and a responsibility for, the community in our pre-primer or vocabulary group by acquainting the children with the train that passes by the school premises and with the depot that is a short block away. The teacher takes these six-year-olds out to see the train as it passes. Returning to their classroom, they re-enact the drama of the moving train in rhythmic play and in building with their blocks. They build the tracks, engines, cars, the depot, and the garage (roundhouse) for the engines. When problems come up that cannot be solved in the classroom, the group takes another walk, makes closer observation and investigation of the real railroad, and returns to the room to continue the planning and operation of its own railroad. Thru these activities the children learn to express themselves better; they learn new words and phrases which will be included in cooperative stories as the group advances toward reading readiness; and they learn something important about their out-of-school environment.

The home—We endeavor to enrich the lives of the first-grade children by giving them many experiences which will help them to appreciate home life, including their relationships with father and mother, baby, older brother and sister, and the pets that live with them. Our children come from homes having meager surroundings and few comforts, but the family circle is very close and the children take great interest in reliving thru dramatic play the experiences of the home. They also enjoy making visits to homes of various types. A favorite

¹ California Elementary School Principals' Association. *Current Curricular Practices in Elementary Education*. Ninth Yearbook. Sacramento, Calif.: the Association, 1937. p. 12, 23.

excursion is that taken to one of the better homes in the community, where the use of the kitchen, the dining room, the bedroom, the bath, and the living rooms with their furnishings are discussed. Later the children visit a home that is still more modern and expensive.

The inspection of several homes representing different economic levels extends the children's understanding of housing conditions and helps them in planning their own "play" house. They decide not to build a home that is very poor or one that is too expensive, but to construct one that provides the following accommodations and conveniences: (1) a kitchen with a sink, gas stove, drain board, cupboard, refrigerator, electric light, curtains at the windows, linoleum on the floor, etc.; (2) a living room (which also serves as a dining room) with a comfortable chair in which father can sit and read by the open fireplace, a settee on which the company may sit, a rocking chair in which mother can sit and sew or knit, a bookcase or shelves on which are books and a radio, a center table with a bowl of flowers, and a lovely rag rug; and (3) a bedroom with a bed in which a doll is sleeping, a dressing table, a small chair, and a rug on the floor.

The children make all the furniture for their house from boxes brought from home or given to them by stores and an orange packing house. Orange packing boxes are ideal material for this purpose. Empty spools are used for making cupboard knobs, stove knobs, and control knobs for the radio, which is also made from a box. The doll's clothes are made of cloth brought from home, and the rugs are braided from carpet rags that the girls have cut and sewed together. Thus, these boys and girls are vicariously but vitally living the life of adults in a modern home. They are learning to live happily and effectively in a democratic society, cooperating and sharing with one another and carrying back from the school some of this happy experience into their own meager homes.

In addition to their study of the home, the children are taken on trips to investigate other institutions in the neighborhood, including stores, the garage, the service station, the barber shop, the restaurant, and the orange packing plant. Each of these excursions is followed by pertinent discussion, planning, building with blocks, and painting pictures of things seen on the trip.

The farm—We live in a rural community where we have access to large ranches, vineyards, orange groves, peach orchards, alfalfa and dairy ranches, and stock farms. Two years ago the second grade visited a large dairy farm where more than 3000 turkeys, thousands of chickens, and hundreds of hogs were raised in connection with the dairy of 600 cows. Last year the group visited a small dairy near home. The experience of visiting the large ranch gave the children some knowledge

of the dependence of the large cities upon the country, as the milk, poultry, and eggs from the ranch are shipped to Los Angeles daily. On the other hand, they found that the small dairy at home distributes all of its products among the people of the local community. The owners of these dairies were exceedingly cooperative, explaining just where the cows stand, how they are fed and milked, how the milk is separated and pasteurized, how the bottles are washed, filled, and capped, and how all the machinery of the plant operates. After such an excursion the group returns to the classroom to discuss what it has seen and to construct some of the things in miniature. Sometimes the children build a farm of many activities, including fruit-growing, stock-raising, dairying, and poultry-raising. Last year the group built a dairy barn and a large silo. Lumber for such projects is brought by the children. Sometimes they also bring baby chicks and rabbits, which they care for at school.

EXCURSIONS TO OTHER COMMUNITIES

In the third grade we begin a more complete study of community life, extending the scope of investigation to other communities nearby. We visit such places as the library, the post office, the bakery, the fire department, the orange packing plant, a grocery store, and a service station with adjoining garage both in our own town and in the neighboring city four miles away, making comparative studies of the industries in the two communities.

Visiting government and business institutions—In the development of a post office unit two years ago the postmaster was deeply interested and most cooperative. He gave the children stamping pads, interesting and informative materials to read, and many kinds of stamps. He even sent a mail carrier to the school with letters to the children, and on the closing day of the unit he sent by special delivery a package containing candy for each child and made a personal visit to the room to enjoy the program given by the children. These children had written original poetry and songs about the postman. They also wrote their own playlet, made their own costumes, and then invited their parents and friends to see the play.

Last year the same group developed a bakery unit. As we have no wholesale bakery in our small community, the children visited the one in the nearby city. The teacher telephoned in advance and made arrangements for a visit on a certain day, and the school bus transported the children. At the close of the tour of inspection, the manager gave each child a golden-brown nut-and-raisin cookie, baked in the oven which the class had inspected. A new bond was thus established between the school and a business enterprise.

Visiting a public library—Another third-grade group took an equally interesting excursion to the same community, visiting the children's department of the public library. The children had previously planned their own behavior and had discussed the things they would like to see on the trip. The librarian received them kindly, explained library procedures, told them about observing certain days and weeks of importance, and informed them of the library's membership in a doll club that collects dolls from many lands. She then invited the children to look about the room and examine any books they wished. After some fifteen minutes of browsing, they were asked to be reseated while she told them a delightful story. At the close of this visit the teacher and class were cordially invited to return and be special guests at a program to be given by the library during Book Week. As a result of the excursion, a letter of appreciation was written to the librarian, and two bookcases and a reading table were constructed for classroom use by these eight- and nine-year-old children. The children also made a splendid collection of pictures, bringing them from home or obtaining them from friends in the community and mounting and filing them neatly and artistically for future reference work. They made their own borrowers' cards and book cards, and carried on the entire library project in a commendable manner.

Other interesting trips—Two years ago the fourth grade made a study of wild life, stressing the animals of the countries to which they traveled in imagination during their social studies periods. After a rather intensive study of the characteristics of many well-known wild animals, the group planned a journey by bus to Zoo Park in Los Angeles, a distance of fifty miles. Arrangements were made with the park manager for the children to visit the zoo at a certain time. When the larger wild animals and birds had been seen, the group went across the street and visited an alligator farm, where more than a thousand alligators of all ages and sizes were being raised. These experiences were invaluable in vitalizing the knowledge of animals which the youngsters had obtained from books and pictures.

Last year the fourth grade centered its interest in a study of Chinese life. Excursions were taken to a Chinese shop in the neighboring city and to a Chinese vegetable garden. Arrangements were also made to have a Chinese exchange student from a nearby college speak to the group on the customs of her native land.

In a study of the Westward Movement and the Pony Express, the fifth grade took a journey to a museum about twenty miles away where there is an extensive collection of pioneer exhibits. The museum is a private institution owned by a man who has an extensive commercial business. This man took time from his business to serve as a special

guide and thus made the excursion more profitable for the children. The outcome of the trip was an increased interest, understanding, and appreciation of the pioneers.

After working several weeks on a study of primitive man and his modes of living, the sixth grade went on an excursion to the Southwest Museum of Los Angeles. This was another all-day trip and a most stimulating one. At the museum the class saw a reproduction of the LaBrea Pits, skeletons of prehistoric animals and men, the Theodore Roosevelt collection of African wild animals, ancient mummies, and collections of weapons, tools, conveyances, and other things used in ancient times. All this was a revelation to the children. One of the things they did on their return to school was to paint a frieze depicting the destruction of wild life by the LaBrea Pits.

The newspaper plant in the adjacent community also contributes to, and cooperates with, the activities of our school. A school newspaper is in the process of development, and rhythmic interpretations of the linotype and paper rollers are being worked out. In addition, the children have been invited by the editor of the community weekly paper to contribute news items about our school for each issue.

Twenty-one miles away, at Riverside, California, there is a government Indian school known as Sherman Institute. Our seventh and eighth grades visited that school and brought back many ideas for interesting and profitable class activities, including the weaving of beaded belts and ornaments and the reproduction of huts and villages belonging to different tribes of Indians. The realization that almost in their very midst is an institution which teaches children every kind of trade as well as homemaking—a real community within a community—has meant much to our boys and girls.

Another group journeyed to an old Spanish ranch house of the early California days. This property is within six miles of our town and is one of the original *ranchos* established under Spanish grant. It is being preserved as a museum with the old furniture and living quarters intact. Here was an excellent opportunity for our children to gain an insight into the cultural background of early California.

COOPERATING WITH CULTURAL AND RECREATIONAL AGENCIES

At the beginning of each school year in September we receive enough free tickets so that every child may attend the Los Angeles County Fair on a certain day. We take the children to the fair in the school bus. While no group can remain there more than an hour, many experiences of the trip carry over thruout the year as a fund of information stored in memory and drawn upon when needed.

Two years ago, during the study of the Colonial Period and the Westward Movement in the fifth and eighth grades, the motion picture entitled "Pony Express" came to the theater of our sister community. Arrangements were made with the theater manager to admit our children for ten cents each. As this is a high-priced house, the ten-cent admission was a real concession. Many of our group had never been inside this theater and so were doubly interested.

To vitalize and emphasize our health and safety program we present appropriate sound movies to the boys and girls of the upper grades. To these programs the parents also are invited. At other times the girls of the seventh and eighth grades are invited by the local newspaper management to attend a cooking school in the form of a delightful and instructive sound picture. This experience carries over directly into the home.

In April of each year we participate in an all-day district interschool athletic meet held in a community about ten miles distant. On the average about forty-five boys and girls enter the various contests and they usually bring home their share of red, blue, and white ribbons. As the rural schools of the entire county attend this meet, the children have a wide variety of experiences and contacts during the day. In May another playday is held at the high school of our own district. The children enter the spelling and penmanship contests with other schools of the district and also enjoy the competitive athletic games and swimming. For eight consecutive years the boy and girl entering the spelling contest from our eighth grade have brought home the first-place trophy.

Our music programs are enriched by listening to the "Standard Symphony Hour" on the radio. The radios are used on many other occasions as well; the children frequently listen to programs of great personal interest or to something pertaining especially to their current units of work. Often people of special talent come from neighboring towns to sing or play for the school, and there is an occasional interchange of special music groups between our school and others nearby.

There is a "little theater" known as the Padua Hills Theater at Claremont, California, six miles away, in which five of our own school graduates are employed as actors. Members of this group perform for us gratis at graduation exercises and other large community gatherings. They do beautiful Mexican folk dancing, sing traditional folk songs, and furnish their own accompanying music.

The Junior Red Cross is composed of two members from each of the eight grades of the school. These children engage in local service to the sick, both adults and children, and assist in needed relief at home and abroad by collecting and donating money as well as food.

At Christmas they donate food and money and take baskets and cards to the sick and needy aged people of the community, as well as sending a box of cheer to some foreign country. Last year this group prepared a box and sent it to China to cheer the hearts of some little children there. At Easter they prepare a special basket for an old ladies' home, and once a year they compile a beautiful portfolio to send to some foreign country. Their last portfolio went to Czechoslovakia.

CONCLUSION

Thru these activities and many more, the teachers and children together endeavor to enrich the curriculum so that vital pupil growth will take place both in the school and in the larger community. Effective use of community resources involves more than merely taking pupils on trips to the outside world. Equally important are the preparation for such excursions and the follow-up activities which are carried on in the school. Before each of our journeys the teacher and children plan the trip carefully and develop a background of knowledge about the things they are going to see. They also discuss the question of desirable behavior and decide how they will conduct themselves on the trip. Thus the children learn to live harmoniously and cooperatively in the larger community as well as in the school. Discipline becomes a pattern of acceptable behavior developed by the children themselves and not a set of regulations imposed by the school authorities. On returning from the trip the class evaluates its individual and collective behavior and takes note of points which need improvement. It also reviews the facts learned on the trip, decides on any matters which it wishes to investigate further, and plans constructional or interpretive activities related to the phases of community life observed.

There is much to be gained also by bringing the community into the school. Outside individuals and organizations, when carefully selected, can participate to great advantage in school and classroom activities. Such participation, together with a well-planned and well-executed program of pupil excursions, will make the school a real community institution.

VISITING AND STUDYING LOCAL COMMUNITY INSTITUTIONS

RALPH D. HORSMAN

Principal, Washington School, Mt. Lebanon, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania

LOCAL COMMUNITY INSTITUTIONS deserve and are being given a definite place in presentday school programs. No longer do we look upon the class excursion as a mere pleasure jaunt for pupils and teachers. Rather, the excursion has become a search for materials and experiences which will help children to understand the society in which they live, to adapt themselves to it when necessary, and to improve it whenever possible. Community resources should be used not only to stimulate interest in the more prosaic phases of classroom work, but to bring the whole school program into closer touch with life outside the school. There is probably nothing which children can study to greater advantage than the institutions which men have created to facilitate group living. Local institutions are especially appropriate for investigation in the elementary school because the children can visit them readily and can see how they affect the people's daily lives.

As a rule, the teacher's first problem is not one of locating enough institutions to be visited, but one of choosing those that will best serve the children's needs. Too often she overlooks some of the most valuable community resources in her quest for something new or unique. In the Washington School one of the most interesting and instructive excursions is made when the pupils of the fourth grade begin map study. A tour is made of the immediate locality, and the streets, railways, and buildings in that area are noted with approximate distances. On returning to school the children lay out a floor map according to the data they have gathered. Thus they not only learn that a map is a "scale drawing," but they see their school neighborhood from a new point of view.

PREPARING FOR EXCURSIONS

Detailed planning is essential if excursions are to be of the greatest value. Not only must the teacher arrange for the trip and prepare the pupils for it, but she must know in advance some of the ways in which the excursion experience will be utilized when the class returns to school. While it is impossible to foresee everything that may develop, careful planning will help the children to get the most out of the trip itself and to make maximum use of that experience in their subsequent activities.

A working outline—As a guide to teachers in planning and conducting pupil excursions, an outline similar to the following has been used in the Washington School:

- I. General consideration of curriculum aims
 - A. What are the aims of the curriculum for each grade from the kindergarten thru Grade VI?
 - B. Do the aims of the intermediate and upper grades take into account the foundations laid in the preceding grades?
 - C. How can the study of community institutions aid in attaining these goals?
- II. Survey of community institutions
 - A. What institutions are present in the community?
 - B. Where is each institution located?
 - C. What is the possibility of visiting the institution?
- III. Classification of institutions for excursion purposes
 - A. What service does each institution render to the community?
 - B. How will an understanding of this service contribute to the achievement of curriculum objectives?
 - C. For what grade level is the study of this institution suitable?
 - D. How far is the institution from our school?
 - E. How much time will probably be required for an excursion to the institution?
 - F. If the institution is to be visited, when will the trip probably be made?
- IV. Excursion activities
 - A. Preparation for the excursion
 1. How will pupil interest in the excursion be aroused?
 2. What materials will be used to develop a background of knowledge about the institution to be visited?
 3. What preparatory activities will the children engage in?
 - B. The excursion
 1. What activities will the excursion itself include?
 2. How much time will be spent on the excursion?
 3. What means of transportation will be used?
 4. What ideas and materials should the pupils obtain for classroom use?
 - C. Follow-up activities
 1. What pupil reactions may be expected as a result of the excursion?
 2. How will the excursion experience be integrated with subsequent classroom activities?
 3. What procedures will make the excursion contribute to the attainment of curriculum objectives?
 4. How may the children be led to realize that each institution visited is an integral part of the community?

While each question in the foregoing outline is considered important, special attention is directed to those under topic III, "Classification of institutions for excursion purposes." The teachers' preliminary answers to those questions are recorded and filed for future reference, and the report submitted after each excursion covers the same items of information.

Among the important institutions listed as possibilities for excursions

in this locality are the following: farm, nursery, grocery store, fire house, street car station, garage, zoo, library, museum, department store, observatory, radio studio, radio transmitting station, airport, railroad station, steel mill, courthouse, community building, university, Mellon Institute, wharf, newspaper plant, post office, telephone office and exchange, canning factory, and meat-packing plant. While not all of these institutions are to be found in every locality, all communities have facilities representing many of the same general areas of activity—home life, transportation, communication, distribution of food, provision of shelter, manufacturing, scientific activity, education, and other community services.

SOME TYPICAL EXCURSIONS

The following descriptive outlines show how some typical excursion projects were carried out by teachers and pupils in the Washington School.¹ While these projects differed in details, they were similar in general procedure and had the same ultimate objectives. In each case the organization and procedure were based upon a "simple to complex" sequence of activities. Each excursion contributed to the children's understanding of the general topic under consideration in their grade. In this school the kindergarten and first grade are concerned with the home and a few other institutions of immediate interest to young children; the second grade studies animal life, a variety of local community services, and methods of transportation; the third grade investigates simple life in other lands or in earlier times; the fourth grade learns about various parts of the world in which life is not highly complicated but which are dependent upon one another in various ways; and the fifth and sixth grades gain further insight into the complexities of the modern world thru a study of science, manufacturing, and education. The excursions outlined here illustrate the work in the kindergarten and in the first, third, fifth, and sixth grades.

A kindergarten excursion to a greenhouse—This project had its inception when a child brought several wooden cheese-boxes to school. The children decided to paint them for window boxes, and it was then suggested that the group visit the greenhouse to buy seeds and plants to put in them. Before the excursion was undertaken, the children were prepared for it by discussions of these points:

1. Things to look for at the greenhouse
2. Kinds of seeds and plants to be purchased
3. Money needed to buy the seeds and plants
4. Care of plants
5. Behavior on the bus and at the greenhouse.

¹ The following teachers conducted these excursions and furnished the information given here: Grace Leathers, Marian Underwood, Elizabeth Clark, Sara Byers, and Frances Lowman.

On returning from the greenhouse, many informal discussions about the trip were held and some interesting activities developed, as follows:

1. The children talked about the greenhouse, the flowers, the plants, the glass roof, the heat in the greenhouse, and the bus ride.
2. Someone suggested building a greenhouse in the kindergarten and the class built one, using large floor blocks and cellophane.
3. The children took turns watering and caring for the plants.
4. The plants were given to the children's mothers for Mother's Day.
5. Many of the children planted their own little gardens at home.
6. The children learned many facts about plant life.

A first-grade excursion to a farm—The development and outcomes of this journey are indicated in the following outline:

A. Motivation and preparation

1. The children read *Grandfather's Farm* by Helen S. Read.²
2. Bulletin boards were prepared with the following headings: "At Work on the Farm," "Farm Buildings," "Animals on the Farm," "Farm Animals and Their Babies," and "Farm Pictures from Denmark."
3. Tools used on the farm were listed and discussed.
4. Fruits, grains, and vegetables grown on the farm were listed and described.
5. A life-sized representation of a cow (loaned by a druggist who had used it in a window display) was placed in the classroom and furnished the setting for a "movie" entitled "The Cow's Visit to Our Schoolroom."
6. The story "At the Farm" from *Peter and Peggy*³ was read.
7. The teacher sent the children a letter asking them to visit a farm.
8. The children decided to build a farm in the schoolroom.
9. Plans were made to visit a farm.
10. Buildings, animals, fields, and farm work were listed for observation on the trip.

B. Excursion activities

1. The class traveled to the farm in the school bus.
2. The children were divided into two groups.
3. The farmer's wife and the bus driver acted as guides.
4. The farmer's wife took one group thru the cow barn, where the children saw grain in bins, food carriers, water fountains, and the interior of a silo.
5. The second group was shown the tool shed, a hay rake, a corn planter, a manure spreader, and a mowing machine.
6. In the barn the children saw a cow with her calf and a horse with her colt.
7. Near the barn they saw sheep and lambs, pigs and baby pigs, hens and chicks, and ponies.
8. One group visited the milk house while the other visited the orchard and corn cribs.
9. The farmhouse was visited.
10. All the children visited the apple house and observed the apple grader at work. Each child was given an apple.
11. The gardens, mail boxes, ponds, and farmers at work in the fields were also observed.

² Read, Helen S. *Grandfather's Farm*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1928. 30 p. (Social Science Readers.)

³ Gates, Arthur I., and Huber, M. *Peter and Peggy*. Work-Play Books Primer. New York: Macmillan Co., 1930-32.

C. Outcomes

1. A miniature farm was constructed in a galvanized tin tray eight feet long and six feet wide. A house, a silo, a barn, a chicken house, a pond, a mail box, a barn bridge, walks, and fences were included.
2. A yard with grass and flowers, fields of oats, corn, and wheat, a garden of vegetables, and several trees were planted on this farm.
3. Charts were kept on the growth of the plants.
4. Many farm songs were learned and listed on charts.
5. The names of animals, fruits, vegetables, and buildings seen at the farm were used as spelling words.
6. Booklets containing pictures of farm animals and buildings were made.
7. Library books about farm experiences were brought to the classroom.
8. Farm stories in primers were read with much interest.
9. The pupils were encouraged to contribute pictures and stories about farm life.

A farm trip by another first-grade class—The outline of this project follows a somewhat different form from the one just presented:

A. Motivation

1. Poems and stories of farm life were read.
2. Farm songs were sung.
3. Pictures and posters of farms and farm activities were displayed and discussed.
4. Farm books were placed on the library table.
5. Pupils who had been on farms told of their experiences there.
6. The children and teacher planned the trip to the farm.

B. Questions considered in preparation for the trip

1. Whose farm shall we visit?
2. How shall we go?
 - a. Shall we ride in automobiles?
 - b. Shall we ride in a train?
 - c. Shall we ride in a street car?
 - d. Shall we ride in a boat?
 - e. Shall we ride in a bus?
3. What we shall look for at the farm?
4. What will we see in the barn?
5. What farm animals will we see?
6. What will we see in the milk house?

C. Reading

1. Blackboard stories were made by the children.
2. The children's stories were read from charts.
3. The children read farm booklets made about their trip to the farm.
4. They read other farm stories.

D. Music

1. The farm songs sung were "Six Little Pigs," "Little Doggie," "The Hen," "The Cow," and "Pussy Cat."

E. Art

1. The children drew pictures of their trip to the farm, including the farm animals, horses and wagons, the school bus, fruits and vegetables, and the chicken yard.

F. Language

1. The children discussed the trip to the farm.
2. They told stories about the trip.
3. They talked about interesting aspects of the trip, especially about the kindness with which they had been treated.

G. Poems

1. These included "The Cow," "Little Bo Peep," "The Hen," "I Like Little Pussy," and "My Doggie."

H. Games

1. The games played were "The Farmer in the Dell," "The Farmer Sows the Seed," "Squirrels in Trees," and "Oats, Peas, Beans, and Barley Grow."

I. Numbers

1. The distance to the farm was discussed.
2. Apples found on the farm were compared as to size.
3. The apples were counted.
4. The boys and girls making the trip were counted.

J. General activities

1. The children made farm booklets.
2. They painted a frieze of a farm.

A third-grade journey to a museum—During the children's study of the early American Indian the following questions were raised: Where did these Indians come from? Are the stories we read about their ancestors true? How have people learned these things about the men of long ago? The discussion of these questions led to a very interesting study of early man. One child suggested that the class take a trip to the museum. There the children could learn about these early people, see some of the things they had used, and obtain a better background for understanding the stories read about them in school. Another child suggested that the group first learn what it could from available books and pictures. It could then visit the museum and understand better the things to be seen there. This plan was finally agreed upon.

After four weeks of group study, the teacher telephoned the head of the educational department at the Carnegie Museum in Pittsburgh and made arrangements for the class to see the available materials relating to the early caveman. She explained that the children intended to follow the study thru the early periods of human history to the discovery of America and thence to the consideration of the American Indians and Pilgrim life.

The children were taken in the school bus to the museum, where a guide met them and conducted the tour. He showed and explained the things about which the youngsters had read in class. They saw weapons which had been used by the people of the Stone Age; learned some of the superstitions and customs of the Egyptians; saw some of the jewelry and pottery which the latter had made; observed some Babylonian

writing tablets and the Phoenician alphabet; and finally saw some representations of American Indian life, including arrow-making, pottery-molding, weaving, and the costumes worn by the different tribes.

In the afternoon at school the children discussed what they had seen, compared the things they had read with the things they had seen, wrote stories and drew pictures for their scrapbooks, and wrote a note of thanks to their guide at the museum. From the discussion the class concluded that we still have many of the customs and superstitions of our early ancestors and that our greatest achievement has been the discovery of electricity and its uses.

A trip to an observatory by fifth- and sixth-graders—The activities involved in this project are outlined below:

A. Initial preparation

1. The children studied a unit entitled "Wonders of the Sky," which touched upon the following topics:
 - a. The solar system, including the sun (our most important star); the moon (earth's nearest neighbor); the principal planets, comets, and meteors; the constellations visible at the time of the study; and the first-magnitude stars visible at the time of the study
 - b. Astronomers—early and recent
 - c. Observatories and telescopes—their types and locations.

B. Excursion activities

1. An observatory was visited and the children were told of its history and present uses.
2. An expert demonstrated the mechanical operation of a telescope.
3. The children viewed the heavens thru a telescope.
4. They listened to a talk illustrated with slides showing heavenly bodies, astronomers, observatories, and telescopes.

C. Integrating activities

1. The children read myths about the constellations, learning how early beliefs about stars differed from modern beliefs.
2. They drew a chart to show the relative sizes of the planets and their distances from the sun.
3. They discussed the world's largest telescopes.
4. They took an imaginary trip to the moon.
5. They built a small telescope.
6. The activities and learnings of this unit were used by the teacher to introduce subsequent units of work.

A SECOND-GRADE STUDY OF COMMUNITY LIFE

CATHERINE LIFE

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A CHILD entering school for the first time finds himself in an unfamiliar group to which he must make immediate adjustment. It is the task of the school to help him make the social adaptations that are essential to happy and successful living, both in his own immediate group and in the more complex social environment of which he will gradually become a part. An important factor in effective social living is the understanding and appreciation of life in organized society. Primary teachers increasingly are helping to give children such understanding and appreciation thru a variety of experiences usually referred to as the "social studies." In this way they hope to contribute to the better adjustment of human personalities and the making of better citizens.

The realization of these outcomes is possible because of certain characteristics and interests of primary children. "Normal children are forever active and curious; they are constantly exploring, investigating, making things, and playing. If these activities are directed toward some definite, worthwhile ends, changes in habits, attitudes, and knowledge will be brought about."¹ It is by means of such changes that growth takes place, a growth that includes appreciations and skills along with knowledge, habits, and attitudes. It is by means of such changes that emotional, intellectual, and social adjustment takes place.

It is not possible, however, to measure objectively all of these qualities, abilities, and attitudes. "In the social sciences, perhaps more than in any subject taught in the public schools, results of classroom instruction and experiences cannot be evaluated by such immediate reactions as may be revealed by any form of testing."² Yet, altho many of the results of social studies teaching are intangible and difficult to measure, it is possible to realize certain outcomes that are definite and easily perceived. According to a committee report on curriculum revision in the St. Louis public schools,³ the social studies should utilize natural activities suitable to the child's stage of development so as to achieve the following:

1. Broadening and deepening of desirable interests
2. Improvement of necessary skills

¹ Storm, Grace E. *The Social Studies in the Primary Grades*. Chicago: Lyons and Carnahan, 1931. p. 2.

² Stormzand, Martin J., and Lewis, R. H. *New Methods in the Social Studies*. New York: Farrar and Rinehart, 1935. p. 181.

³ St. Louis Public Schools. *Socializing-Integrating Activities*. Curriculum Bulletin No. 21. St. Louis: Board of Education, 1926. p. 8-10.

3. Establishment of good habits
4. Extension of the pupil's knowledge
5. Development of appreciations.

The purpose of this article is to show how the enrichment and extension of the child's social experiences can contribute to the development of desirable social attitudes, habits, and appreciations; to growth in necessary skills; to an increase in factual knowledge; and to improved social adjustment. The following description tells how a study of community life undertaken by a second-grade group in a typical school situation made a definite contribution to the children's growth in these areas.

ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE STUDY

Interest in community life was stimulated when one of the children brought to school a picture book showing various community workers—policeman, fireman, mail carrier, etc. The pictures were examined and discussed by the group. During a subsequent free period some of the children drew pictures representing different occupations, including those engaged in by the parents of certain children. The next day the children told of the occupations, such as those of filling station attendant and grocery clerk, which they had noticed on the way to school. They were encouraged to tell how the different workers contribute to the welfare of the community.

Soon one of the children brought a large cardboard box from home. He announced that his father had a grocery store and that he was going to make a grocery store at school. The group was much interested. Someone suggested that other buildings could be built also, and another child said, "Let's build a town."

The children decided that it would be necessary to make a trip around town before beginning to build their own town. The trip was planned by the group; the children talked about what they would look for and how they would behave on the street.

After returning from the trip the children told what they had observed and proceeded to make plans for the construction of their town. They decided to make the following buildings:

grocery	restaurant	post office	church
bakery	filling station	bank	school
clothing store	railroad station	theater	houses
	fire station	hospital	

There were to be two streets: a business street and a residence street. It was decided to build the town on the classroom floor. Large cardboard boxes were brought for the buildings, and committees were ap-

pointed to be responsible for the different structures. Each child indicated just what he wanted to build.

During the process of construction it was frequently necessary to call the group together for mutual help, suggestions, and constructive criticisms. Since particular interest was evinced in the grocery, bakery, post office, and fire station, special trips were taken to those institutions and they were discussed in greater detail.

The children made books containing pictures and individual and group compositions about different phases of community life. They read stories from books on the library table. At the completion of the study they presented an assembly program in which they showed their buildings, made talks, and read some of their compositions.

OUTCOMES OF THE STUDY

Gains in factual knowledge—This study of the community developed widening concepts thru the extension and interpretation of the children's experiences. The children gained much of their knowledge thru actual experience, which is basic to all thinking. Excursions were used to supply most of the needed information. On these trips the children received training in what to observe and how to observe. This firsthand experience was supplemented by information gained from pictures and stories found in library books.

The project helped the child to know his community—the things it does for him and how it does them. He gained an appreciation of the work of others in contributing to his welfare, safety, and enjoyment. He gained an acquaintance with the sources of raw materials. He learned how food and clothing are produced and supplied to the community. Thus he made a beginning in understanding the social environment in which he lives—its character, needs, and problems.

Growth in basic skills—The study also afforded many opportunities for practice in the tool subjects. There was much purposive reading for information to bring before the class. A desire to read stories aloud for the enjoyment of the group led to improvement in oral reading. Improved reading ability was evident when the class was given the Gates word, sentence, and paragraph comprehension tests at the conclusion of the study.

Thruout the unit abundant opportunity was given for the building of good language habits. The children were encouraged to speak in complete sentences. They took part in informal group discussions. There was a marked gain in their ability to make short talks before the group. Dramatic play involving community activities provided additional opportunities for creative oral expression. Both speaking and reading vocabularies were enlarged. The group received much

practice in writing group and individual compositions, riddles, and letters. The following are some of the children's compositions:

A WALK

We went out for a walk.
We looked at the school.
We looked at the churches.
Then we saw the theater.
The man opened the door of the fire station,
and let us see the fire truck.
We saw many other buildings.

THE FIRE DEPARTMENT

We went to see the fire department.
A policeman opened the door,
and let us see the fire truck.
A fireman told us all about the fire truck.
He rang the fire bell.
He showed us how the door opened and closed.
We enjoyed seeing the fire house.

THE GROCERY STORE

All the children in our room
went up town to see the grocery store.
The grocer sells canned foods.
He sells meat, milk, cheese, and butter.
We saw many fruits and vegetables.
The grocer sells bread, buns, and cookies.
He sells candy too.
Mr. Daily gave each of us some candy.

OUR TOWN

We are making a town.
We are making the buildings of pasteboard boxes.
Some of us are making stores.
Helen and Norma are making a school.
Bennie and Emma are making a church.
We are making many more buildings.

OUR CLOTHING STORE

Emma and Bennie made the clothing store.
It is made of a big pasteboard box.
The box is covered with orange paper.
The sign on the store says "Clothing."
The awning is orange and white striped.
It looks very pretty.
Inside the store are dresses.
The dresses are made of paper.
There are coats, sweaters, hats, shoes,
trousers, shirts, and many other things.
Emma and Bennie thought making the store was fun.

PLAYING IN OUR TOWN

We have fun playing in our town.
We played that a house was on fire.
The fire engine came rushing down the street.
There were people in the house that was on fire.
The firemen saved the people.
Then the firemen put out the fire.

We played that people were walking across the street.
A car ran over a man.
The ambulance came down the street in a hurry,
and took him to the hospital.
The man had a broken leg.
The doctor took care of him.
His friends came to visit him in the hospital.
They brought flowers to him.
He was well in a few weeks.

SOME RIDDLES

It is a building.
It has a flag on it.
You mail letters there.
Guess its name.

He is a man.
He rides in a truck.
He puts out fires.
He saves people.
Can you guess who this man is?

It is a building.
Many beds are in it.
Sick people are made well there.
What building is it?

The study made ample provision for individual differences. The work was sufficiently varied and flexible to provide for the diverse abilities possessed by the group. Each child was successful in contributing something to the completed whole. The more capable children had abundant opportunities for developing initiative and creative ability.

Development of attitudes and appreciations—Progressive educators believe that one of the most effective methods of developing desirable attitudes in children is to give them, under careful guidance, firsthand experience with the things toward which the attitudes are to be developed. This was done here by means of the excursions to various community institutions. In addition, appreciation of individual and group effort in achieving a social end was fostered by the children's working together in the building of their own little community. It is to be hoped that the social understandings obtained from these experiences will lead to an appreciation of the benefits which come to the individual thru organized society. The children should realize the contribution that others make to their pleasure and comfort. A sympathetic interest

in all persons whose work contributes to the maintenance and improvement of our social life should be developed. Thru an appreciation of civic institutions there should be built up "a social spirit of mutual goodwill and service which will carry over into community living."⁴ Only the future life of the child, however, will indicate whether these aspects of our teaching have been successful.

Development of desirable habits—It is possible, however, to bring about a definite and relatively rapid improvement in habits which will make for better emotional and social adjustment. Many children are so protected by their parents that they find it difficult to adapt their behavior to a social environment more complex than the one to which they are accustomed in the home. In such children the traits which make for successful adjustment at home are not successful in adjusting them to situations in the school and the larger community. An important function of the school is to bring about a better adjustment to groups and institutions outside the home. Courses in the social studies are designed to change human behavior so that people can live and work together in mutual helpfulness and security. "Training for social and civic responsibility needs to be carried on under conditions which involve actual living, behaving, cooperating, and serving in genuine worthwhile social groups."⁵ In building their miniature community these second-grade children engaged in cooperative activities directed toward the achievement of a common purpose for a common good. They learned to work together in the solution of common problems. Use was made of the sharing motive, for the activities of each child contributed in some measure to the success of the group.

While actual work on the town was going forward, the children's desire and ability to cooperate in the maintenance of acceptable social conditions became increasingly evident. Thru these cooperative activities, desirable social habits were developed. Working together stimulated resourcefulness and initiative, encouraged self-reliance, perseverance, and self-control, and provided opportunities for the exercise of courtesy and thoughtfulness. The feeling that he belonged to the group and that he was contributing his share to its undertakings was an important factor in the emotional and social adjustment of the child. The entire project made use of mental hygiene, for its goal was "to develop children with useful interests, spontaneity, and initiative, and an intellectual curiosity which will stimulate them further to educational efforts."⁶

⁴Storm, Grace E., *op. cit.*, p. 5.

⁵Fancier, Della G., and Crawford, C. C. *Teaching the Social Studies*. Los Angeles, Calif.: C. C. Crawford (University of Southern California), 1932. p. 320.

⁶Sherman, Mandel. *Mental Hygiene and Education*. New York: Longmans, Green and Co., 1934. p. 73.

VITALIZING SEVENTH-GRADE GEOGRAPHY THRU
CLASS JOURNEYS

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ELYRIA, OHIO, is a city of about 26,000 people located eight miles south of Lake Erie and twenty-five miles southwest of Cleveland. Owing to its situation on a branch of the Black River, the city early became the site of various industries and now includes a considerable number of small manufacturing plants. These plants furnish relatively steady employment, and many of the workers have established permanent homes in the community. Conditions are ideal for the development of close relationships between the city's industrial resources and the learning program of the schools.

The industrial life of a community may be studied with special profit by children in the upper elementary or junior high-school grades. Such children are undergoing marked physical, mental, and emotional changes. They need experiences which will appeal to their expanding interests and satisfy their desire for adventurous activity. They should be brought face to face with situations which will stimulate their thinking. They need to realize more fully their dependence upon the world outside the school, to adjust their thinking to actual conditions in the community, and to consider the possibilities for improving those conditions. To help attain these objectives, the writer has undertaken a program of class journeys to local industrial plants as a part of her teaching in seventh-grade geography. While these journeys touch only one phase of community life, it is believed that they contribute significantly to pupil growth and that the procedures used may have suggestive value for other teachers and principals.

Organizing the journeys—Soon after the start of school in the fall, a list of the local industries and their products is made and discussed in class. This list and the class discussion acquaint the pupils with the names and general character of many local manufacturing plants of which they have had little or no previous knowledge. The discussion also arouses in the child a few associations which stimulate a desire to learn more about certain industries. For example, one child may wish to visit the factory in which his father is employed, while another may wish to see a particular product in its various stages of manufacture.

Each child makes a first and second choice of the industries that he would like to visit and observe. These choices are compiled, and a group of not more than five children makes the journey to any one plant. If more than that number choose the same industry, all but five are asked to transfer to their second choice.

It has been the experience of the writer that not more than five children should be taken thru an industrial plant by one guide. This number enables the children to make closer observations in many situations and to hear better the explanatory remarks of the factory guide. It also reduces the accident hazard which is present with a large group. Factory managers are quite willing to aid a small group but as a rule they have not developed technics for handling large groups in their factories, which were built primarily to meet production needs rather than educational or demonstrational needs.

Getting ready for a trip—Before an excursion is taken, the industry to be visited is studied. As much information as possible is gained from books. The class then decides what it would like to learn about the local plant that is most representative of the industry as a whole. These points occasionally vary, but usually the children decide on the following:

1. History of the plant
2. Reasons for locating it in Elyria
3. Size of the factory (floor space covered and acreage owned)
4. Number of employees
5. Kinds of raw materials used
6. Sources of raw materials
7. Kinds of transportation used to get the raw materials to Elyria
8. Details of the process used in making the product
9. Capacity of the plant
10. Location of the market for the finished product
11. Kinds of transportation used to send the finished product to the market
12. Location of the nearest plant affording competition.

At the beginning of the children's study of the industry, the writer telephones a factory official to find out whether a trip thru his plant is permissible and when it can be taken. Permission was received last year for thirty-six such trips. Only one official refused, and he did so because his plant was not safe enough to warrant such a visit. In some cases the trips were postponed because of labor trouble or repair work, but in all other cases the factory men welcomed the opportunity to show the children their contributions to modern industrial civilization.

In order to help the factory guide, the twelve items listed above are sent to the official with whom the arrangement for the excursion has been made. This list shows him clearly that the children will want definite information and provides an incentive for expert guidance during the trip. The children are naturally pleased that the guide is so gracious as to give them this information, and the trip thus becomes a valuable lesson for them on how to give courteous and efficient service to visitors.

Activities following the trip—During the visit at the factory the children take notes, and at the next class meeting each child tells the class the things he has learned from the journey. Each one then writes

a statement of his personal observations and gives it to the chairman of the group, whose duty is to compile all such statements in one report. This report is kept in a notebook for further reference. The children also write letters of thanks to the factory official who arranged for the visit, and the best letter is selected and sent to him. One such letter brought the following reply from an official who evidently appreciated the value of such a project in the school:

December 13, 1937

Miss Jennie Furney
Ely School
Elyria, Ohio

Dear Miss Furney:

I received your most interesting letter of appreciation for the little trip through our plant.

Please be advised that I am always interested in the welfare of youth today, and if at any time I can be of additional service to you and your classmates, please feel at liberty to call on me.

Very truly yours,

CARL L. KOHLER

Coordinator of Vocational Education

In addition, a member of the class has an interview with a reporter from the local newspaper, and the latter publishes many interesting articles about the excursions taken.

Important outcomes—While it is difficult to measure the results of such activities, there can be little doubt that the child profits in many ways from these journeys. He now has an immediate reason for learning to take notes. He does not hesitate to talk to his class because he has something to say which the other children want to hear. The letters expressing his thanks to factory officials are written to meet the demands of a real-life situation, and he tries to make them as good as he can. He is anxious also to write his class reports correctly and interestingly, for he knows that someone will use them for future reference.

In the field of geography, the child's experiences on these trips are an invaluable supplement to the information available in books. They help to fix in his mind the sources of raw materials and to show him how much his city depends on other regions for these materials. He observes that the machine is almost human and that it takes the place of many men. He learns that not only the United States but many places all over the world are dependent on Elyria for the products made here. Thus he comes to realize how important these industries are to his city. He walks by the factories with a feeling of pride that they are located here, rather than with a desire to destroy their property. The tired father and brother who work in them are more appreciated in the home. Finally, these journeys may eventually help the child to determine the work he wants to pursue when he becomes an adult.

A FOURTH-GRADE EXCURSION TO ANOTHER CITY

DALE ROBERTSON¹*Principal, Franklin School, Fort Wayne, Indiana*

ONE MORNING in February 1938 a fourth-grade class in the Franklin School was engrossed in an informal history lesson. The children were reading in an attempt to understand the classic beauty of the ancient Greek architecture. Suddenly Frank asked, "What do they mean by a porch whose roof is supported by statues of maidens?"

The group was familiar with the usual forms of Greek columns, but until that moment no mention had been made of the porch of the maidens at the Erechtheum. The teacher's attempt to explain how the statues were used and even a sketch on the blackboard left uncertainty on a number of the children's faces.

"If ever you visit the Field Museum in Chicago, you will see a porch like that," they were told. "If we were only nearer, we'd go to see what they're really like. There are so many things in the museum that would help us."

Then it happened. With an enthusiasm born of long experience in local excursions Helen exclaimed, "Let's go!"

The whole class was startled and even a bit discouraged. The teacher attempted to dismiss the idea with a laugh and the comment, "It's just too far." Then the voice of the class rose with a persistency that could not be ignored. In it could be recognized a group spirit which had never before shown itself so forcibly. It seemed cruel to stifle such a spirit, but the teacher's judgment found negative answers for most of the children's suggestions.

As the youngsters reluctantly passed to their next class, they exacted a promise. "If our mothers don't think it's a foolish idea, will you consider it?" they asked. With that provision it was easy for the teacher to answer, "Yes."

That afternoon the teacher was amazed to learn that many of the mothers were interested in the suggested trip. In fact, so many of them shared their children's views that serious consideration of the matter was necessary. The teacher's attitude was still somewhat skeptical. She believed that such a trip could be made, but realized that many obstacles were in the way. The financing of such a project would be a major problem, and extraordinary precautions for safety would be essential.

Obtaining official sanction for the trip—Next day the class brought

¹ Assisted by the following teachers: Mildred Ayers, Mabel Fry, Margaret Leasure, Lois Parrot, and Marion Robinette.

in pictures and books about Chicago and were eager to discuss the things they might see there. At the teacher's suggestion, however, they decided that their first problem was to obtain official permission to continue their plans. A second group of fourth-graders were told of the proposed trip and they asked to be included. Together the sixty-five children selected a committee to present the idea to the school principal for his opinion. The others waited in great suspense for the committee's return. When the principal approved the proposal, the committee members forgot everything else and cheered as they rushed to tell the group the encouraging news.

With the principal's approval as an incentive, the children discussed the possibilities of the trip. They felt that they needed reasonably clear plans to tell the superintendent of schools when they asked his permission. A class trip to the branch library, talks with parents and friends who had visited Chicago, and articles in newspapers and magazines suggested many places that would be worth visiting. As some of the other teachers had lived in Chicago, they were able to help the children narrow the scope of their plans to those places which could be seen in a day. A father who was a railroad brakeman sent train schedules, and these were used in determining the amount of time which could be spent in the city.

With this bare outline of ideas, a committee of eight efficient talkers was chosen to visit the school superintendent. Another group of children, selected after imaginary telephone conversations in the room, phoned the superintendent's office for an appointment. When the latter had been arranged, the members of the visiting committee were taken to the administration office and were in conference there for nearly thirty minutes. At length the door was opened and eight decorous children shook the superintendent's hand gratefully. Only their sparkling eyes betrayed their emotion. They hurried back to the waiting classes, made their report, answered questions, and delivered the superintendent's good wishes and practical suggestions.

Later, by means of a "play" telegram, a third fourth-grade class was invited to join in the project. This class visited the Western Union office and wired its acceptance. With three classes and five teachers participating in the project, it became a truly cooperative enterprise.

Preparatory activities—Almost every parent was anxious to ask questions or make suggestions concerning the trip. Even the most skeptical were eager for detailed information about it. Consequently, an afternoon meeting was arranged at which the five teachers in charge met the mothers to explain and discuss the plans. The teachers pointed out that the children were already devoting almost all their school time

to preparations for the excursion. Not only were the youngsters benefiting from functional language activities such as discussing group plans, making committee reports, carrying on telephone conversations, conducting interviews, writing letters of inquiry, and preparing written records, but all the school subjects were being utilized to make the trip as successful as possible. Reading of every kind was indispensable. The children read books, pamphlets, newspapers, magazine articles, encyclopedias, telephone books, dictionaries, timetables, calendars, menus, poems, music, letters—everything they could find that pertained to their project. Arithmetic was used frequently to answer pertinent questions involving number. Creative art work contributed in many ways. The class illustrated charts, word lists, and other written or printed material placed on the bulletin boards. Imaginative pictures were drawn, showing how the children thought they would look as they made their excursion by train and bus. Scenery and paper costumes were created for a play (to obtain part of the money for the trip), and cover designs were made for the program of the play. Songs about trains and traveling were collected and learned. These were not nearly so popular, however, as the songs which the children wrote themselves. Among the latter was an "engine song" composed by the IVB classes and used with appropriate sound effects and rhythmical motions. The children were often seen trying to improve on these rhythms at recess time without any urging on the teacher's part.

The teachers made no formal lesson plans during this project, but they read extensively to enrich their own backgrounds and to anticipate the problems that the children would meet. They hoped in this way to be better able to guide the children's activities, to foster accurate learning, and to help the children make wise decisions as their plans progressed. In addition, the teachers took special care to make the entire project contribute to an understanding of the subjectmatter specified for the fourth grade by the local courses of study in geography, history, and science. Plans were made to visit only those institutions and exhibits in Chicago which would vitalize and enrich the regular work in these fields.

As the project developed, the word "tentative" became an important addition to the children's vocabulary. Many times their plans had to be revised in the light of new knowledge or changed conditions. For example, when daylight saving time went into effect in the spring, their carefully planned schedule for the day in Chicago had to be modified. Out came the timetables, letters, and other sources of information needed. Thus the children learned that material must be collected carefully and checked thoroly before any conclusions are drawn.

What a pleasure it was to see the group assume responsibility for the accuracy of its findings and the soundness of its decisions.

The railroad timetables were useful not only in determining the total traveling time, but also in computing the speed of the train and the number of miles between various cities and towns. One group of children made a decorative border according to scale, showing the communities along the route and the distances between them. As the timetable did not give the mileage in the exact form desired, it was necessary to solve subtraction problems like this one:

Chicago to Fort Wayne.....	148 miles
Chicago to Warsaw.....	109 miles
Fort Wayne to Warsaw.....	39 miles

On the morning of the trip the border was placed along one side of the coach so the children could note their progress on it as the train moved along.

The children were anxious to plan their time well and to make all the necessary arrangements for each phase of the trip. There were serious discussions of proper food selection and of sensible, healthful habits to insure their being physically fit for the long day of exertion. The children considered and adopted rules for courteous and safe conduct in cars, trains, buses, restaurants, and public buildings. They decided on proper and comfortable types of clothing to be worn. A group budget was developed, and the rule was made that no child should carry money or buy anything while on the trip. No child was to eat except at the designated times, and then the menu was to be limited to certain foods. In the realm of subjectmatter, the teachers tried to give the children an enriched background for enjoying and understanding the things to be seen on the trip.

The written consent of both parents had to be obtained before a child's name could be added to the list of those who would make the trip. Following is the form used for this purpose:

We understand the arrangements for taking the fourth-grade group of Franklin School children to Chicago. We believe that necessary precautions and plans for the children's care have been made. We feel that reasonable vigilance in the care and supervision of the children during the trip will be exercised. Beyond this we will not hold the school or those supervising the trip responsible.

We hereby give our consent for our child, _____, to go on the trip to Chicago, April 29, 1938. (He) will have \$3.00 to cover all expenses.
(She)

Mother.....
Father.....

It was necessary to convince a few parents that their children were capable of benefiting from the excursion experience. In such cases a

special point was made of asking the parents for their suggestions, and those which seemed suitable and practicable were incorporated in the plans for the journey.

Financing the trip—As is always the case when a trip is contemplated, two of the most important questions were "Where will we get the money?" and "How much will we need?" The children were sure they could earn and save enough. They immediately made a budget estimate and felt reasonably certain that \$3 per child would cover necessary expenses. The final plan of expenditure for each child was as follows:

Railroad fare	\$2.25
Bus fare	.25
Noon lunch	.15
Evening dinner	.35
Total	<u>\$3.00</u>

The fifteen-cent lunch, consisting of a hot dish and an ice cream cone, was to be supplemented with sandwiches prepared by a group of mothers at the school the day before the trip.

How did the children get the money? This is how Carol got hers:

Errands	\$.40
Washing dishes	1.00
Making beds	.50
Dusting	.10
Gifts	.25
Taking care of baby	.20
Cleaning up yard	.45
Sweeping the walk	.10
Total	<u>\$3.00</u>

Each child recorded his earnings and savings on a small card kept in his arithmetic book. A fine spirit of cooperation was noticed in the homes. One mother said, "I certainly like the idea; there are smiles now when I mention doing dishes." As the day of the trip drew near, some children who had been unable to save the entire \$3 withdrew enough from their school savings accounts to make up the difference. Funds procured by the production of a school play were used to aid those who could not obtain the required amount in any other way.

On paying his money into the "Chicago fund" each child was issued a receipt. The money was deposited in a checking account and thus the children learned the proper way of handling this type of account.

On the day before the trip, at the beginning of his arithmetic class, a IVA boy announced, "I have figured out the amount of the check for railroad fares." Several children immediately seized pencils to

verify his figures. The remainder of the period was spent in working out the following financial statement:

EXPENSES OF THE WHOLE GROUP

1. Railroad fare:

Each child.....	\$2.25	Each adult.....	\$4.50		
No. going.....	×71	No. going.....	×11		
	<u>225</u>		<u>450</u>	\$159.75	
	1575		450	49.50	
	<u>\$159.75</u>		<u>\$49.50</u>	\$209.25	\$209.25

2. Bus fare:

Each person.....	\$25				
No. of persons.....	×82				
	<u>50</u>				
	200				
	<u>\$20.50</u>				\$ 20.50

3. Lunch:

Each person.....	\$15				
No. of persons.....	×82				
	<u>30</u>		\$12.30	\$12.30	
	120	Sales tax.....	×.03	.37	
	<u>\$12.30</u>		<u>\$3690</u>	\$12.67	\$ 12.67

4. Dinner:

Each person.....	\$35				
No. of persons.....	×82				
	<u>70</u>		\$28.70	\$28.70	
	280	Sales tax.....	×.03	.86	
	<u>\$28.70</u>		<u>\$8610</u>	\$29.56	\$ 29.56

Total.....\$271.98

The trip to Chicago—Finally, after more than two months of preparation, the principal, five teachers, four selected parents, a trained nurse, and seventy-one children were ready to make the excursion. Each adult leader was assigned from five to seven children who were to remain under his supervision during the entire trip. Arrangements had been made with other parents for taking the children to and from the railroad station in Fort Wayne.

At 5:45 o'clock on the morning of April 29 the entire group assembled in the waiting room of the railroad station. An adhesive-tape label, bearing his name, address, and phone number, was securely fastened on each child's chest. Colorful paper badges also identified each child. The adult leaders wore red ribbons for identification.

Many parents escorted the group to the special car on the elevated platform. Everyone found a comfortable seat and settled down for the journey. Soon the car was coupled to the thru train, and with a swell of song the children waved a glad goodbye. For at least half of the group this was the first railroad experience.

Following is the schedule for the entire day:

5:45 A.M. (C.S.T.)	Met at Pennsylvania Station in Fort Wayne.
6:05 (C.S.T.)	Left for Chicago.
9:35 (D.S.T.)	Arrived at Union Station in Chicago.
9:35	Made tour of inspection thru train and depot.
9:55	Boarded double-decked, streamlined bus for trip thru downtown Chicago and Grant Park.
10:30	Arrived at Adler Planetarium for lecture.
11:30	Visited rest rooms and then walked to Field Museum of Natural History.
12:00	Lunched at Children's Cafeteria in the Field Museum; visited rest rooms.
1:00 P.M.	Made tours of Field Museum, visiting exhibits of prehistoric men, Egyptians, American Indians, Etruscans, and Greeks.
3:00	Walked to Shedd Aquarium; visited rest rooms.
3:30	Inspected aquariums.
4:30	Went by bus to Union Station.
5:00	Had supper in the "Jungle Room" at the Harvey restaurant in Union Station.
5:45	Inspected the "Denver Zephyr" and the "Abraham Lincoln," streamlined trains.
6:00 (D.S.T.)	Boarded the "Rainbow" for trip back to Fort Wayne.
7:56 (C.S.T.)	Arrived in Fort Wayne.

The excursionists were well repaid for their careful preparations. The trains, chartered bus, lecturers, guides, and meals followed the class schedule closely. The children returned weary but greatly enlightened by the day's experiences. Theirs was the joy of a wonderful dream fulfilled and the satisfaction of a job well done.

Conclusion—During the year that has passed since the excursion was made, the teachers and parents have seen countless evidences of its value in enriching the children's lives. Whether such a project would be equally successful in other schools and communities is a question which the readers of this account must decide for themselves. For those who may wish to undertake similar excursions, the writer would emphasize certain factors which he believes were largely responsible for the results obtained by the Franklin School.

First, the children had already had considerable experience in taking local field trips under competent teacher supervision. Such a background, the writer believes, is essential if a journey to another city is to be anything more than a pleasure jaunt. Second, the children and teachers spent many weeks in preparing for this particular excursion. Thru their reading, language, art, arithmetic, science, and social studies

the children were led to visualize and anticipate every phase of the trip. They knew in advance what things they would see and learn and how these things would contribute to their understanding of subjects studied in the school. Third, parents were acquainted with the purposes and significance of the trip, and earnest efforts were made to enlist their support. No school should undertake such a project without the approval of a large majority of the parents, and no child should be taken on the trip without the written consent of his parents. Fourth, the teachers who directed the project gave it a great deal more time and energy than would have been required by their regular work alone. An excursion of this kind should not be attempted unless the teaching staff is willing to work overtime to make it a success.

There were two special problems whose solution was essential to the success of the project. One was to keep the whole thing from going stale during the long period of preparation. The other was to keep the nervous tension of the children from becoming excessive. The first problem was solved by using a wide variety of interesting approaches to the excursion. The second was considered more difficult and the writer was prepared to criticize the project on that account, but he had no opportunity to do so. So skilfully did the teachers direct the children's energies into constructive channels that the result was more and better work than before without any apparent physical harm to the children.

If care is taken to establish the conditions and avoid the dangers mentioned above, any school within a few hours' distance of a large city should be able to conduct such an excursion with great profit and satisfaction to all concerned.

STUDY trips are an excellent means of arousing and encouraging intellectual curiosity and a scientific attitude on the part of children. By means of these they can study the community, watch other people at various kinds of work, find the answers to their own questions, and then come back to school where meanings are further clarified by discussions, pictures, books, experimentation, construction, and dramatic play.—Morris, Nelle, in *Childhood Education*, April 1939, p. 349.

CONTRIBUTIONS OF PARENTS TO CURRICULUM
ENRICHMENT

ELIZABETH THOMPSON NEWELL

Principal, Osgood School, Medford, Massachusetts

PARENTS as well as teachers have important contributions to make to the education of children in school. The well-trained teacher contributes thru her understanding of child psychology, her skill in determining the needs of individual children, her knowledge of appropriate subjectmatter, and her use of effective methods for fostering pupil growth. The parent is not directly concerned with these matters as applied to classroom teaching, altho it is well for him to have some acquaintance with them. His potential contributions to the work of the school lie primarily in helping the teacher to set up or utilize certain kinds of learning situations and in supplying desired information or illustrative materials that are not otherwise available.

Parents usually have backgrounds quite unlike that of the teacher. Often they or their immediate ancestors have lived in countries other than the United States. They are engaged in various kinds of industrial, business, or professional work, and their experiences and viewpoints differ widely from those found in the schoolroom. Moreover, most fathers and mothers are keenly interested in their children, anxious for them to obtain every possible advantage, and willing to make personal sacrifices for their welfare. Hence, the school that fails to seek and use the active assistance of parents is missing an excellent opportunity to enrich its curriculum. This article tells some of the ways in which the parents of children in the Osgood School have cooperated with the teachers to this end.

Contributing to first-grade activities—Parents of first-grade pupils are especially eager to visit the school and to take an active part in all the units of work planned by the teacher. The first problem with these little people is purely social; they must learn to play, sing, and work together. We have found it necessary to call on the home continually for toys, pets, vegetables, and flowers to make this period of adjustment successful. The teacher thus learns a great deal about the home and the opportunities it has provided for the small boy or girl who has just entered her room. When every toy the child brings has a distinctly educational value, when his pet is well behaved and well cared for, and when the flowers his mother sends are well arranged, the teacher can be quite sure that his home environment is above the average.

A project to which the parents contribute in the early fall is a flower show. Each child brings at least one kind of flower which he can name

correctly, and all the children learn the names of several flowers before the show is over. Another valuable activity is the development of a class market, for which all sorts of fruits and vegetables are obtained from the home. We also have built and operated a toy store with great success; children are always interested in bringing toys and in sharing them with others. Since these three activities depend largely upon the home for their success, they are especially useful in the early part of the first grade. At this level the parents are particularly interested in what their children are doing in school.

In addition, the first-grade children make numerous trips to places of interest. They visit the farm, the greenhouse, and the zoo. Such excursions would be difficult to handle if it were not for the many mothers who are always glad to transport the children and to help supervise them on the trip.

All these experiences provide excellent material for the reading charts which precede the use of books, and they serve as a basis for many other group activities thruout the year. Equally important is the fact that, before the year is over, every parent of a child in Grade I has become a staunch friend and supporter of the school because he has shared in its program of presenting new knowledge to the children.

Cooperating in the preparation of booklists—Early in the year a questionnaire is sent home with each child, asking his mother for the names of his favorite books and stories. In return for this favor the school mimeographs a complete list of these books and sends a copy to each mother during National Book Week as a practical help for her Christmas shopping. The teachers always add at least ten of the latest desirable books to the list supplied by parents. While we find this plan especially interesting and valuable in the first grade, we use it in other grades as well. During National Book Week we also usually have the mothers in to see an exhibition of new books and to hear a talk by a librarian who specializes in children's books. From the first grade on, we try to arouse the parents' interest in their children's reading and to see that books both at school and at home are suited to the maturity level of the individual child. Since the latter is a relatively new practice in schools, it is a very new idea to most parents. If we can show mothers and fathers the advantage of providing *many* books which children can read with pleasure themselves, and a *few* that parents need to read to their children because of the vocabulary, we shall accomplish an exceedingly valuable bit of work.

Helping in a study of housing—One year, in making a study of shelter, we conceived the idea of having each child bring to school a picture of the house in which his grandfather was born. These pictures were used by the teacher to make a border for the blackboard. It was amaz-

ing to see how interested everybody became in this project—teacher, fathers, mothers, and children. As the teacher was artistic in her use of blackboard crayons, the border was not only instructive but very colorful and lovely. England, Ireland, Sweden, Denmark, Germany, and Italy were represented, as well as different sections of our own country. From these pictures it was easy to transfer the children's interest to the homes of people in other lands and other times. Books, pictures, and slides were studied until the class had a rather comprehensive idea of the shelter of man thruout the world.

Guiding a sewing club—Our schools do not provide classes in sewing until pupils reach the junior high school. Since many girls in the sixth grade were eager to learn to sew, we organized a club for that purpose and a mother who was very competent in sewing as well as in handling a group of girls took charge of it. The amount of work they accomplished was a revelation to all of us. These girls will probably always look upon sewing as a pleasant occupation because of this club experience under expert and sympathetic guidance. No classroom teacher could have done a better job than did this mother.

Furnishing material for exhibits—Recently we have held two school exhibits in which the parents had an important part. The first dealt with Holland and was sponsored by the sixth-grade class which had been studying that country. In planning the project the class asked all grades in the elementary school to participate, including the parents as well as teachers and children. As a result, an enormous amount of material was brought from homes in the form of pictures, postcards, utensils, dishes, articles of clothing, etc. Two pupils, a boy and a girl, wore native Dutch costumes provided by a parent. These gaily dressed children acted as ushers and conducted other pupils and parents thru the various parts of the exhibit. The many parents who came to see the assembled materials thoroly appreciated the work that had been done. Their appreciation was undoubtedly increased by the fact that they had shared in the preparation as well as having been invited to visit the finished products.

The second exhibit with which the parents helped was concerned with Colonial life. Here we tried to show all kinds of Colonial hand-work, such as weaving, knitting, spinning, hand sewing, braided mats, hooked rugs, patchwork quilts, and bedspreads. Furniture, dishes, and various implements and utensils were also displayed. The school art department made a study of Colonial furniture so that all types of furniture characteristic of the period might be shown. Many interesting old prints were brought from neighborhood attics and placed before the boys and girls at school. A parent of our city (but not of our own school) gave an interesting talk on "Old Houses of Medford," using

about sixty slides to illustrate the topic. At the end of the exhibit period everyone concerned felt that he had learned a great deal.

Directing vacation activities—Some children, like some adults, are at a loss to know how to use their summer vacations profitably. If the children go to camp or their parents travel and take the youngsters with them, the summer is likely to be well spent, but the children in many homes find very few exciting or educationally valuable moments during the ten-week vacation. To improve this situation, we conceived the idea of helping the home direct the children's vacation activities. We developed a plan which would apply to any child in any home because it gave such a wide choice of things to do. A letter describing the plan was sent to every home in the district before school closed in June. Among the activities recommended were learning to swim, learning to ride a bicycle, sewing, knitting, crocheting, preparing a notebook on books read at the library, basket-making, building bird-houses, and making collections of wild flowers, stones, stamps, shells, or leaves. A competitive exhibit of projects completed during the summer was held in the fall and ribbons were awarded for first, second, and third places by a group of parents and teachers acting as judges. This plan has been used for several years and the results have been most gratifying.

Supplying information for assembly programs—Our parents have also helped in connection with assembly programs. In matters of foreign dress and customs to be represented in plays and folk dances, they have given us much firsthand information. For example, when one class was studying fur-bearing animals of the northern countries, a little girl volunteered the information that her grandfather used to have a sailing vessel and go out hunting seals. The result was that the grandfather came to an assembly one morning and told the children all about catching seals, illustrating his talk with eighty lantern slides. It was an occasion long to be remembered.

We have always tried to make our Christmas assemblies as instructive as possible. Last Christmas we set out to make our program, "Christmas in Other Lands," more realistic than ever before. We went thru our office cards carefully and found that England, Ireland, Italy, Sweden, and Germany were represented by people in our district who could give us stories of Christmas in their native countries as they knew it in childhood. In addition, a parent born in Maine consented to describe her childhood Christmas. We obtained about a hundred colored slides of scenes in the countries represented, and the glee club prepared special music in native language for every country. Vocal music and piano selections were used preceding each speaker and while the slides were being shown. The first slide showed Bethle-

hem at night with the guiding star shining in the sky, as the glee club sang "O Little Town of Bethlehem." The last group of slides consisted of beautiful scenes of the Maine coast and woods, and the concluding picture in this group showed a little old farmhouse covered with snow while the glee club sang "Home, Sweet Home." After the Maine story had been told, the Bethlehem slide was again thrown on the screen and our verse-speaking choir gave Phillips Brooks' well-known poem entitled "Everywhere, Everywhere, Christmas Tonight."

Teachers, parents, and children learned more about Christmas in other lands that morning than any textbook could possibly have told them. Into the woods we went with our pony cart to gather Christmas greens in Ireland. How interested we were in decorating the house there and lighting the blazing fire upon the hearth. And we did not forget to leave the lighted candle in the window when our festivities were over, so that the holy mother and her baby would be sure to stop and bless our house and all therein. In Sweden we put out our sheaf of grain for the birds; in England we went from house to house singing carols; and in Italy we were interested in visiting our friends and eating the many good things provided. None of us will ever forget the Christmas cakes and sweets which the mothers of Germany had prepared for us to eat, but most clearly did we see the people in every German home rising at five o'clock, dressing, and carrying lovely lighted candles as they walked up the hill under the beautiful starlit sky to gather in the village church and sing Christmas music acclaiming the great event of Jesus's birth. On our stage was a beautiful Christmas tree decorated by the children with many ornaments used on the Christmas tree of the speaker when she was a small girl in Germany. The entire program made us feel that we were really one big family, even tho the countries we represented were many miles apart.

A photographer was there to take a picture of the parents taking part. This picture and a full account of the program were published in the local papers. It was one of the most instructive and beautiful assemblies we have ever had, and the parents helped to make it so.

Conclusion—These are only a few of the ways in which our parents have taken an integral part in our school activities. It would require many more pages to describe all that they do. We believe that only as teachers and parents work together do the children of our community receive the greatest benefits, and that such cooperation is of great value to the teachers and parents as well. We all grow in wisdom and true understanding as we serve our community by serving each other.

ENRICHMENT THRU A SYSTEM OF GRADE SPONSORS

ANNIE JOHNSON

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WHAT IS A GRADE SPONSOR? As defined in the Atlanta schools, he (or she) is an adult member of the community who, at the request of the school, assumes responsibility for helping enrich the experiences of children in a particular grade thru his special knowledge of, and interest in, one or more phases of their work.

The idea of having such a sponsor for each grade or homeroom was conceived by the superintendent of schools as a means of bringing about a closer relationship between the outside world and the school. The superintendent was convinced that the public in general must accept more fully its obligation to assist in the education of boys and girls. He felt that the great problem before educators today is to provide a happy, interesting, and constructive environment in which children can develop their maximum usefulness to themselves and to society. This environment obviously cannot be restricted to the school but must include the entire community. The superintendent's idea, therefore, was to find for each group of pupils one person in the community who would take a keen interest in them, help to make outside environmental influences conducive to their best development, carry into the community a clearer notion of what the schools are doing, and bring into the school a better understanding of community resources. At first, the sponsors were chosen from the memberships of civic and other organizations in the city. Later the principals, teachers, and pupils were permitted to select their own sponsors without reference to any factor other than fitness for the work.

In spite of the admitted excellence of this plan, it was not working well at Peeples Street School. Each class had its sponsor, to be sure, but the problem of getting a grade sponsor to *sponsor* had not been solved. Each fall the sponsors accepted their appointments with pleasure and straightway forgot all about the matter. When we reminded them thru invitations to visit us, they usually were too busy at the time to accept. While there were a few pleasant exceptions, we found the majority of these people to be timid and doubtful of their ability to make significant contributions to the work of the school.

The solving of this problem was really quite simple. How does one get any person, young or old, to do anything? One appeals to the person's interests. Our first step was to develop a series of activity units for the various grades so as to have a basis for choosing sponsors intelligently. Then a sponsor for each class was selected who was

intensely interested in the work of that particular group. This article describes briefly the contributions of the fifteen people chosen for various classes from the kindergarten thru Grade VI.

Kindergarten—Since the activity unit for the kindergarten was "The Home," the sponsor for this group had to be a person who loved home and little children. Our homemaker sponsor fulfilled this requirement and was also interested in the study of homes. Whenever she took out-of-town trips during the year, she made it a point to mail her class postcard pictures of lovely homes in other communities. After several excursions the children built a school home and tried to make it lovely like the sponsor's home. On Hallowe'en the sponsor and the mothers were entertained in the school home. In the course of the year the sponsor gave the children two parties in her own home.

First grade—The children of a low first-grade class decided that they wanted to know more about the school. The ward councilman, who is supposed to know everything about the community, including the schools, was asked to serve as sponsor. He laughingly admitted afterward that such sponsorship was a course every politician should take. When he visited the class for the first time, he sat in formal, dignified silence in a grown-up chair quite removed from the group. At the end of the first half-hour he was sitting in the circle in a little chair with a child on each knee, entertaining the children with stories of his own childhood experiences at school. Together with the sponsor, these youngsters made a complete tour of the school from the principal's office to the cafeteria and the furnace room. Later they made a primer of their findings and presented their sponsor with a copy. He was very proud of this book, for on almost every page there was a necessary reference to "our sponsor."

In another low first grade the airplane was the center of interest. The class wanted a sponsor who was a mechanic, because "a mechanic sponsor knows how planes are made." The sponsor arranged for a visit with a guide to show the children over Candler Field, our airport. There they were granted the very special privilege of sitting in a plane. The airplane sponsor saved pictures of the different kinds of planes for "his class," and was ready with suggestions and with answers to their many questions when the children began to build a plane of their own in the schoolroom. He also sent the class several airplane magazines.

The high first-grade group was train-minded and its sponsor was the division passenger agent for the Central of Georgia Railroad. He notified the class when and where to go to see the "Flamingo" pass thru our community. Then he arranged for a trip on the train from Atlanta to a nearby town. A wire was sent to Savannah, Georgia, for an all-

steel, air-conditioned coach for the children to use on this excursion. On the day of the trip the sponsor met the children at the Terminal Station and, together with the superintendent, helped them explore the depot, arranged with the ticket agent to open a special window so that each child might buy his own five-cent ticket, and introduced the children to the conductor and the engineer. The engineer allowed the little passengers to climb into the cab of the engine, ring the bell, and blow the whistle. To cap the climax, the sponsor made the trip with the group and explained many things. Later the children wrote a train play and the sponsor not only attended the performance but brought several of the other railroad officials with him.

When Fred Snite, Jr., the boy in the iron lung, passed thru Atlanta on his way to Miami, these children were notified and went to a vantage point to see the glassed-in coach that was serving as a temporary hospital. They caught a glimpse of the white-capped nurses and the white-coated doctors as the train passed thru the community. Their sponsor himself was on the train. Upon their return to school they sent a card to Miami on which was written a wish that the bright Florida sunshine would make Fred Snite well. Not only did Fred's secretary answer this card, but seven communications were exchanged with him during the year. The pupils learned to write so that they might send letters to this very sick boy. They learned to read so that they might read about him from their charts. Even geography was learned by tracing his journey on the big globe placed upon the rug. From China they crossed the Pacific, landed at San Francisco, and went on to Chicago, Atlanta, and Miami. A passage from their Christmas letter, "Happiness comes from within," was adopted as the class motto. All this time the sponsor was keeping in close touch with the entire activity unit.

As summer drew near and plans were being made for the boy in the iron lung to return to Chicago, the sponsor arranged for the class to meet the train as it stopped on the way north. The children wished to carry flowers, and after much deliberation the magnolia was chosen because it is truly a southern flower. What a coincidence it was that on the train coming to Atlanta the boy had expressed a desire to see a magnolia blossom at close range and to catch its fragrance. Thirty-five eager little boys and girls waited with their teacher, principal, parents, and friends while the train pulled in. Then they climbed happily upon the back platform of the coach and greeted their sick friend as he smiled to them in the mirror. The teacher and principal were taken inside the coach. For half an hour the children visited with the one they had learned to love and admire. One never knows where a train sponsor will take a class.

Second grade—After seeing a reproduction of an Indian village at the Southeastern Fair, the low second grade could talk of nothing but Indians. Our own school has a patron who lived as a little girl on an Indian reservation in South Dakota, where her father ran the trading post. Among her prized possessions are many articles made by the Indians and she brought these to school for the children to enjoy. She not only thrilled the second-graders with true stories of her own childhood, but also told them beautiful Indian legends and taught them about the Indians in such a way as to give them a great respect and admiration for these first Americans.

Play seemed uppermost in the minds of the children in the high second grade, and so they called their activity unit "Living and Growing thru Play." Across the street from the school is a park where they play a great deal. A number of years ago the editor of one of our newspapers gave this park, his former home, to the children of the community. The daughter of this benefactor was chosen as the sponsor for the high second-graders. The park had been her front yard when she was a little girl, and during her visits to the class she told how she had ridden her pony, and how the little girls and boys of the community had formed a dramatic club and given original plays, charging real pennies for admission. She recalled that these plays were often so sad that the little actors and actresses wept over their own performances. Then, since the park was no longer the well-kept place it had been when the sponsor played there, the class joined her in a project to clean and beautify it.

Third grade—The pupils in one of the low third-grade classes had a special fondness for books. They liked to read the school books; they liked to bring their library books from home; they liked to make books. For them there was nothing to do but have a library unit. However, instead of choosing the librarian of the community to be the sponsor, we asked one of our leading ministers to serve in that capacity. The children visited him and learned that the place where he kept his books was called the pastor's study. They also learned that not only preachers but many other grown people keep right on studying. The children used this man's library as a model of what a home library should be. Many of them started a bookshelf of their own at home. The happiest times were those when the sponsor and the children read together in the library corner of the classroom.

Another class of low third-graders were having a hard time making some plants grow. They visited a greenhouse in the community and found an activity unit in the plants and a sponsor in the florist. The sponsor helped them prepare the soil for their indoor garden. She told them what to plant and gave them many beautiful flowers. Many of

the children took their mothers on individual excursions to the greenhouse to discuss ways of beautifying their gardens at home.

The high third grade was given a greater appreciation of beauty thru the problem of how to make the schoolroom prettier. When this problem was solved to the satisfaction of those most vitally concerned, the children decided they would like to build a "house beautiful" in the room. An excursion was made to a lumber company where the little builders saw how many different materials must go into the making of a lovely house. Their guide at the plant became so interested in helping that he was unanimously chosen by the class to act as sponsor. Better still, the guide's wife was president of a civic club which was launching a campaign to make our community more beautiful. Thus these youngsters had not one sponsor but two.

Fourth grade—One day a stray dog wandered into the low fourth-grade room. The owner was never found and the children adopted the dog. The pet seemed indisposed, however, and so the editor of the column "About Dogs" in one of our leading newspapers was called. He not only gave advice over the phone, but came to the school to see the dog and to discuss with the class the care of pets. He even secured the services of a veterinarian, who came to the school and inoculated the neighborhood dogs with the class in charge of the ceremonies. At our pet show and parade, in which the entire school participated but which was sponsored by this class, he was one of the judges. This particular sponsor really belonged to the entire school.

The high fourth grade was working on a unit entitled "Living and Growing thru Games," but was having difficulty because there was very little information on games in the library. However, the children were fortunate in finding just the right sponsor, a retired army officer and polo player who had won many trophies. As an army officer he had lived or traveled in the Hawaiian Islands, the Philippine Islands, Borneo, China, Japan, Korea, Central America, Mexico, and every state in the Union. He knew and loved all sports, and when he came to see the children he was able to answer their rapid fire of questions: What do children of other countries play? Why do they play these games? How did the games originate? Before playing in a polo game in another city he sent the class a card. After he returned home a boy wanted to know if he won. When the sponsor said, "No," the boy replied, "Well, you're a dead game sport. You smiled when you said, 'No.'" A gentleman and a "sport" make a fine sponsor when a group is studying games.

Fifth grade—One hundred percent in Sunday school attendance was the all-absorbing goal of the low fifth grade. In the effort to reach this goal, the church became the center of attention and an enthusiastic

Sunday school worker became the class sponsor. The various churches of the community were visited during regular school hours. The sponsor went with the children on these excursions and at the Catholic church she learned with the children the meaning of the colorful stained-glass windows and the beautiful marble altar.

Since a majority of the children in the high fifth grade were musically inclined, their sponsor was an accomplished musician. She helped them in their study of harmony, melody, and the history of the musical instruments. On special occasions she was the accompanist for their chorus.

Sixth grade—The low sixth-grade children were planning a beautiful outdoor school garden with a fish pond and lily pool. Their sponsor was the landscape gardener of one of the best known seed companies in the South. He went into the yard with the class and discussed with them where to put the pool, what seeds to plant, and when and how to root cuttings. Since there was a wash near the garden, he sent to the school a speaker on soil erosion. The girls and boys visited the seed store where their sponsor was employed. There they bought their garden supplies at a discount and received many packages of seed without charge.

Several children in the high sixth grade had a pronounced talent for art. These inspired the others in the class and an art activity was launched. The art chairman of a civic club in the community heard of the activity and invited the class to an art exhibit at the club and to a lecture by a famous artist. Thus, another grade sponsor was added to enrich the experiences not only of the children, but of their parents as well, for many of the parents went with us on our excursions and participated in our school activities.

Conclusion—While working together and growing together, the children, teachers, sponsors, and parents became so interested that they forgot they were carrying out a new plan having certain objectives to be attained. Later, however, when we checked our outcomes against the superintendent's statement of those objectives, we felt that we had found a way of achieving them. Our sponsors not only approved heartily of the school's newer methods of teaching and told other people about them at every opportunity, but they contributed beyond measure to the enrichment of the children's experiences.

COMMUNITY VACATION SCHOOLS

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THE PUPIL PERSONNEL of the laboratory school at the University of Georgia comes from three separate and widely scattered rural communities in Clarke County, where the university is located, and from the town of Athens. During the regular school year the children from the rural communities are brought to school in buses. The laboratory school closes in June for the summer vacation, and nearly four months intervene with no contacts between the school and the home. When the university operates a summer demonstration school, very few children come from the rural communities. The summer school enrolment consists of children from Athens and children of students attending the university, the latter constituting a new group every summer.

Until recently the children in the rural communities have had few interesting experiences during the summer. They have had little or no access to books, no trips to take except an occasional one on Sunday afternoon, and no apparent interest in, or incentive for, exploring and utilizing the immediate environment. The laboratory school itself has made little effort to carry its health program thru the summer, to foster recreational and developmental reading thru the long summer months, to provide interesting and worthwhile experiences during the warm days, to supply remedial work for those who need it, or to work with parents in building better communities.

During the summer of 1938 the university planned to correct this deficiency in part by operating community vacation schools. The schools were staffed by regular members of the laboratory school faculty and by the girls majoring in elementary education who were doing practice teaching during the summer.

Purposes of the vacation schools—The purposes of these community vacation schools were as follows:

1. To develop closer working relationships between the school and the home
2. To cooperate with the department of public health in continuing the individual health program, the general sanitation program, the control of typhoid fever and malaria, the round-up of preschool children, and a safety program for youth and adults during the summer months
3. To familiarize the child with his immediate natural environment in an effort to make his own community a more healthful and attractive place thru conservation of community resources and home improvement
4. To foster vocations and avocations of children in the form of gardens, livestock, home beautification by planting lawns and shrubs, screening windows, cleaning up woodpiles, storing farm implements under shelter instead of leaving them scattered in the open, sewing, woodwork, pottery, etc.

5. To promote a program of recreational reading for children and adults
6. To enrich the lives of children by taking them to interesting places nearby
7. To give individual instruction to those children needing help in the tool subjects
8. To include a program of parent education, working directly with home demonstration clubs and Four-H clubs by having a library shelf with books for mothers, socials at school for mothers and fathers with singing and games, and other group meetings
9. To work toward the establishment of a permanent community house where the school can broaden its program by enriching the lives of parents and children thruout the year.

Buildings, materials, and equipment—At one of the regular parent-teacher meetings during the year, vacation activities were discussed with the parents. The idea of a vacation school in each community was presented to them. The parents received the idea with enthusiasm and made many helpful suggestions. A precinct meetinghouse, an abandoned schoolhouse, and a dwelling house owned by one of the patrons were offered as places where the schools could be held in the three rural communities.

A week before the vacation schools opened, the supervisors and student teachers made a general survey of each community and a survey of the home conditions of each child who planned to attend one of the schools. The general survey included such information as the active organizations in the community, the occupations of the patrons, the socio-economic status of the patrons, health status, facilities for maintaining good health, recreational facilities, and library facilities. The survey of the home conditions of each child included such information as the food and water supply, sanitation, education and recreation of the parents, general appearance of the home, life in the home, and economic conditions.

When the schools opened, the first problem confronting teachers and children alike was that of turning the schools into livable places. The precinct meetinghouse had been used between infrequent court sessions as a storage place for the community. Piles of wood, curtain stretchers, and lime were intermixed with the dilapidated table and stiff, unpainted benches. The dwelling house was absolutely bare and in need of a thoro cleaning.

Three days of hard work wrought a transformation. The houses were scoured and scrubbed. Hardware and grocery stores were canvassed for empty nail kegs and wooden boxes. From these boxes, chairs and bookcases were made and painted. Boys and girls sewed on cushions and curtains. Mothers contributed tables and pieces of linoleum for floor coverings. Books were borrowed from the Athens public library. Books, paper, crayons, and paints came from the laboratory school. Large, round hat boxes from men's clothing stores made attractive and

useful wastebaskets when painted. Bulletins and posters on flies, mosquitoes, and other insects were borrowed from the material bureau at the laboratory school. Scrap lumber, cardboard, and clay were plentiful in each community. Water coolers, pitchers, and pans were contributed by interested patrons.

Experiences in healthful living—The community and individual home surveys were starting points in the health program. The public health officer for the county tested the water supply in each community and inoculated children, teachers, and parents against typhoid fever.

Sanitation around the schools was emphasized. The children washed their hands before lunch and after going to the toilet. For this purpose a pan, a pitcher of water, and powdered soap were used. One child poured water, another sprinkled the soap, and a third poured rinsing water. Each child had his own towel and drinking glass, keeping the latter covered with wax paper held on by a rubber band. The cooler, pans, and pitchers were cleaned and filled daily. Other good health habits, such as brushing the teeth, keeping the hair, nails, body, and clothing clean, keeping food clean and lunches well wrapped, eating food slowly amid pleasant surroundings, and resting after eating or strenuous exercise, were practiced daily. The children were taught the value of keeping all wounds clean and as sterile as possible. Sores that developed from insect bites and scratches were cleaned and dressed every morning.

Home improvement was studied, especially the necessity for screening kitchens and building better toilets. Emphasis was placed also on cleaning up barnyards and outhouses and destroying the breeding places of flies and mosquitoes.

Nature study—The environment of each school was very conducive to nature study, and the children were encouraged to bring leaves, insects, rocks, plants, soil, and animals to school for further investigation. The following is a list of interests which came up from day to day among the thirty-six children at one of the schools:

1. The grove of trees in the schoolyard
2. Other trees in the community
3. Leaves collected on hikes, which furnished material for making spatterprints and blueprints
4. Insects for examination under a microscope
5. A collection of rocks
6. A terrarium made of wood plants
7. Jack's alligator, which became "the pet of Shadyside Summer School"
8. Earthworms.

Becoming good citizens—There were innumerable opportunities to prove one's citizenship qualities at the summer vacation schools. Most of the work was done out-of-doors, but the schoolhouses had to be kept

clean for rest periods. The children took turns at cleaning the materials and keeping them in order. The preschool children were among the most regular attendants, and the older children helped to see that they did not walk too far or get overheated or injured. Every child had to take his turn at getting a drink of water, washing his hands, and using the garden and workshop tools.

During the vacation school period the teachers kept notes on the progress of each child. These were summarized at the close and were put in the child's permanent record folder at the laboratory school. Comments on two different children are quoted below:

1. N— is a good all-round sport. All of the children at school liked him, and he and his antics were a constant source of amusement. He worked hard with a great amount of energy in spite of the fact that he looks frail. He made many things and always had his mother and home in mind when he planned his articles. He made a table for his mother's new crocheted tablecloth, a sewing box, a shoe rack, a kitchen-utensil rack, a milking stool, a bird-feeding station, and a basket for his bicycle. The camp was a great experience for him because he had never stayed away from his mother. He and his sister rode a couple of miles on one bicycle every day in order to attend the summer school.

2. M— was one of our preschool children. She is a very attractive little girl and is quite capable of caring for herself. She has a sweet disposition and is eager to do things suggested. She likes particularly to have someone read to her, and we believe that books are going to mean much to her. She has had the preschool examination and apparently is in good condition. She is mentally alert and shows signs of becoming a good student. We think that she is going to be an asset to the first grade next year.

Arts and crafts—From scrap lumber and boxes the children made many useful articles, such as swings, milking stools, pig troughs, cooking-utensil racks, shoe racks, sewing boxes, bookshelves, ladders, and utility tables. The girls learned to knit and to make attractive arrangements of cut flowers. They crocheted, covered sewing boxes, and made aprons, dish towels, and pot holders. Boys as well as girls painted pictures of things around them and of things seen on their hikes and trips to the swimming pool and camp.

Recreational reading—From the books loaned by the public library and the laboratory school, the children had a rather wide choice of attractive, interesting material for leisure reading. Such reading was encouraged by means of story hours, free discussions of books read, book displays, and individual interests growing out of other school activities. Many of the children who had no access to books during previous summers read covetously. Some of the smaller children learned to read their own stories of pets, picnics, camping, and other experiences they had enjoyed.

Practice in basic skills—No attempt was made to place the children who attended the vacation schools in graded sections. There were usually three groups at each school—the preschool group, the primary

group, and the older children. The ages ranged from three to fifteen years. The older children assisted in caring for the very young ones.

There were many occasions to talk about the things they were doing, to write letters, invitations, reports, and stories, to solve problems involving number, and to find needed information on certain subjects. Children very deficient in any of the basic skills were given individual help.

Play and recreation—Playtime and rest-time came every day at school. There were also special days to be planned for and anticipated. Teachers and mothers transported the children in their cars to the American Legion pool one morning each week to swim and play in the water. "Pinetops," the Y.M.C.A. camp near Athens, was rented for one week-end. The parents furnished transportation to the camp in cars and trucks. Teachers and children took Klondike beds and enough food to last thru Sunday. There were hikes, picnic suppers, and opportunities to go swimming, wading, and boat-riding for children who had never camped before. Many of the parents came to the camp for Sunday morning breakfast and devotional exercises. There were hikes to the "Rabbit Hole" and other favorite spots.

Parent-teacher contacts—There was informal visiting on the part of parents and teachers both in homes and at school. Often when a mother passed the school on her way to the community store, she stopped to see what the children were doing. Whenever the school was planning a trip, one of the teachers went to each home to see if the parents would approve of their child's going. Sewing parties were held at the school and in homes, some of which had been pointed out earlier as disorganized, unsocial, and noncooperative.

In one community definite plans were made to remodel the meeting-house so that it could be used as the center for all community activities, including the Four-H club, the home demonstration club, and the parent-teacher association. A committee, consisting of one person selected by the community as a whole and the president of each community organization, was appointed to administer the project. Some of the plans have already materialized. The meetinghouse has a new roof, a new coat of paint both inside and out, and a new stove. The parents have planned to hold all community meetings there next year. Parents and children are anxious to have a longer vacation school next summer. The parents have volunteered more materials to be used in the vacation school and definite assistance in landscaping the grounds around the community house.

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CHAPTER VII

MEASUREMENT AND GUIDANCE IN RELATION TO CURRICULUM ENRICHMENT

EDITORIAL COMMENT

A CURRICULUM is truly enriched only so far as it meets the needs of each individual child. From this point of view the entire school program should be one of individual pupil guidance. This statement does not imply that pupils should not work together in groups or that there should be no specialized guidance service in the school. It means, rather, that every aspect of a child's school experience should be planned, so far as possible, to suit his particular needs, abilities, and interests. Acceptance of this principle is reflected to some degree in every chapter of the yearbook. This chapter gives special attention to ways of making the principle effective.

The importance of thoro study of the child can hardly be overstated. No single method of investigation will serve the purpose. The results of objective tests, altho very useful when properly interpreted, need to be supplemented by many other kinds of information.

It is scarcely more important to discover pupil needs than to determine the success of efforts to meet them. While many of the desired outcomes of curriculum enrichment cannot yet be measured precisely, this fact does not excuse principals and teachers from appraising their programs as best they can.

The first two articles in this chapter deal with methods of discovering the status and needs of children. Stretch describes a program utilizing several such methods, and Lewin discusses the use of objective tests in the guidance of individual pupils. The next three authors review broad programs of enrichment for pupils of widely different needs. Roberts reports the procedures used with gifted pupils in a large city system. W. C. Rogers outlines an experimental curriculum for seriously retarded children. Griffith tells of developing a program for maladjusted children from various grades. In the first of three articles on meeting individual needs in skill subjects, Millard discusses the adaptation of instruction to the child's general level of maturity. Gumlick describes an experimental program for individualizing instruction in reading. Clowes and Robertson show how a remedial program may contribute to enrichment for poor readers. In the closing article J. L. Rogers discusses the appraisal of pupil progress with special reference to curriculum enrichment.

Methods of measurement and guidance are treated further in the references mentioned on page 573.—*Editorial Committee.*

DISCOVERING THE NEEDS AND INTERESTS OF
INDIVIDUAL PUPILS

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AT THE BEGINNING of the school year 1935-36 the public school teachers of Waco, Texas, became interested in a curriculum revision program. Their superintendent, R. H. Brister, made it possible for all the teachers to spend a year in the study of curriculum principles and practices, for which they received credit from a local university. Their study was carried on under the supervision and direction of one of the university professors who had assisted in both city and state curriculum revision programs since 1932.

Point of view—After these teachers had spent a year in studying the most recent principles and practices of curriculum construction, they came to the conclusion that there are certain skills, habits, attitudes, ideals, and information which are fundamental in the education of all children in a democracy. Most of these fundamentals should be developed in part by experiences provided under the guidance and direction of the elementary school. The curriculum, which includes all the experiences which pupils have under school organization and control, should meet both the individual and the social needs of the pupils because education and life are individual and social processes. These needs vary for different pupils, however, because the pupils themselves are not alike. They have not come under the same hereditary and environmental influences. They have not had the same experiences outside the school. They have not had the same opportunities to meet the requirements of individual and group life.

Such variations in the lives and experiences of the pupils necessitate a curriculum having great flexibility—one which is subject to reorganization, readaptation, and revision at all times. The process of continuously reconstructing the curriculum becomes one of the chief functions of the teacher. Yet no teacher can do this who does not know the needs and interests of the pupils. The teacher must know her pupils thoroly before she can guide and direct them wisely.

Technics for discovering individual needs and interests—If the teacher is to possess adequate knowledge of pupil needs and interests she must become a master of certain technics for obtaining information concerning the pupils. The use of only one technic is not sufficient since all pupils do not respond to the same situation in the same way. Moreover, children's personalities are highly complex and should be studied from many angles. There are many methods of study which may be used to advantage by teachers. Those most frequently used by the

teachers of the Waco schools in their continuous reconstruction of the curriculum are observations, questionnaires, interviews, tests, and case studies.

Making observations—These teachers have accepted the principle that the chief aim of education is to develop healthy, wholesome individuals who can adjust and adapt themselves to an ever changing environment. This principle requires that education give due consideration to every side of the child's life, which in turn means that teachers must develop and use the technic of observation. There are no fixed rules for the use of this technic; its application may vary in different schools and with different teachers. The following outline shows in a general way how it is used in the Waco schools:

1. The teacher observes the pupils' use of oral and written language both in school and on the playground, noting and recording their
 - a. Limitations in vocabulary
 - b. Errors in grammar and spelling
 - c. Ease and freedom in conversation
 - d. Ability to write legibly
 - e. Ability to read material suitable to the proper grade level
 - f. Reaction to various types of reading materials.
2. The teacher observes the social relations of the pupils both in school and on the playground, noting and recording their
 - a. Conduct at all times
 - b. Control over self
 - c. Respect for authority
 - d. Obedience to rules and regulations
 - e. Practice of safety principles
 - f. Care of various types of materials
 - g. Consideration of others
 - h. Cooperation in the various group activities.
3. The teacher observes the industrial and prevocational activities of the pupils both in school and on the playground, noting and recording their
 - a. Ability to use a few simple tools and materials such as a saw, hammer, paintbrush, sandpaper, scissors, needle and thread, construction paper, paints, crayolas, design sheets, color charts, yarns, soap, and soft pine for carving
 - b. Conversations which reveal their knowledge of types of clothing suitable for various occasions and for the different seasons, types of food suitable for various purposes, types of soil, and numerous other factors of the environment.
4. The teacher observes the individual development of the pupils both in school and on the playground, noting and recording their
 - a. Health habits as these affect the individual and others about him
 - b. Individuality displayed in all types of behavior patterns
 - c. Character as indicated in manner of expression, in reaction to other pupils, in reaction to teachers, in reaction to buildings and equipment, and in reaction to the schoolgrounds
 - d. Types of music and art which seem to make an appeal and give enjoyment
 - e. Types of recreational activities as indicated by curiosity and exploration

5. The teacher observes the mathematical and scientific abilities of the pupils in school and on the playground, noting and recording their

- a. Ability to use the tools essential in problem-solving
- b. Ability to solve problems as they arise in the environment
- c. Interests and appreciations of a scientific nature
- d. Ability to use, in advantageous ways, the principles and materials of science in the environment
- e. Ability to engage in scientific thinking.

In using this technic the teacher keeps a cumulative record for each pupil. On this record the information obtained thru observation is combined with that obtained by other technics and is used as one of the bases for curriculum development.

Using questionnaires—The questionnaires used by the teachers in Waco are usually in the form of letters to parents and other people in business, industry, and the professions. Since individuals who follow vocations of these types are not inclined to devote a great amount of time to answering such inquiries, the questions asked are few in number and call for brief answers. In general they are based on the nine subjectmatter divisions or fields of study which the state of Texas has outlined in its program of curriculum revision. Here is a copy of a questionnaire sent to parents concerning children's needs in the language arts:

Your boy (or girl) is now studying the language arts (reading, literature, language, grammar, composition, writing, spelling) in the public schools. The teachers desire that his study be effective and meet his needs. They are convinced that the effectiveness of any school program is dependent on cooperation of the parents with the school. You will help both pupils and teachers by writing your reactions to the following questions:

1. Does your boy (or girl) spend any time in reading at home? If so, does he read newspapers, magazines, or books?
2. What type or types of literature does he seem to enjoy most?
3. Would you like for him to spend more time in reading? If so, what kind of material?
4. Does he read as well orally as you think a person should?
5. Does he take part in the conversations and discussions at home? If so, does he have difficulty in constructing sentences? In using correct grammatical constructions?
6. Is he able to ask and to answer questions which are direct and specific?
7. Do you think he needs study in the fundamentals of grammar? How much grammar do you think a pupil should know when he finishes the sixth grade?
8. Does he engage in any type of letter-writing activity? If so, are his letters free from misspelled words? Are such letters well written? Are they properly punctuated?
9. Is his handwriting legible?
10. Does he write as well as you think a child of this grade should write?
11. How long would you like for him to practice handwriting under teacher guidance?
12. How long would you like for him to study spelling under teacher guidance?

The questionnaires on all the other subjectmatter fields are constructed in much the same way as that on the language arts. The teachers make a careful analysis of each questionnaire returned and use the information obtained as another means of determining the needs and interests of the pupil.

Conducting interviews—In this school system interviews are held between the teacher and individual pupils and between the teacher and individual parents. The data secured from such conferences seem to be highly subjective. Yet they are helpful in discovering the pupils' curriculum needs and interests provided the teacher keeps accurate reports of the meetings and uses these reports to supplement the data collected by means of other technics.

All interviews are strictly informal. The teacher discusses with each pupil of her homeroom his likes, dislikes, difficulties, desires, vocational choices, and the likelihood of his being able to carry out his vocational choices. She inquires concerning the probable length of his stay in school. She also obtains from him some information about the activities in which he engages outside the school.

The teacher interviews the parents concerning their desires for their children, their hopes and purposes relative to the education of their children, the difficulties which their children seem to have in school, and their views as to the nature and function of the various studies now being pursued by their children. She also attempts to learn the parents' views concerning the function of the elementary school as a whole. She wishes to know to what extent they think the school should help their children to acquire a command and an appreciation of language, to develop habits of social adaptation and good citizenship, to lay a foundation for success in the home and in a vocation, to engage in scientific thinking, and to attain other goals of individual development.

Using objective tests—Well-constructed tests of ability and of educational achievement are likewise of great value in determining the curriculum needs of individual children. In Waco the teacher usually finds an intelligence test score for each pupil on record in the principal's office. If she desires to know more about the pupil's abilities than this score tells, she gives him another intelligence test herself and studies closely the responses which he makes to the individual test items. In this way she learns much concerning those types of activities in which the pupil is weak and those types in which he excels. If these test results indicate that he is seriously deficient in one or more important aspects of intelligence, the teacher makes an even more detailed study of his case.

The educational tests used by the teachers of this system include informal pre-tests and both informal and formal achievement and diagnostic tests. The pre-tests are given before the pupils take up new units of work. Their purpose is to discover how much the pupils already know about the topic to be studied so that the teacher can guide them more wisely and effectively in their work. The results of such tests indicate the nature and amount of supplementary materials needed, the provisions which should be made for individual differences, the backgrounds which the pupils already possess, and their readiness for beginning the study of the units or topics in question. Much time is thus saved for both teacher and pupils because they can pass over material which is already known and concentrate on that which needs to be learned. The conclusions which the teacher reaches thru a careful study of pre-test results constitute the basis for much curriculum planning.

The teacher administers objective achievement tests to the pupils so that she may discover as accurately as possible the results of their work in the different subjects of study. Pupil performance on these tests is carefully considered in relation to the curriculum materials and activities in the different grades. In this way the teacher is able to estimate the relative difficulty of the various units or parts of the curriculum and to check their grade placement. The test results also assist the teacher in providing adequate time allotments for the various units of work.

The teacher is concerned with the attainment of all pupils in every phase of each subject. She desires to know the extent to which they have mastered the skills, habits, and information outlined for each unit of work. She therefore uses the most reliable and valid diagnostic tests available to discover the attainments of pupils in specific areas of learning. In the light of these test results, she determines the needs of each pupil and then reconstructs the units of work to meet those needs. She also develops remedial teaching measures to eliminate or reduce the difficulties of individual pupils and to prevent the recurrence of such difficulties.

Making case studies—The case-study technic is probably the one most widely used by Waco teachers. It has the advantage of being more thoro than any of the others; in fact, it usually involves the use of several or all of the technics already discussed. When a pupil responds to any school situation in such a manner as to indicate that the methods and materials of the curriculum are not entirely suited to him, the teachers consider it their responsibility to learn the specific cause or causes of the maladjustment. In making a case study of the

pupil they use every available means to discover why he has failed to profit as he should from the curriculum provided for him.

Very few pupils are poorly adjusted in all phases of their school-work. Frequently, however, a pupil is found who does well in some fields and poorly in others, and occasionally a pupil does well in all fields of instruction except one. The case-study method is then used to reveal the pupil's specific weaknesses and needs.

To illustrate, let us consider a pupil of normal intelligence, or above, who is doing acceptable work in all subjects except arithmetic. The teacher is concerned about his arithmetic needs and interests. She desires to know the reason for his difficulty in this field so as to eliminate it if possible. The first thing she does is to obtain a general measure of the pupil's ability in arithmetic. She may do this by means of objective tests, either informal or standardized. Probably it is better to use good standardized tests rather than informal tests for this purpose because the former are more carefully constructed with respect to validity, reliability, and objectivity. The specific nature of the tests chosen should be determined by the classification of the pupil and somewhat by the difficulties he seems to be having in arithmetic.

When the teacher has made a careful analysis of the general test results, she begins to collect information about the pupil thru conferences with his former teachers, thru an analysis of his school records, thru a study of his behavior, and thru a study of the results of informal or other diagnostic tests. Thru the conferences with the pupil's former teachers she attempts to obtain information about his study habits; about his attitudes toward the different subjects of study, toward schoolwork in general, toward other pupils, and toward teachers; and about his difficulties in school. She also makes an effort to learn something of the pupil's interests and extracurricular activities as observed by his former teachers.

The teacher then turns to the school records. From these she learns the intelligence rating of the pupil and the progress he has made in school year by year. These records should also furnish information concerning the chronological age, general health, specific illnesses, height, and weight of the pupil at certain stated intervals in his life, as well as the promptness and regularity of his school attendance and the number and location of the different schools which he has attended.

The study of the pupil's behavior is based on the teacher's personal observations. She notes how he responds to the various parts of the tests which she administers. She gives attention to the control which he seems to have over himself. She observes his ability to sit at ease, to give attention at the proper time to the tasks placed before him, and to behave consistently in his various activities from time to time.

In addition, she records all voluntary statements he makes which will probably prove of value in his case history. She is sensitive to any statement which indicates that he is curious as to why he is being observed or tested.

In selecting tests for diagnostic purposes, the teacher chooses those which will reveal in detail the faulty habits of the pupil and the number of times these habits are exhibited. The tests are selected also with reference to the pupil's apparent difficulty. If he seems to be having difficulty in his manipulation of whole numbers, a diagnostic test dealing with the four fundamental processes is used. If, on the other hand, he seems to be experiencing difficulty in solving arithmetical problems, a diagnostic test in problem-solving should be used. There seems to be much advantage in having the pupil express his thoughts aloud as he responds to the different test items. When the tests have been given, the teacher classifies and records the pupil's faulty habits of work so that she may have a definite basis for reorganizing and readjusting the program in arithmetic for this particular pupil.

Conclusion—By means of the various technics reviewed above, the elementary-school teachers of Waco make detailed studies of their pupils and scrutinize carefully all curriculum materials and activities which are set up for these pupils. If they find that such materials and activities fail to meet the pupils' needs, they reorganize the materials and introduce new activities in an effort to meet the needs and interests of each pupil to the maximum degree. These procedures should be equally useful in bringing about a better adjustment between the curriculum and the pupil in other schools and school systems.

IN fitting the curriculum to the level of a child's development, then, we should know the relation of any given unit of learning or of any experience to the child's physical development, his mental age, and his experiential background. We should reckon with his sense of need and should gauge the suitability of the material or of the mode of its presentation in terms of the child's interested response.

Obviously, we are a long way from the degree of knowledge that would make such an organization of the curriculum a complete possibility.—Washburne, Carleton, in *Child Development and the Curriculum*, Thirty-Eighth Yearbook, Part I, National Society for the Study of Education, 1939, p. 9-10. (Quoted by permission of the Society.)

USE OF OBJECTIVE TESTS IN PUPIL GUIDANCE AND ADJUSTMENT

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RECENT SURVEYS indicate that programs of measurement involving the use of standardized and other objective tests are an accepted practice in most city school systems. There are only two small groups who do not favor such programs: the ultraconservatives who feel that their judgment of a pupil's performance is superior to the results of a new-type examination, and the ultraprogressives who claim that the commercially available tests do not measure the outcomes of progressive education.

There is an element of justification in both of these criticisms which is recognized by both test makers and test users. Standardized tests are not intended to replace teachers' judgments, but to supplement and temper them. It is likewise true that tests are not available to measure all the outcomes of either a traditional or a progressive type of education. Those who use tests intelligently accept them as measures of certain phases of knowledge and skill, and await the construction of tests to measure reliably the less tangible outcomes of education. At the present time some of the finest minds in the educational field are devoting their energies in this direction and are making significant progress.

Philosophies of education may change, centers of interest may shift, and educational methods may be revolutionized, but as long as learning remains a major objective of the school, efforts will be made to evaluate the product. The standardized test, as exemplified by the most valid and reliable of those now available, goes beyond mere evaluation and serves as a basis for the improvement and enrichment of the educational process. Each year adds refinement and increased applicability to the tools of measurement.

Altho standardized tests have been in general use for about twenty years, their application to actual school situations varies more perhaps than any other accepted school practice. Only when a testing program becomes an integral part of school procedure, rather than an addition to it, may such a program be considered functional and a real aid to enrichment. It is the functional aspects of the measurement program in the San Francisco elementary schools which will be treated in this article.

THE MEASUREMENT PROGRAM IN GENERAL

The test program which follows was scheduled for the elementary schools for the spring term of 1939 and is typical of those which have been in effect during the past ten years:

Grade	Test To Be Administered
End of Kindergarten....	<i>Pintner-Cunningham Primary Mental Test</i> ¹
End of Kindergarten....	<i>Lee-Clark Reading Readiness Test</i> ²
Beginning of Low I....	<i>Pintner-Cunningham Primary Mental Test</i>
Beginning of Low I....	<i>Lee-Clark Reading Readiness Test</i>
Beginning of High II....	<i>Gates Primary Reading Test</i> , ³ Types 1, 2, and 3
Beginning of Low IV....	<i>California Test of Mental Maturity</i> , ² Elementary Series
Beginning of Low IV....	<i>Metropolitan Achievement Tests</i> , ¹ Primary II Battery
Beginning of Low VI....	<i>Otis Quick-Scoring Mental Ability Tests</i> , ¹ Beta Test, Form A
Beginning of Low VI....	<i>Metropolitan Achievement Tests</i> , Intermediate Battery—Partial
End of High VI.....	<i>Strouse Music Test</i> ⁴
Beginning of High VIII..	<i>Otis Quick-Scoring Mental Ability Tests</i> , Beta Test, Form B
Beginning of High VIII..	<i>Metropolitan Achievement Tests</i> , Advanced Battery—Partial

Altho this program looks very much like a schedule of ten years ago, it differs in two respects and these differences distinguish a successful program from an unsuccessful one. First, owing to a long period of in-service training, the present program is a principal and teacher program rather than a program dictated from a central office. Second, it is not a static program but a dynamic and functional one in which every teacher is assisted in interpreting the results of the tests administered to her pupils and in making educational adjustments on the basis of the findings.

A member of the school research staff meets with all the teachers of a grade in which a test is being introduced for the first time and instructs them in the administration and scoring of the test and in the recording of results. The interpretation of results and their application to educational situations are handled by instructional bulletins and by conferences with the principal and teachers of a single school or with a group of teachers having similar problems. Since the introduction of a new test does not occur frequently, the greater part of the work is carried on thru small group conferences after the new teachers and those newly assigned to a grade have had their instructions.

¹ Published by the World Book Co., Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York.

² Published by the California Test Bureau (affiliated with the Southern California School Book Depository), Los Angeles, California.

³ Published by the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York.

⁴ Published by the Bureau of Educational Measurements, Kansas State Teachers College, Emporia, Kansas.

Considering the fact that the San Francisco program is continuous, it is impossible to say that one phase is more important than another. The following sections discuss the interpretation and use of test results at three different grade levels: the low first grade, the high second grade, and the low fourth grade.

INTERPRETATION AND USE OF CLASS RECORDS IN THE LOW FIRST GRADE

As indicated above, pupils leaving the kindergarten to enter the first grade are tested in two phases of ability: intelligence and reading readiness. On the basis of these two tests it is possible to predict rather reliably a pupil's first-grade success and to avert many errors leading to failure.

The record sheets upon which the teachers record the test results are designed to assist them in meeting the educational needs of their pupils. Aside from the fact that the state requires beginning pupils to be at least five years and nine months old, there is an important reason why ages must be considered in connection with the test scores. It is a well-established fact that wide variations exist among pupils of a given age. The test record, which is only a small part of the total picture, gives the first-grade teacher some idea as to the variability among these pupils with whom she is relatively unacquainted.

First-grade entrants of normal age—Providing there are no physical or emotional irregularities, a pupil who has attained a mental age of six years and six months usually has no difficulty in learning to read. The reading readiness score gives the teacher further evidence relative to the child's potential success in reading. The mental age and the reading readiness score are used together in organizing groups of children for beginning reading.

Pupils falling below six years in mental age and below a score of 15 on the reading readiness test are candidates for a "junior low first-grade" class. Nearly all schools make provision for such pupils, grouping them together where experiences to develop reading readiness can be provided. Pupils whose mental ages are seven or higher and whose reading readiness scores exceed 40 are also grouped together. Other factors being favorable, such pupils learn to read with relative ease and find pleasure in independent work involving additional reading activities.

It is the responsibility of the first-grade teacher to recognize any cases of mental, physical, or emotional deviation and report them to the principal, who in turn refers them to the deputy superintendent of schools. Pupils often come from homes where defects have been overlooked or recognized but neglected. The teacher is instructed to report

any outstanding deviations in vision, hearing, articulation, muscular control and coordination, personal habits and attitudes, mental ability, or emotional control. She must bear in mind that early recognition of defects is the first step in the direction of remedial treatment and not infrequently is a vital factor in averting the maladjustments accompanying these defects.

Over-age pupils—Children who are over-age at school entrance are rare, but each case of this kind merits thoughtful consideration. The following practices are customary in many of our schools:

1. If the over-age pupil has low mental ability, he is given additional attention in order that his over-ageness may not become cumulative.
2. If the over-ageness is due to a language handicap, the pupil is permitted to participate in activities which offer greater opportunities for oral expression.
3. If the over-ageness is due to physical or emotional irregularities, he is observed closely and those school activities which might add to his disabilities are avoided.
4. If over-age pupils are conspicuous by their inability to make adequate social adjustments to the first-grade group, provision is made for them to carry on some of their activities in other groups.

The teachers are urged to take every precaution in order that pupils entering school may make desirable adjustments. The first school impressions often influence the entire life of the child, and each teacher has a responsibility for making those first impressions favorable. The fostering of an attitude of intelligent observation has resulted in a large body of teachers who are able to treat first-grade pupils individually in the light of their initial abilities and potentialities.

INTERPRETATION AND USE OF TEST RECORDS IN THE HIGH SECOND GRADE

The next general survey is one of reading achievement at the beginning of the high second grade. The test record sheet which the teacher fills out provides a fairly reliable picture of the reading achievement of her pupils at this grade level. This is her first opportunity to judge objectively their reading accomplishment in terms of what they would normally have been expected to accomplish during their first year and a half in school.

Altho San Francisco pupils entering the high second grade are, on the average, only seven years and six months old, previous investigations show that they reached the expected grade level for pupils who are six months older. The printed "norm" for the Gates test is based on the performances of pupils who are, on the average, eight years of age at entrance to the high second grade. San Francisco pupils who reach or exceed a reading age of eight years, therefore, usually have no difficulty in meeting all second-grade reading requirements. Pupils who fail to reach a reading age of seven years at entrance to the high

second grade are eligible to enter a remedial reading class where special assistance is given to overcome their deficiencies.

The teacher is warned to be on the lookout for the following conditions which often contribute to reading disability:

1. Poor habits and attitudes
2. Auditory defects
3. Visual defects
4. Articulatory defects
5. Lack of muscular control and coordination
6. Emotional instability
7. Low mental ability.

Thru an analysis of the pupils' test papers the teacher is able to:

1. Determine which pupils in a class need special help in reading
2. Ascertain the grade to which each pupil's ability corresponds
3. Find out how well each child is reading in relation to his intelligence
4. Compare the average attainment of a class with the national norm or with other classes
5. Determine the particular kind of instruction needed by an individual pupil of any level
6. Measure results obtained from a special program of instruction.

If, on the basis of the test results and careful observation, a pupil appears to be handicapped by auditory, visual, or articulatory defects, he is usually reported at once to the principal, who makes arrangements for further diagnosis. If the reading deficiency appears to be due to low mental ability, an individual mental test is often requested thru the principal.

Our aim is to see that no case of reading disability is unnoticed in the high second grade. By recognizing every poor reader at this time we may look forward to the elimination of most remediable defects before the fourth grade is reached.

INTERPRETATION AND USE OF RECORDS IN THE LOW FOURTH GRADE

By the time pupils reach the fourth grade they have acquired definite knowledge, skills, habits, and attitudes. At this level we expect to find wide variability in their achievement. An analysis of the pupils' test records informs the teacher as to the general ability and achievement of her pupils but tells her little concerning the causes of their proficiencies and deficiencies, and even less about their habits and attitudes. This analysis, however, is the teacher's first step in acquainting herself with each pupil's limitations and potentialities and in guiding him from where he is to where he is capable of going. Previous surveys have shown that San Francisco pupils entering the fourth grade range in achievement from the low second-grade to the high sixth-grade level, and many teachers find this entire range within their own classes. The class record

shows the teacher the general ability of her class and assists her in identifying extreme cases.

Before planning the class activities for the year the conscientious teacher identifies the following pupils or groups of pupils:

1. Pupils educationally immature
2. Pupils extremely over-age for grade
3. Pupils in need of further diagnosis
4. Over-age pupils eligible to consideration for future acceleration
5. Pupils in need of a remedial reading program
 - a. Pupils low in paragraph comprehension
 - b. Pupils low in vocabulary comprehension
 - c. Pupils whose mental ages justify higher reading ability
6. Pupils in need of a remedial arithmetic program
 - a. Pupils low in arithmetic fundamentals
 - b. Pupils low in arithmetic reasoning
 - c. Pupils whose mental ages justify higher arithmetic ability
7. Pupils who have unusual ability and are eligible for an enrichment program.

Educationally immature pupils—Pupils entering school at the age of six and progressing at a normal rate reach the low fourth grade when they are approximately nine years old. Children who are unusually gifted or superior in their general development may be slightly younger. It is, however, the policy of the San Francisco schools to offer gifted pupils enrichment at their own social level rather than to accelerate them. Pupils who are younger than nine years and who are normal or below in ability usually find the activities of the low fourth grade difficult. Since most of these pupils are the victims of misstated ages and administrative oversight, their work must be observed carefully and every precaution taken to avert their discouragement or failure.

Over-age pupils—Over-age pupils in the low fourth grade are those who are ten years of age or older. The teacher is advised to list such pupils at once, investigate the cause or causes of their over-ageness, and plan remedial work to bring about their readjustment. Where English is not the language of the home, over-ageness resulting from retardation is to be expected. Foreign children, however, usually overcome their language handicaps in the primary grades and can compete favorably with their classmates of the same mental ability by the time the fourth grade is reached. A language handicap is not always a cause for retardation.

If a pupil is ten years of age or older in the low fourth grade, the only administrative reason for his being there is his inability to do the work of a higher grade. If such a pupil is normal or above in mental ability, the teacher is advised to prepare him for an extra promotion, that is, to help him bring his achievement up to the level demanded by the next half grade.

Pupils needing further diagnosis—When a pupil's mental age is approximately the same as his chronological age he is considered "normal" mentally. When a pupil of the fourth grade has a mental age two years or more below his chronological age, he is conspicuously retarded and deserving of further diagnosis. The teacher is expected to report such pupils to the principal at once so that individual tests may be requested for them and their educational treatment determined.

Pupils in need of remedial work in reading—All pupils falling below the nine-year level in reading should be given remedial work in order to bring them to the fourth-grade level, except in cases of mental retardation where such achievement is greatly in excess of the pupil's capacity. Pupils of high mental ability who read with facility should be given opportunities to widen their range of experience thru additional activities.

After selecting pupils who are generally low in reading ability, the teacher's next step is to examine the pupils' test papers for evidence concerning the nature of their disabilities. She must keep in mind, however, that poor pupil performances are merely symptoms of the disorders and do not reveal their sources. Every reading disability should be traced to its source in order that the proper remedial treatment may be administered. The source may be physical, mental, emotional, social, or a combination of these types. The *California Test of Mental Maturity* is helpful in identifying pupils whose disabilities have arisen thru lack of auditory or visual acuity or of muscular coordination. Pupils scoring conspicuously low in this test should be given a more thorough diagnosis. If a pupil's disability is physical, the teacher is expected to report him to the principal at once. After the first few weeks there should be no pupil in the low fourth grade whose reading disabilities have not been thoroughly diagnosed and whose remedial treatment is not well under way.

Pupils in need of remedial work in arithmetic—In the case of arithmetic, children entering the low fourth grade in San Francisco show an average achievement of approximately eight years and six months rather than nine years. Since pupils of the primary grades meet few experiences demanding formal arithmetic, the San Francisco schools withhold many of these processes until they are more meaningful to the pupil. In the cities upon which the arithmetic test norm is based, formal arithmetic appears to be introduced earlier than in San Francisco.

All pupils falling below the level of eight years and six months in arithmetic achievement should have their disabilities diagnosed and should be started on a remedial program at once. The test papers are

of great value in determining the types of difficulties which the children are having.

Pupils of high general ability—Gifted pupils should be recognized and their educational needs should be met thru programs which broaden and enrich their experiences.

ASSISTANCE IN THE ANALYSIS AND USE OF CLASS RECORDS

The problems to be met in the various schools of San Francisco differ widely. Hence, teachers and principals are urged to arrange for individual conferences with the Bureau of Research if they feel the need of special assistance. In addition, duplicates of all class records are sent to the Bureau of Research where they are analyzed further. In this analysis each pupil's record is considered individually, and the names of pupils whose test records show a need for special adjustment are sent back to the school. This follow-up procedure calls the principal's attention to the following types of pupils:

1. Those for whom an individual mental test should be requested
2. Over-age pupils of normal ability who should be prepared for acceleration
3. Under-age pupils of average or low ability who should be considered for repetition of a grade
4. Pupils who because of some irregularity should receive a retest in some phase of achievement.

The list of these pupils is accompanied by the following instructions to principals:

Your attention is called to the pupils listed on the attached page, who, on the basis of test results, are deserving of special educational consideration. It will be noted that all the pupils recommended for acceleration are over-age for their grade and that most of them evidence ability to do work of a higher level. All those whom you have been asked to consider for repetition are under-age and apparently too immature to realize success in their present grade. However, unless in your estimation a repetition would improve the child's social and educational adjustment, it should not be made.

Your treatment of each of these pupils should be influenced also by factors not revealed by the test results, such as physical condition, language of the home, emotional stability, etc. The suggestions, as you will observe, are for further study of the pupil with a view to improving his adjustment.

In addition to the suggestions made above, it is hoped that opportunity classes or some form of individual instruction has been, or will be, provided for the following pupils:

1. Pupils entering the low first grade over seven years of age
2. High second-grade pupils falling below seven years and six months in reading age
3. Low fourth-grade pupils falling below a reading age of nine years, and those falling below eight years and six months in arithmetic age
4. Low sixth-grade pupils failing to reach the eleven-year level in reading or arithmetic
5. High eighth-grade pupils failing to reach the thirteen-year level in reading or arithmetic.

You are also requested to identify pupils in your school who have mental ages or achievement ages two or more years above their chronological ages. Enrichment should be provided for such pupils.

CONCLUSION

As the reader has observed, the San Francisco testing program is a beginning-of-term program—one in which the results are used not primarily to measure past achievement but to plan each child's future educational experiences. In addition to the general program, teachers are privileged to use other types of tests in any way that is approved by the deputy superintendent in charge and by the Bureau of Research. San Francisco elementary teachers are unanimous in their appreciation of the instructional aids provided by the measurement program.

THE work of the school must be organized in such a manner as to permit of careful and sympathetic diagnosis of the causes of failure in terms of personality needs as well as in terms of mental deficiency and items of ignorance. Then remedial instruction must be carried on in such a manner as will take care of personality needs which are frustrated, or at least assist the child in adapting to his difficulties. Remedial instruction which tries to push the individual over the academic hurdle whether he is psychologically ready to take it or not may be harmful rather than helpful.—Committee on the Relation of Emotion to the Educative Process, *Emotion and the Educative Process*, American Council on Education, 1938, p. 238. (Quoted by permission of the Council.)

CURRICULUM ENRICHMENT FOR GIFTED CHILDREN

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SAN FRANCISCO has been for many years "gifted child" conscious. Undoubtedly the early work of Terman, who used the San Francisco schools as a laboratory, helped stimulate the teachers to an awareness of the superior child. This growing awareness gradually developed into systematic study, the study into scientific investigation, and the investigation, we hope, into a keener understanding of the "promise of youth."

When Terman began to study gifted children in our schools, his discoveries aroused great concern. We learned, to our chagrin, that these pupils who were greatly superior to their classmates in native ability were the victims of educational negligence. We found that they were healthier than the child of average ability, but not happier. We found them to be problems in the classroom, on the playground, and at home. The greatest shock, however, was the realization that we, thru a lack of complete understanding, were responsible in a great measure for the maladjustments of these children.

While many educators were emphasizing the emotional instabilities supposed to accompany mental precocity and lamenting the fact that most gifted children were not fulfilling their promise, the San Francisco schools were making plans for the early detection of such children and the prevention of maladjustments among them. Teachers were assisted in discovering gifted pupils in their classes by a citywide testing program. Thru group meetings the teachers were made to feel the responsibility of having entrusted to them the nation's most precious resource. University courses on the nature and education of gifted children attracted large numbers of San Francisco teachers. Thus, by 1925 the local schools had taken two vital steps in the study of gifted children: (1) A continuous survey of ability and achievement had been put into effect; and (2) the teachers had been made aware of the presence of superior children in their classrooms and of their responsibility to these children. However, the third step, that of guiding these richly endowed children happily thru childhood and youth to successful manhood and womanhood, was still an unsolved problem. To recognize a pupil's ability and needs was one thing, and to meet his needs in a classroom along with those of forty other children of widely varying abilities and experiences was quite another. Each school was privileged to deal with the problem according to the combined judgments of its principal and teachers.

INITIATING A STUDY OF PROVISIONS FOR GIFTED CHILDREN

A survey of current practices—In 1934 it was deemed advisable to study the best practices in effect in San Francisco and elsewhere to determine which plan of providing for the gifted child would be most effective in a large city system. A committee of principals from five schools having a high percent of gifted children was authorized by the superintendent of schools to study the problem. Investigation showed that every recognized treatment of the gifted child, other than that of segregation in a special school, was in effect somewhere in the San Francisco schools. Where the number of such children was large, homogeneous groups had been organized. Where the number was small, individual instruction in the form of special assignments or "contracts" was sometimes practiced. Some schools favored acceleration or "skipping" within certain limitations. Others practiced various methods of enriching the program in order to make it sufficiently challenging to the gifted child. A few schools found club activities of various types a solution to the problem, and still others filled the superior child's time with extracurricular activities ranging from that of reading to kindergarten pupils to that of serving as librarian in the school library or as assistant in the principal's office.

Definition of the "gifted child"—The superintendent of schools, the deputy superintendent in charge of elementary education, and several specialists from nearby universities met with the principals of the five schools at the beginning of the study and from time to time during its experimental phase. At an early meeting it was found that even within this small group there were differences of opinion as to the definition of a gifted child. It was agreed, however, that for the purpose of the study a gifted child should be thought of not in terms of a single talent or a high intelligence quotient alone, but in terms of a generally superior all-round development including the physical, social, and emotional as well as the mental aspects. In other words, this study was to concern itself with the educational treatment of children who were so superior that their needs could not be met thru the regular activities of the classroom. In some schools this meant that children having intelligence quotients of 125 and over were included. In schools where the intelligence of most children was average or below, a pupil with an intelligence quotient of 110 might need special educational treatment.

Selection of children for the experiment—The children who were to participate in the experimental program were selected on the basis of their general superiority as shown by previous test records, the cumulative judgments of teachers, and the personal history card. No child was selected whose mental ability was not outstanding in his school and

whose achievement did not meet or exceed grade expectancy. Some of these children, however, showed the need of improved adjustment. Before entering upon the new program of work, all pupils were given the *Kuhlmann-Anderson Intelligence Tests*¹ and the *Metropolitan Achievement Tests*.² The only measures of attitudes or adjustments employed were the subjective ratings of teachers.

TRYING OUT DIFFERENT PLANS IN FIVE SCHOOLS

Each of the five schools presented a different written plan to be put into effect in the school year beginning August 1935. The method of pupil selection and the objectives of the program were essentially the same in the five schools. These plans were discussed by the committee of experts and principals, and as the work progressed the outcomes were evaluated by the teachers, principals, and parents. In the pages which follow, a brief description of each plan is given together with the ways in which the plan met or failed to meet the educational objectives set up by the committee.

School A—In this school, an "opportunity class"³ was organized for fourteen children from Grades V and VI whose intelligence quotients ranged from 121 to 151. A complete case study was developed for each child, covering his social background, major interests, extra-school activities, physical condition, performances on standardized tests, school progress, social adaptations, special abilities, work habits, and developmental needs. These pupils, who spent most of the school day in the opportunity room, were given the privilege of selecting a unit of work and of devoting two hours each day to its development.

The unit of work selected was "How Man Has Made Records," and the class divided itself into three groups with different interests, as follows:

- Group A: Methods of recording used by early man and their effects on future civilization
- Group B: Books of the Middle Ages and what we owe to them
- Group C: The history of printing and its influence on civilization.

In connection with this unit several excursions were made by the entire group. A visit to the rare book collection in the library of John Henry Nash, and another to the plant of a metropolitan newspaper were the most outstanding. These carefully selected and planned excursions gave the children a firsthand knowledge of manuscripts before as

¹ Published by the Educational Test Bureau, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

² Published by the World Book Co., Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York.

³ Opportunity rooms or classes as referred to in this study are not to be confused with those which for many years have been a part of San Francisco's elementary-school program. In the regular program in the San Francisco elementary schools the opportunity room is a place where the viceprincipal meets with individuals or small groups of children for the purpose of diagnosing their difficulties in specific fields and giving guidance or administering remedial educational measures.

well as after the invention of the printing press. The newspaper tour included the copy room, telegraphic news service, composing room, engraving department, press room, and circulation department. Here they found answers to such questions as, How is a newspaper compiled so quickly? How do papers get the news so soon after it happens? How are the colored funnies made? and many others that only such an experience could answer.

The enrichment growing out of this unit was outlined by the teacher as follows:

A. Knowledge

1. Contributions of printing to modern journalism
2. Significance of the invention and subsequent growth of the art of printing
3. Care and use of libraries

B. Specific skills and abilities

1. In English

- a. Ability to write creative prose and poetry
- b. Power to use the tools of oral and written expression

2. In reading

- a. Skill in reading to get information
- b. Skill in evaluating what is read
- c. Ability to organize what is read
- d. Ability to follow printed directions
- e. A growing interest in old books

3. In art

- a. Skill in designing book covers and in making books
- b. Skill in making clay and wax tablets
- c. Skill in designing illustrations and in illustrating booklets

C. General attitudes and habits

1. An investigating attitude
2. Improved study habits
3. Desire to solve one's own problems
4. Satisfaction in higher standards of workmanship
5. Willingness to assume responsibility
6. Habit of planning before executing.

Altho no formal, isolated subjectmatter was presented in this opportunity class, the quality of achievement was improved noticeably thru holding to the objective of well-planned and legibly written reports related to the activity, clearly expressed oral reports, and presentation of verified facts based on research. Growth in spelling and computation was realized thru the demands of the varied activities. A retest at the end of the term showed that in all but one case the gains in achievement reached or exceeded those of normal pupils in each subject measured. The most gratifying results of the experiment could not be expressed objectively. The following excerpts from the history card of one child give some indication of the growth realized during five months of work:

Excerpts from History Card of R. G.

(C. A. 10 years 5 months; M. A. 15 years 7 months; I. Q. 150)

Physical condition: Very good; calmer, more deliberate, and less nervous in action and speech.

Special attitudes and interests: A vital interest in history and collection of old books; writing plays.

Individual initiative: Is continuing to be a leader but has more poise and judgment.

Ability to work with others: His cooperative attitude has continued. He shows more patience than formerly when working with slower children.

Work habits: Greatly improved and is pleased with a finished product that is of higher standard than when he first entered the "opportunity class." Independent worker. Shows regard for authority.

Organizing material: Evaluates well and prepares superior outlines. Has power of good selection.

Utilization of time: Always busy; finds a new task without being directed to do so. Completes tasks before time limit and is still too quick, altho previous carelessness is being overcome.

Finished product: All oral work splendid. Improving in written work and handcraft. Shows originality in work.

Remarks: R. G. has developed into a discriminating reader. Shows more poise, stability, and patience. He is now reading about ten books a month and is a subscriber to *Time* magazine.

School B—School B planned a program of enrichment for ten superior fifth- and sixth-grade pupils in which the regular classroom teachers and the opportunity teacher shared the responsibility as follows:

Classroom teacher's part:

1. To give personal data concerning each child
2. To keep the opportunity teacher informed as to the child's current problems, his special achievements, etc.
3. To cooperate in every way that would further an enrichment program.

Opportunity teacher's part:

1. To visit in regular classrooms so frequently that she knew just what work was being done there
2. To supplement and enrich this work
3. To discuss frequently with the classroom teacher each child's efforts, progress, and achievements
4. To give opportunities for enrichment thru stimulating life situations.

The selected pupils were permitted to work one hour each day in the opportunity room, where challenging types of equipment had been provided. This equipment included a workbench, easel, typewriter, telescope, microscope, clay, plaster of Paris, wood, salt, electric stove, and books.

In the beginning each child was permitted to develop his own project, but it was soon discovered that little groups were being formed having identical or related interests. While some pupils were writing a puppet play, others were making the puppets to be used in its production. There were chemical experiments, bookbinding, and various types of construction work in progress. The children took pleasure in planning their own work, taking an inventory of their accomplishments, and testing their results.

This small beginning developed into a more extensive and more highly integrated unit which had as its center of interest "The Effect of Machine Production upon Our Living," a topic suggested by the Virginia

course of study.⁴ Some outcomes of this enrichment in terms of pupil growth were as follows:

1. Increased ability to plan, execute, and judge one's work
2. Increased ability to use the dictionary, encyclopedias, atlases, and maps, and to gather reference materials from all available sources
3. Increased ability to think thru problems
4. Increased understanding of the values and uses of the library
5. Increased interest in current history and its relation to the past
6. Increased understanding of the work of the world and its effect on human beings
7. Increased ability to work independently, practice self-control, share in undertakings, respect the rights of others, and encourage other members of the group thru constructive criticism and helpful suggestions.

School C—This school selected twenty-one children from the high sixth grade on the basis of their general superiority as shown by previous test records and by the classroom teacher's judgment of their physical and social fitness and ability to do abstract thinking. These pupils were allowed two hours daily under the guidance of another sixth-grade teacher to develop a unit in the field of the social studies. The teacher chosen to do this work was selected because of her dynamic personality, her broad cultural background, and her outstanding ability as a teacher of the social studies. Choosing as a general topic "What America Has Contributed to the Progress and Welfare of Man," the little group started out in search of contributions in the fields of industry, science, transportation, communication, government, music, literature, and the fine arts. The various fields were distributed on the basis of pupil interest, and as information was brought in from homes, museums, libraries, and other sources, it was discussed by the group in daily informal round-table meetings. Emphasis was placed on orderly thinking, clear presentations, and the gathering of facts from authentic sources.

Parents and teachers agreed that this type of enrichment produced pupil growth beyond their expectations. Programs, books, and materials contributed by various members of the class stimulated an interest in, and an appreciation of, America's part in world progress. Greater than normal gains were evident in all skills measured, and there was notable improvement in assuming responsibility, in working independently, in giving service to others, and in fair-mindedness. Unfortunately, administrative limitations necessitated the discontinuance of this group as a unit at the close of the first term. At that time eleven of the pupils had made such unusual growth socially as well as scholastically that they were advanced a half grade. In all twenty-one the experience had established desirable attitudes and habits which may last a lifetime.

⁴ Virginia State Board of Education. *Tentative Course of Study for Virginia Elementary Schools: Grades I-VII*. Bulletin, Vol. 17, No. 1. Richmond: the Board, 1934. 560 p.

School D—Thru a hobby club under the supervision of the viceprincipal, School D brought a program of enrichment to a selected group of fourth-, fifth-, and sixth-grade pupils. These pupils, who were all reading far above the standards for their respective grades, were permitted to participate in the activities of the hobby club during their daily reading period. A description of these activities as reported by the viceprincipal follows:

The children were told that they might choose anything in which they were especially interested. The only qualification was that they must study the subject thoroughly and have some definite expression of this study at the end of the term. They were told they might study alone or in groups.

Some boys chose to study airplanes (two groups of two's and one group of three); three boys and a girl chose to study stamps; two girls (twins) wanted to make a puppet show together; one girl wanted to study insects, another books, and another pets; one girl took Egypt as her subject, and another took Spain because her father had come from there.

A study outline was planned for each type of work, definite reading materials were listed, and tests were worked out. The children were permitted to work at their own speed and to use the tests as a check on themselves whenever they felt ready. When the assignments were completed the children were permitted to branch out in any direction they pleased, either in handwork or further reading. There was never any need to urge the children to work.

A part of each day was given to a group meeting. Here the children planned their work and showed the results to the group for suggestions and appreciation. Their studies and reports carried them into many fields. They read a great many books from the school library, home libraries, and the public library. Magazines were consulted and newspapers were followed.

The term closed with a puppet show in which the entire group took part. The twins wrote a simplified version of *Hansel and Gretel*, made and dressed the puppets, and built and painted the simple scenery. A performance was given at a school assembly.

I feel that much of the growth of these pupils was beyond measurement. There was an improvement in initiative and in social attitudes that could not be expressed objectively. When I see these children working in other groups and see how independent they have become, as contrasted with the other pupils, I realize there has been a remarkable development in them.

School E—This school used an adaptation of the Dransfield plan⁵ in providing a program of enrichment for its gifted children in Grades IV, V, and VI. These pupils remained in their regular classrooms throughout the day, and the teachers planned special units of work to broaden and deepen for them the content of the regular work of the grade. These self-administering units were organized about some phase of the social studies and provided for definite activities, excursions, research, and reports. In addition, the classroom teachers supplied objectives, references, and thought-stimulating questions. The opportunity teacher was called upon only to fill gaps or to smooth out rough spots in the tool subjects. While this program contributed little in the nature of pupil

⁵ Dransfield, J. Edgar. *Administration of Enrichment to Superior Children in the Typical Classroom*. Contributions to Education, No. 558. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933. 107 p.

planning, it made ample provision for independent work and for the carrying out of definitely assigned units.

OUTCOMES AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The experiments carried on in these five schools involved a continuous and intensive observation of gifted pupils working under the following conditions:

1. Segregation in a homogeneous age group for a major part of the school day (School A)
2. Segregation in a heterogeneous age group for special activities (Schools B and D)
3. Segregation in a homogeneous age group for special activities (School C)
4. Retention in regular classes (School E).

The educational treatment of these gifted pupils ranged from the most liberal of the new-type activities to traditional assignments adapted to the pupils' abilities. In every group the achievements which could be measured by standardized tests showed progress commensurate with the superior abilities of the children. While these results were gratifying, the committee in charge of the experiment was even more interested in the less tangible aspects of pupil growth which had to be judged subjectively. Such outcomes as improvement in general attitudes, gains in confidence, development of leadership, and other changes which contribute to better adjustment were carefully considered. Expressions of opinion were solicited from teachers, parents, and even the pupils themselves.

Space limitation prevents a discussion here of the parental satisfactions growing out of the experiment. In general, the parents were pleased to note that their children had responded with enthusiasm to the activities and that in many cases major problems of adjustment had disappeared.

The principals and teachers expressed some dissatisfaction because of administrative limitations, insufficient time, and inadequate equipment. They felt that even the best of the practices used met the needs of superior pupils only in a small measure. Yet there was general agreement that considerable progress had been made. It was agreed also that even if segregation of gifted children in special schools or classes were administratively possible, it would not be educationally desirable. The principals and teachers believed that under favorable conditions more phases of desired growth could be realized in a typical classroom than in a special class or school.

The recommendations which follow are taken from the report which the committee made after a year of studying the progress of superior children under various types of educational organization:

1. Enrichment should be provided for in the school life of superior children.
2. An integrated course of study from kindergarten to high school based upon major areas of social living should be developed.
3. Administration should provide for:
 - a. Expert guidance in supervision
 - b. More supervisory cooperation from level to level
 - c. Assistance in the collection and selection of pertinent reference material
 - d. Encouragement in experimentation
 - e. The formation of smaller classes.
4. Teachers should attain:
 - a. A more intensive knowledge of child development
 - b. A broader knowledge of the educational program.
5. Equipment should include:
 - a. Movable furniture
 - b. A good selection of books in the school library
 - c. More storage space
 - d. An activity room with necessary supplies for an enriched program.

San Francisco has profited greatly from the study carried on by the teachers and principals whose untiring efforts were devoted to meeting more adequately the needs of gifted children. We feel confident that every superior pupil in every grade today is reaping the fruit of this study thru a more thoughtfully planned educational program and thru a program of individual guidance based upon a more complete knowledge of the child.

THE need for special education of gifted children is indicated by the large percentage of failures in our colleges and universities due, not to lack of capacity, but to bad habits and undesirable attitudes; by the many graduates of higher institutions of learning who do not feel under the slightest obligation to society which made possible their higher education; and by those gifted children who leave school because of dissatisfaction with traditional education.

The problem is to determine the nature and extent of the special education required to enable the gifted child to attain his maximum development.—White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, *Special Education: The Handicapped and the Gifted*, Century Co., 1931, p. 14. (Quoted by permission of the publishers.)

AN EXPERIMENTAL CURRICULUM FOR RETARDED PUPILS

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AN IMPORTANT PROBLEM of the elementary school has been to bring about a satisfactory adjustment between its curriculum and the poorest 5 percent of its pupils. The traditional curriculum was not created for these mentally retarded children, and the attempts to adjust them to it have met with indifferent success. Ordinarily, if such pupils are promoted from term to term with the "normal" part of the class, they become so far retarded academically as to constitute a major problem in class instruction. If not promoted, they become over-age for grade with resultant bad effects on their attitudes and achievement. In either case they soon recognize themselves as incompetents and failures, acquire a dislike for schoolwork, and often find undesirable ways in which to satisfy their desire for success. The solution seems to lie not in trying to adjust them to a curriculum ill suited to their needs but rather in creating an entirely different curriculum for them.

The practice in many city school systems, therefore, is to isolate these pupils in special classes with a special curriculum. In Philadelphia 4.8 percent of all elementary-school pupils are in classes for the mentally and educationally retarded. Seventy-five percent of these retarded children have IQ's between 65 and 89.¹ In chronological age they range from six to eighteen years altho the great majority are from ten to sixteen years of age. The youngest pupils are generally grouped in separate classes in the regular elementary school which they attend, while the older pupils of several neighboring schools are placed in "centers," either in the same building with regular pupils or in separate buildings. All the special classes are of smaller than average size and are in the hands of specially trained and qualified teachers.

Several years ago the Division of Special Education in this city made a study of the home conditions of seriously retarded pupils and of the kinds of employment into which they drifted in the years immediately following the close of their school careers. The study revealed that such children made little use of academic skills acquired in school—necessarily of low order in children of this type—and pointed to the need for such manual skills, information about the environment, and social habits as might prove useful in the home or in jobs of a relatively unskilled nature.

Accordingly, a curriculum designed to meet these needs was set up in the Hanna School in September 1936 and is still in operation on an

¹ Those with higher IQ's are educationally retarded for reasons other than mental dullness.

experimental basis. Pupils who are mentally and educationally retarded, who are twelve years of age or over, and who have spent six years in school are gathered from the special classes of surrounding elementary schools. Ordinarily pupils of this age group would be in junior high school, but because these children are all three years or more over-age for grade and have acquired at best no more than third- or fourth-grade proficiency in such skills as reading, spelling, and arithmetic, they are unable to profit from even a reduced junior high-school curriculum. There are enough special classes, twelve in all, to permit this part of the school² to be organized on a departmental basis with the children grouped according to chronological age, social maturity, and reading ability. The following pages describe the program provided for these children in the several fields of learning.

Academic skills—Since these pupils have devoted the normal amount of time to reading and arithmetic in the elementary school, and since it is unlikely that they can ever acquire more than a rudimentary proficiency in these skills or that they will have any great need for them in their daily living, only one-sixth of the school day is given to these subjects. In arithmetic, ten- or fifteen-minute drills in the four fundamental processes as needed in making simple calculations are provided. During social science and shop periods these processes are applied to tasks requiring the solution of real arithmetical problems. For instance, the amount due for several hours of work at a specified hourly rate and the amount and cost of lumber necessary to do a certain job are worked out in the shops. In social studies periods the problems of budgeting and of purchasing foods, clothes, insurance, and other commodities likewise call for the use of simple arithmetic. In reading the emphasis is placed on understanding rather than on mere recognition, and the aim is to develop sufficient ability to permit the comprehension of printed signs, advertisements, simple directions on work sheets, headlines and captions in newspapers, and for the more competent children the news-sections of these papers. The use of verbal symbols to represent abstract ideas, either in reading or in speaking and writing, is not characteristic of people of low intellectual capacity, and all that we can expect of such individuals in reading is a recognition and understanding of relatively simple and concrete material.

Spelling, as far as formal teaching is concerned, has been dropped entirely. These pupils have had six years of formal spelling; therefore, only incidental instruction in this field is given as the need for it occurs in the written work of the social studies.

Physical education—The same amount of time as that given to academic skills—one-sixth of the school day—is devoted to physical edu-

²Two-thirds of the school consists of regular elementary classes.

cation, with the emphasis on games, sports, and sportsmanlike conduct. In a world of increasing leisure in which the criminal class is composed largely of underprivileged youth, it is vitally important that the mentally retarded, who are likely to have more spare time than they know how to use, be interested in activities which not only will furnish a desirable outlet during their leisure hours, but also will have a beneficial effect on their bodily health. The physical education program for these backward children is a direct attempt to meet these needs.

Manual activities and related studies—The introduction of more handwork into the special-class curriculum for mentally retarded pupils is nothing new. It is felt, however, that among older pupils, such as those making up the special classes in the Hanna School, the handwork should develop simple manual skills which will make the individual more competent vocationally as well as more useful in and about the home. No attempt is made to prepare the individual for a single vocation. Amid the vocational uncertainties of the modern world, the average person needs to be trained so that he may handle at least five or six jobs well. To provide such training in a school for the mentally retarded is impossible, but the child's general vocational competence as well as his social competence can be increased thru school training. These objectives are considered so important that one-third of each school day is devoted to shop activities.

Of the twelve classrooms available to these children, four have been converted into shops. One is the traditional "general shop," in which woodworking, metal-working, and simple electrical work are done. Another is the cooking room, in which the selection, purchasing, preparation, and serving of food are studied. Such activities are of primary importance in every home, and practically all of our pupils develop a competence that will be invaluable to them at home and, to some of them, in a vocation. One of our "graduates" returned to the school in less than six months to tell us that he had been promoted from dishwasher to assistant cook in a prominent chain of restaurants. Cooking ability is required in so many of the service jobs which pupils of this type obtain that its importance in our plan of vocational education cannot be doubted. Closely related to this work is the service shop, in which the pupil studies the job of houseman or housemaid, personal grooming, the mending and repair of clothing, the care of children, and the structure and care of a house, including house furnishing and buying. The value of such training for special-class pupils both in the home and on the job is obvious.

The fourth shop in our scheme of general vocational and home training is the diversified shop. Here are eighteen booths separated by heavy wire screening. Each booth is equipped for a different activity; a work

sheet outlining the steps in the job is mounted together with the necessary tools and materials on the side of the booth. In one booth are the two sashes of a window, which are used for practice in glazing and sash-cord installation. In another is an automobile motor, certain parts of which the boys learn to take down, repair, and reassemble. In another booth simple plumbing about the home is practiced, such as the installation of washers on spigots, the replacement of sections of pipe, and the repair of toilet hoppers. In still other booths floor-scraping and finishing, pipe-fitting, rigging, hardware assembly, bricklaying, package-wrapping, automobile tire-repairing, rope-tying, and other practical skills are practiced. Not only do the boys and some of the girls develop such skill in these commonplace activities as to qualify as "handyman" about the home, but they also discuss sources and prices of material, fair wages for labor, and other topics calculated to give them an understanding of, and a respect for, such forms of labor. In all of these shops the children obtain as complete a knowledge of the work from an industrial, a domestic, and a practical-arts point of view as their limited ability will permit.

Social studies—As in the case of manual activities, one-third of the school day is devoted to social studies. This program is not composed of formal geography, history, and civics. Neither can it be called an integration of these subjects altho it approaches the latter. It is rather a study of problems of living in the modern world, with emphasis on the vital and practical things of life. Practical health and current events are discussed during a part of every social studies period. The remainder of each period is devoted to the study of other important topics such as the following:

- A. Services of Government and Other Agencies
- B. The Workman—Vocational Guidance—Workmen's Compensation
- C. Insurance, Law, and Banking
- D. Automobile Driving
- E. Science of Everyday Life
- F. Philadelphia—A Study of Our City

In the limited space available here it is possible only to indicate a few of the high points in the children's study of these topics. In the study of health, for example, such practical questions as the following are discussed:

1. In what ways are the common housefly, mosquito, and rat a danger to your health?
2. What can we do in order to keep our food fit to eat?
3. What food should be given to a very young baby?
4. What should be the diet of a growing child?
5. What food substances are needed for a proper diet?
6. What precautions are necessary relative to the diet of sick people?
7. What are some of the factors besides food which help establish good health habits?

8. How should teeth be cleaned?
9. In what way do good teeth affect health?
10. How are contagious diseases spread?
11. What should we do when we get a cold?
12. What can I do if I have an infected finger? a splinter in my hand? a boil?
13. How should I take care of the various antiseptics and medicines which are used in the home? What should be in my medicine chest?
14. What are some of the symptoms of diseases common to children? What should be done when these symptoms appear?

The study of governmental and related services includes (1) a brief outline of the governmental setup of the city, including the family, the neighborhood, the school, and the ward; (2) the common kinds of taxes—their administration and use; (3) the police and court systems in elementary form; (4) the public utilities, both city owned and privately owned; (5) the city health service; (6) agencies for the care of the physically, mentally, socially, and economically handicapped; and (7) the city's recreational and cultural opportunities, public and private, including libraries, museums, and places of amusement.

The course of study on the workman and related subjects includes (1) the place and responsibility of management and labor; (2) the use of safety appliances and devices; (3) the main features of the Workmen's Compensation Act; (4) vocational opportunities in the neighborhood and in the city—brief studies of the nature of the different occupations; (5) methods of applying for jobs, and the qualities and qualifications required for various types of jobs; (6) practical problems arising in various jobs; (7) use of the telephone; (8) budgeting and saving for periods of unemployment; and (9) fundamental provisions of social security legislation.

In the course on insurance, law, and banking, some of the problems studied are as follows:

1. *Insurance*—Kinds; necessity for; relative cost of; mechanics of operating in elementary form; borrowing on insurance.

2. *Law*—Licenses (dog, car, amusement, professional and business, occupational, hunting, fishing, marriage, etc.); difference between owner and lessor of properties; responsibility for keeping sidewalks and areaways clear of snow and goods; responsibility for accidents occurring on one's property; mortgages, deeds, wills, taxes, court action, marriage, family obligations, etc.

3. *Banking*—Savings accounts, checking accounts, checks, notes, interest, receipts.

In the course on automobile driving no practical lessons are given (most of the children are not yet sixteen years of age), but a careful study of traffic rules and regulations is made. State pamphlets are secured and studied by each pupil; driving problems are raised and solved with toy automobiles on the floor of the classroom; hazards and safety measures are discussed; and state motor police visit and address the classes. The mechanical features of the automobile are studied in the diversified shop.

The study of science in everyday life includes the weather, combustion, refrigeration, air conditioning, heating, foods, household equipment, sound and light, water, air, seeds, magnets, and simple electricity—all treated in practical problem form.

Conclusion—It may seem to some that the study of these things is the province of the higher schools. However, it must be remembered that while the pupils taking these courses are of higher school age, they are still in the elementary school. Every school system has its share of such pupils unless it promotes them on the basis of age and attempts to adjust them to the regular school curriculum at the higher levels. It is the premise of this article, however, that a radical departure from the regular school curriculum is necessary for our most retarded pupils and that a program of vital and practical experiences must be given them. In the words of the Philadelphia Public School Survey, "they are so near the time when they will be released from school attendance by the compulsory attendance law that the time they are in school should be largely devoted to the acquisition of manual skills and desirable social habits rather than to the acquisition of academic skills."³ The experimental curriculum outlined in this article is Philadelphia's attempt to do this. Since its introduction in the Hanna School in September 1936, this curriculum has been extended, with local modifications, to several other Philadelphia schools.⁴

³ Philadelphia Board of Public Education. *Elementary Education and Teacher Training*. Public School Survey, Vol. III. Philadelphia: the Board, 1937. p. 112.

⁴ Gladys G. Ide, director of special education, in cooperation with a staff of supervisors and principals of special schools, is responsible for the organization of this curriculum. Further information regarding it may be secured thru Dr. Ide or thru the author of this article.

THE duller child needs a cruder and more concrete stimulus. Half the problem of keeping the backward intellectually active consists in discovering right incentives. Whatever the child is set to do must embody some obvious purpose—a purpose in which he is interested and which his intelligence can readily grasp.—Burt, Cyril, *The Backward Child*, D. Appleton-Century Co., 1937, p. 624. (Quoted by permission of the publishers.)

PLANNING A CURRICULUM FOR THE MALADJUSTED CHILD

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TO PLAN A CURRICULUM in which personality and educational readjustments may be fostered, the teacher needs to be familiar with the child's total environment and to see clearly the relation of his school experiences to his total environment. She must learn to recognize individual differences in children and to discover the causes as well as the symptoms of specific maladjustments. The cause-and-effect relationships between personality problems and educational deviations must be carefully studied. The teacher's success in helping each child adjust himself to his schoolwork depends largely upon her interpretation of his behavior as a product of his own native tendencies and of the total pattern of life which surrounds him.

Adequate understanding and guidance of the child cannot be accomplished by the teacher alone. The cooperation of parents, principal, supervisor, and social agencies is necessary. If no child guidance specialists are available, the teacher necessarily becomes the organizer of information about the child and of efforts to improve his adjustment. In a school where small classes are possible and where the homeroom teachers keep the children during the greater part of the school day, such guidance may be provided without placing too great a burden upon the teacher.

At the beginning of a recent semester the writer of this article found herself in charge of a roomful of maladjusted children from several different grades. These pupils varied greatly in mental ability, in home surroundings and influences, in social maturity and interests, and in past school experiences. The class included immature children, those with nervous speech disorders, restless seven-year-olds whose bodies were growing too fast, tired children, those with specific learning difficulties, intelligent boys who could not read, and others who had never liked school. The only factor common to the whole group was that usual symptom of maladjustment—discouragement. Each child needed to be understood, guided, and loved.

With this general background in mind, the teacher set out to provide an atmosphere in which individual readjustments might be made. She refurnished the classroom, prepared to learn a" she could about each child, supplied a variety of suitable materials, and obtained permission from the school authorities to carry out her plans.

Contacts with parents—In order to understand more fully the causes of the children's maladjustments, the teacher paid informal visits to

the parents and invited them to come to the schoolroom at any time. A feeling of friendliness thus was fostered between parent and teacher. They talked over their problems without tension, asking help of each other. By observing the child's work in school and his play at home, they decided upon a school-and-home program which would facilitate personality and educational readjustment. This program perhaps called for a rest before supper, a change of routine at home, shorter assignments at school, extra help before school (never after school), or a different diet. Many mothers became interested in the parent education classes offered in the school; others borrowed magazines and books on mental hygiene and child training. These friendly contacts not only helped the child but lessened the strain at home and at school. Parents and teacher shared the load instead of working at cross-purposes.

Classroom furnishings—To provide a schoolroom atmosphere of quiet, restfulness, and order, the teacher with the help of an artist refurnished the bare room, keeping in mind the effect of color and arrangement upon the behavior of easily distracted children. Curtains, bulletin boards, pictures, bookshelves, and a reading corner were planned to attract rather than to distract, to quiet rather than to stimulate. The colors used by the artist were those which rest the eyes; the designs put on the curtains were suggestive of order and rhythm. An effort was made to include only articles of furniture which would add to the general plan. Overcrowding was avoided. The results were pleasing to both the children and the teacher.

Adjustable and removable desks for the children were arranged informally around the teacher's desk. Space between desks permitted freedom for moving about without disturbing others. Bright new pencils, crayons, two tablets, and practice paper were the only supplies kept in the children's desks. The children took great pride in their housekeeping, which was made easy by the simplicity of the materials to be cared for.

Reading materials—Books at different levels of difficulty were placed in the bookcases. Many easy, attractive supplementary booklets were arranged on wall shelves in such a way as to display their interesting covers. On the reading table were story and picture books purchased at the five-and-ten-cent stores. Stories typed by the teacher, directions for making things, scrapbook suggestions, and self-help reading "seat-work" prepared by the teacher were put in folders.

The daily program—In place of a rigid daily schedule, a flexible program of work was introduced. This program varied from day to day with each child. The teacher, after finding the appropriate level of difficulty for each pupil in reading and in arithmetic, guided him in the selection of materials at hand. After a few minutes of informal discus-

sion the individual activities and learning units were selected. After completing his assigned work the child was free to resume any individual project or necessary exercises in story-writing or reading. The hour from nine to ten o'clock was kept free for individual work. Necessary moving about was permitted, but no conversation was allowed except with the teacher.

The teacher believes that children should work alone and quietly for part of the day at least, and that an activity program properly includes mental as well as physical activity. High-strung, nervous, and overstimulated boys and girls need a quiet room in which to work and think.

Homework—Homework as such was discouraged, especially if any tension existed between parent and child over a specific learning difficulty. However, occasionally when a child asked to take home a certain book in which he was interested, permission was granted. Sometimes, if the children were writing stories in which individual word-lists or seasonal spelling words were used, the teacher typed these words for them to take home.

Parents at first wanted the children to do homework every night, but after talking over the problem with the teacher they decided that fresh air, play, time to eat, long hours of sleep, and a happy home atmosphere are more conducive to learning than is homework.

Rest periods—The teacher arranged for rest periods whenever advisable. If a child fell asleep during the rest period she did not awaken him. During extremely hot weather these rest periods were more frequent. Games, both active and quiet, were played at different times and not just at recess.

Socialized work—The socialized work was carried on in small groups with a minimum of confusion. Some children might be reading absorbing stories individually or working on a scrapbook at a table while two or three others were gathered around another table taking care of plants. Voices were kept low, and individual rights were considered. Too much group activity is bad for some children, just as too much individual work is harmful to others.

The teacher-child relationship—The relationship between teacher and child is so important that we need to be constantly checking and rechecking our reactions to the behavior of children. Too frequently we think of discipline as maintaining order thru fear. Modern teachers—students of child nature—cannot accept this definition of discipline. Self-control, even in the absence of the teacher, is our goal. To teach self-control, however, the teacher must exhibit this trait herself.

In the class under consideration here, the teacher made a conscious effort to maintain an objective viewpoint toward disturbing behavior

and to make the situation rather than the teacher supply the punishment. She kept her voice low, and instead of standing she sat at her desk in repose and talked informally with the children. She found that when they grew tired or excited or inattentive, they tended to imitate her calm manner and to lower their voices in tune with hers. The children seemed to like the "quiet hours" during which she read and talked to them about things in which they were interested.

Mental hygiene applied—To help the children overcome their common symptom, discouragement, competition among them was eliminated so far as possible. They soon learned to try for self-improvement rather than for a position of superiority in the group. Small units of success served as incentives to further effort. Regardless of his level of achievement, each child with the help of the teacher selected books which were easy enough for him to read with pleasure and understanding but sufficiently difficult to require his sustained effort. No stigma was attached to reading pre-primers; in fact, one boy voluntarily started with the simplest reading material, realizing that he had been attempting to read books too difficult for him. Many stories and books at one level of difficulty were read before the child went to a higher level. Fortunately, book companies are recognizing the need for a variety of reading materials in which the same vocabulary is used in different situations. How beautiful some of the new books are! One boy who never had read and who thought he didn't want to learn became interested in a colorful book on natural science, and after finishing this he read others on subjects which interested him. Reading thus became a means of finding out something he wanted to know.

Conclusion—As a result of these experiences, the children became happy, interested, and able to concentrate on their school tasks. They also made great progress in self-control, independence, and cooperation. Day by day their attitudes toward one another, toward their work, and toward the world in general showed a gradual improvement. While these gains were not measured by standardized tests given at the end of the year, they were quite evident to the teacher, the parents, and others who were well acquainted with the children.

ADAPTING INSTRUCTION IN BASIC SKILLS TO THE CHILD'S LEVEL OF MATURITY

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BEFORE THE ADVENT of the child-centered concept of education, all first-grade pupils were expected to master a given set of essentials—to read specified books, to spell certain words, and to display rote mastery of given mathematical concepts. Similarly the second grade, the third grade, and all the other grades had their skills to be learned. If a pupil failed he was held back and required to go thru the same procedure again. In those schoolrooms where teaching was reasonably efficient and where the children held back were not too intellectually impotent, standards were eventually met. Strangely enough, the success of this academic repetition was attributed almost wholly to teaching. The contribution of advancing maturity was disregarded and consequently received no credit for the ensuing improved achievement. Many teachers of the old school, altho accepting this criticism, will point out that good teachers had fewer failures than poor teachers, all other things being equal, and will contend that the solution, instead of requiring a revised program, simply requires more effective teaching.

FUTILITY OF THE MASTERY CONCEPT

Assuming that it would be possible to provide "good teaching" thruout all grades, it is interesting and enlightening to examine this contention purely from the standpoint of pupil potentiality. We know that in the pupil there are learning possibilities. Nearly all teachers have had the experience of observing learning not only at a "satisfactory" grade level but frequently far above it. In a certain reading readiness test, beginning first-grade children unable to read at all are taught in a few minutes to recognize and to pronounce several Spanish words. Since good teaching is possible, why not provide such teaching universally and achieve that degree of mastery which the old system attempted but so miserably failed to accomplish? Before this question can be answered it is necessary to consider the meaning of the word, "mastery."

To be able to reproduce material at the end of the learning period is not a satisfactory criterion of mastery, altho it has been practically the only criterion used in thousands of learning experiments. Much of the learning so appraised is superficial; it has no permanence and does not become integrated within the life of the child. Skills appar-

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ently mastered at examination time often fall to levels of mediocrity two months later.² In the conventional subject-matter program the child may be represented as having two "containers," one for those learnings which function in his life as he really lives it and one for those learnings which are poured, pressed, or drilled into him. This second container is like a leaky flower-sprinkler. If water can be poured in fast enough the sprinkler can be filled altho some water is running out all the time. Applying this analogy to learning, the child's container cannot be kept filled because at some point along the line the supply slackens and the container runs dry. All that is left are those learnings in the other container, which are really the products of general environmental influences (including those school experiences which have become integrated within the life of the child). How much more effective it would be if these environmental learnings could be broadened by planned teaching activities directed toward enrichment of experience, thereby eliminating the old method in which the only ultimate learnings were a byproduct of the system.

NATURAL MATURATION AS A FACTOR IN LEARNING

Learning is generally considered as the enabling activity which produces at a given time a proper response to a given set of stimuli. From the practical point of view, as already illustrated, this definition is lacking in one important concept, namely, that of "retention." In nearly all experiments involving evaluation of learning, the extent of mastery achieved has been ascertained immediately after the "learning" period. In those few experiments where a series of testings have been carried on for some time following the learning period, the data collected indicate that much of the so-called mastery is entirely mythical. Evidence is accumulating to show that the old idea of learning was faulty in assuming that the curve in a given skill rises rapidly with the help of teaching toward perfection and then continues on a level of 100-percent achievement. Such a curve seems to be entirely hypothetical and unwarranted by factual data.³ True learning appears to be a part of the general process of growth involving the whole child, beginning at a specific age and continuing toward a maximum compatible with the child's general physical-social development.⁴ From this point of view the functionalists have a significant argument for an integrative type of educational program.

² Millard, C. V. *Factors Conditioning Performance in Spelling*. University of Michigan Education Monographs. Ann Arbor, Mich.: the University, 1937. p. xi, 207.

³ Courtis, Stuart A. *The Measurement of Growth*. Ann Arbor, Mich.: Brumfield and Brumfield, 1932. p. 155-62.

⁴ Olson, Willard C. "The Concept of the Organism as a Whole: Interrelationships in Physical, Mental, Social and Emotional Development." *Pupil Development and the Curriculum*. Ann Arbor, Mich.: Bureau of Educational Reference and Research, 1937. p. 94-99.

Maturation as a factor in growth thus becomes an element in the learning process. It is true, as many experiments have shown, that children can learn correct responses to specific stimuli and can master thru drill many of the steps in a specific skill which have no relationship whatever to the life experiences of the child. As time passes and the child turns to other unrelated phases of learning, the natural converse of laws of learning seems to operate. Thru discontinuation of drill and failure to use the skill in meaningful situations, the curve falls downward until it reaches the child's general level of maturity at that particular time.

This point was clearly illustrated in a recent experiment in the Henry Ford School. In a fifth grade the pupils were tested in spelling on a list of 150 words ranging from very easy to very difficult words. Tests were given for some time before specific teaching was begun and again for some time following the teaching period. This plan of testing was followed in order to obtain a picture of growth before teaching, during the teaching period, and for a period of time after teaching. During the preteaching period, in which learning was entirely incidental (environmental in its broadest sense), the curve showed a gradual increase. Specific teaching produced a faster increase and at the end of the teaching period the curve approximated mastery. After the teaching period the words again were met only incidentally as they occurred in the total learning situation. Tests during this period indicated a rapid fall in the curve, with subsequent growth which was almost identical in rate with that shown before specific teaching was introduced. The experiment showed clearly the waste of effort involved in teaching certain skills which are not integrated with the general experience or learning environment of the child.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE NEW CONCEPTION OF LEARNING

Instead of testing large numbers of children from a common grade level at a given time, the tendency today is in the direction of a testing program which provides consecutive measures of the same children over a period of years. As a result of this trend new facts are being brought to light concerning the nature of the learning curve. The data indicate that children grow naturally toward definite maxima which are only temporarily affected by specific teaching. Data collected on an individual child with respect to several aspects of his growth, when arrayed, indicate that a given learning curve is merely a reflection of the child's general growth pattern.⁵ The conclusion drawn from such findings is that learning, to be effective, needs to be identified with the child's own social-physical stage of maturity. The progressive

⁵ Olson, Willard C., *ibid.*

school realizes that to stimulate him above this level creates an unnatural condition and that the loss following such learning activities represents a waste of time and effort.

When the learning of skills is delayed until such time as the child realizes a real need for them, the learning curve follows naturally the child's general curve of development, and the status of his achievement at any time is compatible with his interests and his social-physical stage of maturity. Hence, the progressive teacher does not become alarmed if certain pupils who appear normal seem to advance slowly. With these children pressure is no longer used to drive them toward unnaturally high standards. The teacher is now aware that most children at the lower grade levels who appear to be slow in learning early skills are more likely than not to be pupils with delayed starting points—a phenomenon indicative of the child's general growth pattern and something little affected by specific teaching. In many instances, supposedly slow children in the lower grades will begin on their curves at the third-grade level and by the time they reach the fifth grade will outstrip others who began earlier but progressed at a much slower rate of learning.

In the upper elementary grades a teacher may be disappointed in the academic achievement of a child as measured by a given standard test, but may find that the following year marked improvement has been made. Probably a graph of the child's progress will indicate natural growth thruout both grades, and the exceptional rise at a particular grade level will be seen as the rapid early rise of the newly beginning adolescent curve. Such children need not be driven or given excessive drill because they appear to be reaching a standstill. In terms of growth the child may be approaching a natural maximum which is little affected by drill and remedial exercises. Thus, the evidence of a standstill may be found to be faulty, and progress hitherto interpreted as unsatisfactory may be found to be perfectly normal.

These new facts about the learning curve undoubtedly will have a marked effect on future instruction. Variation will be provided in the time at which instruction is begun, and account will be taken of individual differences in rates of progress and in the ultimate goals which children will be expected to achieve.

EVIDENCES OF TRANSITION IN EDUCATIONAL PRACTICE

Not so long ago the emphasis in elementary education was placed almost entirely on learning the skill subjects. These subjects, taught independently thru drills without any integrating relationships, occupied practically the entire time of the teacher and pupils. Even in the first grade the teaching was so arranged. Individual interests were

ignored and individual needs were entirely unrecognized. Subject-matter was broken into grade levels and children were required to learn to read, write, spell, and do arithmetic regardless of whether the words or numbers had any meaning. Educational requirements were entirely standardized and all children were expected to achieve the same degree of mastery.

In these transition years, as a result of recent psychological findings, there is an increasing shift in emphasis from the mastery of skill subjects to the utilization of skills as a means to a richer, fuller, more significant life. In the better schools the basic skills are not taught as ends in themselves with fixed standards of achievement at all grade levels. Instead, they are taught so as to provide children with techniques for genuine functional applications. Consequently, skills are introduced when the child realizes a need for a given technic. As a result of the growing acceptance of this principle, certain processes formerly introduced at a low grade level do not appear until some time later—in some instances much later. Parents who realize this situation frequently become worried and make an appeal to the school. Sympathy with their point of view is desirable and is usually given, for we all have been indoctrinated with the old concept and regardless of the liberality of our thinking we cannot quite be sure that the child will not miss some "essential." A ray of encouragement is found in the results of our newer school programs, which show that the ultimate product of the schools, altho incapable of handling at an early age certain essentials that his father or mother now *think* they knew, will eventually far surpass in his application of skills the achievement of a former generation. Evidence is now beginning to appear from the earlier progressive centers to show that the child in the lower grades of such schools is usually below generally accepted achievement levels, but that the child in the upper grades far surpasses the ordinary subject-matter standards.⁶

In many modern schools, skills grow out of activities which are intelligently initiated and planned by the children themselves. Meaning and purpose dominate the selection of subjectmatter, and nothing is included that does not appear to have a functional value.

In the better schools the textbook has a new function. Instead of containing an arbitrarily established unit of subjectmatter which governs the entire teaching activity, the book serves as a device for enrichment by providing desired information and for stimulating the interest of the child. Basic textbooks are now regarded by many as a rapidly passing characteristic of the old educational order. Pupils formerly

⁶ Wrightstone, J. Wayne. "Achievement in Conventional and Progressive Schools." *Progressive Education* 13: 389-95; May 1936.

read one or two books in a given field. Today the pupil finds a dozen or more books available. Reading becomes a tool for obtaining information for which the pupil feels a real need, or it becomes a recreational or leisure activity. In the lower grades, reading materials are frequently developed from experiences of the children. Other alternatives to textbooks are the children's own drawing and writing efforts, scrap-books, cutting and pasting materials, work sheets, and games and puzzles. Firsthand experiences, dramatics, discussions, and excursions utilize much of the time once given to formal reading.

In progressive classrooms the acquisition of skills is facilitated by individualized methods of teaching. The amount of time required for practice in learning a skill is adapted to individual needs. Children who have mastered a given skill before direct instruction begins are discovered thru a pre-test and may then be excused from the practice periods which follow. This procedure is not new, but whereas under the old system the pupil who was excused from practice had no constructive work to do because of the rigidity of the daily schedule, the newer system with its opportunities for participating in purposeful individual and group activities eliminates this undesirable feature of the older system. Special help and clinical aids are now brought into use with the slow pupil, and the latter consequently is released from the pressure which was a continual threat to his sense of security under the old system.

In the lower grades of many schools, particularly at the first- and second-grade levels, the need for the teaching of certain skills is only occasionally present, and consequently such teaching is delayed considerably. The time instead is devoted to activities and experiences in harmony with the child's interests and environmental needs. Actual achievement in the skill subjects frequently occurs, however, as a part of the child's informal, incidental learnings. As often as not, such learnings begin outside the school and are enriched both thru the child's activities outside the school and thru his experiences in the school. In this way children may acquire skill in reading, arithmetic, spelling, and other tool subjects quite as effectively as thru a routinized, pigeon-holed program of direct teaching.

Flexible standards of pupil achievement are much more common today than in the past. Formal conceptions of what "Grade II" and "Grade IV" mean are beginning to disappear. Teachers are learning that the children in a typical grade represent a range of several years in achievement. They know, for example, that some children in Grade IV may find it necessary to work with Grade II materials. Repetitive, after-school remedial methods for these children are declining in popularity. Grades, promotion marks, and formalized goals receive less

emphasis than formerly, and marks are more often expressed in qualitative rather than quantitative terms.

The grouping of children according to their social maturity and interests, the utilization of self-teaching and self-testing devices, and the breaking down of subjectmatter into functionalized units have done much to harmonize the teaching of skills with the vital experiences of an enriched curriculum. The child learns to assume some of the responsibility for his progress, to appraise his efforts, and to plan for his further growth. Thus, the atmosphere of the progressive classroom with its freedom, mobility, self-expression, creative activity, and flexibility is not ill adapted to the learning of essential skills. The substitution of a classroom in which children are reconstructing a city or running a newspaper, for a subject-learning classroom with its daily regimented routine does not necessarily interfere with drill requirements. Administrators and teachers who have worked with an experience curriculum know that subjectmatter whose value has already been partially experienced in connection with some meaningful activity will become a definitely recognized tool for carrying on current activities efficiently, and that the need for review, drill, and further practice with similar or related subjectmatter will reveal itself naturally to the teachers and pupils concerned.

By failing to take full cognizance of child development, a teacher loses the greatest stimulus to her own growth and development. But when a teacher attempts really to understand the children she is working with, really to make the curriculum an integral part of each child's developmental processes, even though her knowledge and her skill are sadly inadequate, she will tend to develop with the children, and she will come increasingly closer to success, as does anyone who attempts to work with, and not against, nature.—Washburne, Carleton, in *Child Development and the Curriculum*, Thirty-Eighth Yearbook, Part I, National Society for the Study of Education, 1939, Chapter 19, p. 394. (Quoted by permission of the Society.)

INDIVIDUALIZING THE READING PROGRAM IN THE
PRIMARY GRADES

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AS A RESULT of their observation of reading classes during the spring of 1937, the principals of five elementary schools¹ and the general supervisor of primary grades in Denver agreed that it would be valuable to see what more might be done to care for the differences in reading abilities which were apparent in all rooms visited. These differences were pronounced in spite of the fact that the teachers had taken some steps to adapt their procedures to the needs of the individual pupils. Each teacher had divided her class into two or more groups and had provided easy reading materials for the weaker groups. Since the results were not all that could be desired, an experimental program was undertaken to improve the situation.

THE PROGRAM AS A WHOLE

Three of the schools in which the program was carried on are platoon schools while the other two are unit-type schools. Two of them are in neighborhoods above the average economically and socially; two are in good middle-class districts; and one is in a district somewhat below the average. Two of the principals are young women and the others are young men.

Preliminary activities—Before school closed in the spring of 1937, the principal of each building met with the teachers who would teach reading in Grades I to III the following fall. The general supervisor met with all of the groups. At each of these meetings the principal discussed the need for individualizing the teaching of reading. He said he was curious to know what could be accomplished in the primary grades of that building and wondered if the teachers would care to work with him and the supervisor on this problem during the next school year. In each school the principal's suggestion was unanimously and enthusiastically accepted as a challenging problem for the year 1937-38.

The principal asked what might be done immediately to prepare for the work in the fall, and the following suggestions were given:

1. That plans be made to give reading tests as soon as possible after school opened in the fall.
2. That a bibliography of suggestive books and articles be prepared and given to each teacher for use during the summer.
3. That the teachers acquaint themselves with the reading materials allocated to the grades below their own, since such materials might be used with slow readers in the higher grades.

¹ Douglas B. Ellis, Eagleton School; Edith M. Erb, McKinley School; Arthur M. Gruenler, Stevens School; Frances M. Noar, Teller School; and Leon E. Slavens, Lincoln School.

4. That the teachers go over the reading materials allocated to their own grades, including both sets and individual titles, for the purpose of selecting those suitable for rapid and slow learners.

Before school closed in the spring each teacher was given a short, carefully selected bibliography and some typewritten suggestions for reading instruction applicable to her particular grade. Most of the books recommended were available in the school system's administration library.

The testing program—As soon as the classes were adjusted in September, the children were given a group intelligence test and a reading test. From these tests the mental ages and reading ages were computed and made available to the teachers. The tests used were as follows:

1. The *Detroit Beginning First-Grade Intelligence Test*² and the *Metropolitan Readiness Tests*² in the beginning first grade
2. The *Detroit Advanced First-Grade Intelligence Test*² (Form A) and the *Gates Primary Reading Tests*³ (Form 1) in the advanced first grade and the beginning second grade
3. The *Detroit Primary Intelligence Test*⁴ for Grades II, III, and IV (Form C), and the *Gates Primary Reading Tests* (Form 1) in the advanced second grade and the beginning and advanced third grades.

In February 1938 all of the groups were given Form 2 of the *Gates Primary Reading Tests*. Many pupils in the second and third grades made perfect scores on this test and were immediately retested by means of the *Gates Silent Reading Tests*, Grades III to VIII Series, Form 1. In June 1938 the groups were tested again. At this time Form 1 of the *Gates Primary Reading Tests* was used for the first grades and for some of the second grades. The advanced series of the *Gates Silent Reading Tests* was used for most of the second-grade pupils and all of the third-grade pupils.

Use of test results—When the results of the September tests were available, the principal and supervisor met with each teacher to determine adjustments on the basis of the test results and the judgments of the teacher and principal. The tests revealed six general types of pupils in each grade:

1. Those who were chronologically old for the grade in which they were located and who read well above the average for that grade
2. Those who were correctly placed chronologically but who read well above their grade level
3. Those who were correctly placed chronologically and had high mental ages but poor reading scores
4. Those who were correctly placed chronologically and had relatively low mental ages but reading ages above expectations
5. Those who were correctly placed chronologically but whose mental and reading ages were far below the level of the grade in which they were located

² Published by the World Book Co., Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York.

³ Published by the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York.

⁴ Published by the Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Illinois.

6. Those whose chronological, mental, and reading ages were about what they should be for the grade in which they were located.

Unless there was some extraordinary reason for keeping a child where he was, the pupils in Group 1 were moved into higher grades and in most cases did good work where they were placed. For those in Group 2 a varied and enriched program was provided. They were given access to much additional reading material, were eliminated from most class instruction, were encouraged to use their reading in a variety of ways, and were used as helpers for slower pupils.

Every effort was made to locate the causes of the trouble in the cases of pupils in Group 3. Eyes were tested, physical records were examined, parents were consulted, tests for different reading technics were given, and interests were probed. After causes were discovered special help was provided, and many of these pupils showed great improvement during the year.

In Group 4 great care was exercised not to have the children encounter discouragements in their reading experiences. Their accomplishments were praised and ample easy material was put in their way. New technics were introduced slowly and much interesting practice was provided.

Group 5 was small and the teachers studied the pupils much as they did those in Group 3, trying to find something that might be done to help them. The materials provided and the technics used were on the lower grade levels. These pupils were assigned to pupil helpers for additional attention. Reading interests were not unduly stressed in their school experiences.

Most of the pupils in Group 6 were provided with the materials ordinarily furnished for their own grades and they developed the skills expected at their levels in a satisfactory manner.

After the February tests were given, each teacher met with the principal and supervisor again to discuss the results of the second testing and to make further adjustments in the assignments of individual pupils. The results of the tests given in June were utilized in planning a continuation of the individualized program for 1938-39.

Teachers meetings and supervisory assistance—Once during the first semester the teachers of each grade in the five buildings met with the principals and the supervisor. At this meeting each teacher told what she was doing to care for the differences in her group. Each teacher brought samples of materials she had used. She also discussed the books for pupils which she had found most helpful.

The general supervisor visited the reading classes in each room at least twice a month thruout the year. Sometimes she merely observed the work in company with the principal. Sometimes, at the teacher's

request, she taught or observed certain phases of the teacher's procedure. The supervisor also had many conferences with teachers on their individual problems before and after school. She and the principals prepared suggestions for teaching reading on each grade level and helped to secure reading materials suitable for the levels found in each room.

The principals took an active part in the reading activities in their own buildings. They helped with the instruction and frequently took charge of classes to allow teachers to visit in the other schools participating in the experiment. They helped to select and provide reading materials, consulted with parents, conferred with the teachers and the supervisor, and did the testing.

ILLUSTRATIVE PROCEDURES

The general plan adopted by the primary teachers of the five schools was as follows: (1) to uncover the real interests and needs of the pupils; (2) to promote reading as one delightful means of satisfying these interests and needs; (3) to discover the reading abilities of their pupils; (4) to provide an adequate supply of pertinent materials which would be easy enough to encourage the slowest readers and difficult enough to challenge the strongest readers; and (5) to provide instruction and practice tending toward the elimination of any apparent weaknesses. The following pages tell briefly how this plan was worked out in three different classrooms.

First classroom—This room was composed of beginning and advanced second-grade children in a platoon school. When the pupils returned to school in September they and the teacher shared vacation experiences. Strangely enough, every one of the boys and girls had attended a small circus in the immediate neighborhood just before school opened. They were all excited about the animals and clowns. During the conversations these children asked many questions about the habits and training of the animals. The teacher listed their questions on the blackboard, and at her suggestion the children decided to try to find answers to them thru reading. Each child chose two animals to learn more about. The group then made a bibliography of the animal, circus, and zoo stories found in the books in their own room and in the books provided for the grades below. In developing this bibliography they made constant use of the tables of contents in the different books. The library teacher helped them find additional material during the library periods. They found much interesting material in pre-primers, primers, and first and second readers as well as in magazines, newspapers, and books brought from home or public libraries.

The teacher guided the strong readers to the more difficult materials and encouraged them to read widely. These capable pupils read

independently and reported to the class at appropriate times. Often they read aloud to classmates, to the teacher, or to some other interested person certain parts of stories which they had selected.

The teacher found that she needed to have two groups of eight to twelve pupils each with whom she worked daily. These children needed help with such technics as those involved in using the materials in books to get the answers to their questions, selecting just the parts of books needed, reading orally well enough to hold an audience, and remembering common words. After each lesson in which the pupils and the teacher studied together, the pupils were given immediate opportunity to practice the technics independently. These two groups gained much during the year.

One group of eight children did little independent reading. The teacher and several pupil helpers worked with these children two or three times a day. They needed to increase their sight vocabularies, to learn to use phonetic aids, and to learn to read several sentences in order to answer a direct question. They also needed much oral reading practice.

The circus unit held the interest of most of the pupils for six weeks. A few children tired of it and were given other reading materials. During this time each child designed and made, in the art periods, a mask or costume to represent his favorite animal. As a culmination of the unit they invited their mothers to a reading program. At this program they dressed up in their costumes and masks, exhibited the books they had read, and told of the interesting things they had learned—things they had sought in order to answer their own questions, and things they had not thought to ask about but had found in their reading.

During the remainder of the year this class developed reading units about such interests as Halloween fun, Christmas, fire prevention, valentine fun, spring work, safety, and farm helpers. The following are some of the books used:

1. *Animal Tales*—Keliher and Zirbes
2. *Baby Animal Zoo*—Nida
3. *Beast, Bird and Fish*—Morrow
4. *Big Top*—Poque
5. *Bobbs-Merrill Readers, Book II*—Baker and Baker
6. *Children's Own Readers, Book I*—Pennell and Cusack
7. *Circus*—Johnson
8. *The Circus Comes to Town*—Hutchinson
9. *Circus Fun*—Smart and others
10. *Dinty the Porcupine, True Story Series*—Baker and Baker
11. *Elephant Twins*—Hogan
12. *Elson Basic Readers, Book I*—Elson and Gray
13. *Elson Basic Readers, Book II*—Elson and Gray
14. *Everyday Classics, Second*—Baker and others
15. *Ezra the Elephant*—Barrows
16. *Fifty Flags, True Story Series*—Baker and Baker

17. *Friends in Town and Country*—Baker
18. *Hop, Skip and Jump*—Aldis
19. *Johnny Crow's Garden*—Brooke
20. *Johnny Giraffe*—Barrows
21. *Learn to Study Readers, Book I*—Horn and Shields
22. *New Friends, New Silent Readers, Book I*—Lewis and others
23. *Now and Long Ago, Third Reader*—Dopp and others
24. *Pet Club*—Masters
25. *Progressive Road to Reading, Book II*—Burchill and others
26. *Science Stories, Books I and II*—Beauchamp
27. *Stories of Animals and Other Stories, Second Reader*—White and Hanthorn
28. *The Story of Babar*—de Brunhoff
29. *Surprise Stories*—Hardy
30. *Tooky*—Hader
31. *Wait for William*—Flack
32. *Wide Windows*—English

Second classroom—This room was also in a platoon school and contained forty pupils, some in the advanced third grade and some in the beginning fourth grade. These children and their teacher likewise shared their summer experiences after returning to school. Most of the children had taken vacation trips. They had gone to places on the Atlantic Ocean, places on the Pacific Ocean, Yellowstone Park, Carlsbad Caverns, Alaska, and different places in Colorado. After they had told of their good times and been questioned by their companions, they decided to find out more about the places they had visited and to select other places they would like to visit. They divided themselves into groups and took such names as "Atlantic group," "Alaska group," etc. Each group had a table in the room upon which to display things they had collected during the summer or collections from places where they wished to go. On these tables were road maps, railroad timetables, booklets from chambers of commerce, post cards, souvenirs, and many books of travel brought from home and other places. Wall maps and globes were in constant use thruout the development of the unit. These pupils also made a bibliography of pertinent reading materials available in their grades and in the grades below.

There was a wide range of reading ability within each travel group in this room. The homeroom teacher and library teacher helped each child in each group to find material on his topic which he could read with at least a fair degree of satisfaction. Strong readers were excused from daily instructional periods, but were encouraged to detect their own difficulties with unusual pronunciations or involved meanings and to ask for help. Sometimes the teacher brought the whole class together to introduce a new technic or to assist on a common problem.

A thirty-five-minute period was provided for daily work with the very slow pupils from all of the travel groups. At this time the teacher helped the pupils to acquire a larger sight vocabulary; to gain ability

in learning new and unfamiliar words thru contextual clues and phonetic analysis; to select key parts of books or magazines to answer their questions; to read a paragraph or a page quickly and select just what was needed; to get the main thought in a selection; and to forecast what was to follow on the basis of previous statements.

With the very weakest pupils, considerable oral reading was necessary to show how they were grouping the ideas in their reading. Capable pupil helpers were appointed to give additional aid to these especially weak readers. The strongest readers enjoyed writing short accounts of their readings and keeping these in personal notebooks. They were not satisfied to read without some check and decided upon the notebook idea.

This unit occupied seven weeks and led directly into a foreign travel unit. Books especially enjoyed were the following:

1. *Best Stories*—Hardy
2. *City Friends*—Dearborn
3. *Child Story Readers*, Third—Freeman and others
4. *Children's Own Readers*, Book III—Pennell and Cusack
5. *Down the River Road*, Alice and Jerry Books—O'Donnell and Carey
6. *Friendly Village*, Alice and Jerry Books—O'Donnell and Carey
7. *Friends About Us*—Storm
8. *Friends to Know*, Friendly Hour Series—Leavell and others
9. *If I were Going*, Alice and Jerry Books—O'Donnell and Carey
10. *Neighbors and Helpers*—Storm
11. *Neighbors Near and Far*, A Third Reader—Wahlert and Hahn
12. *New Stories and Old*—Martin
13. *Real Life Readers*, Second Reader—Martin
14. *Round About*, Alice and Jerry Books—O'Donnell and Carey
15. *Summer by the Sea*—Smith
16. *Tales and Travels*—Martin
17. *The Treasure Box*, A Third Reader—Withers and others
18. *Trips to Take*—Withers and others
19. *Visits Here and There*, Second Reader—Harris
20. *Winston Companion Readers*, Third—Trueman and Mallby
21. *Wonder World*, New Silent Readers—Lewis and Rowland

Third classroom—In this room, which was not in a platoon school, were thirty-eight pupils just entering the first grade. The initial reading experiences of these children were based upon stories composed by the children about their own activities. The three or four sentences comprising each story were placed on the blackboard as they were dictated. Later they were put on newsprint charts and were used in teaching the steps in beginning reading. The stories dealt with such things as the children's pets, their play, and their family activities.

As soon as a child had mastered any step in learning to read, such as the ability to match sentences, phrases, or words on the charts, or the ability to compose sentences from words he knew, he was given exercises using this step. These exercises were done independently.

Many of them had been prepared by the teacher during the summer. She had some eighty envelopes in each of which were attractive pictures and a story with some cut-up sentences or phrases to be put together or some other appropriate device for checking. These eighty exercises were arranged in sets. For example, Set I was about the family. The first story in this set was called "Our Family;" the second was called "What I Do;" and the third was called "What Mother Does." Set II was about pets and contained stories entitled "Kinds of Pets," "Our Dog," and "Our Bird." No set was duplicated. The teacher was guided in her selection and organization of these materials by the content and vocabularies of the pre-primers and primers furnished for the beginning first-grade children. Commercial workbooks provided some exercises for independent readers. When a child showed sufficient power he was given pre-primers and later primers to read.

When several children reached about the same reading level, they were grouped together and pupil leaders were chosen to guide the group in reading activities when the teacher was not with them. These leaders grew amazingly in the ability to help the other members of their group. Before the end of the semester there were six such groups. During the semester the strongest groups read all the sets prepared by the teacher plus fifteen or twenty books, including those furnished by the school and those brought from home and from libraries. The slowest group read the equivalent of three primers during the same period.

While interest in the content of the material was uppermost in all reading activities, persistent attention was given to the development of abilities which would make possible more and more enjoyment and use of reading. The teacher helped all pupils to acquire a meaningful basic vocabulary, the power to identify new and unfamiliar words thru contextual clues and phonetic analysis, and the ability to find answers to questions, to reproduce what is read, and to read well orally.

By allowing able children to read independently the teacher could devote more time to those who needed much practice under her direction. This is especially important with initial reading experiences. Adjustments within the groups were made frequently as the result of differing rates of development, extended illness, and other important factors.

Among the books used were these:

1. *At Home and Away*, Unit Activity Readers—Smith
2. *Bobbs-Merrill Primer*—Baker and Baker
3. *Boys and Girls at School, First Primer*—White and Hanthorn
4. *David's Friends at School*, Curriculum Foundation Series—Hanna and others
5. *Day In and Day Out*, Alice and Jerry Books—O'Donnell and Carey

6. *Elson Basic Preprimer*—Elson and Gray
7. *Elson Basic Primer*—Elson and Gray
8. *Friends*, Children's Own Readers—Pennell and Cusack
9. *Frolic and Do-Funny*, Children's Own Readers—Pennell and Cusack
10. *Here and There*, Alice and Jerry Books—O'Donnell and Carey
11. *In City and Country*, Unit Activity Readers—Smith
12. *Peter's Family*, Curriculum Foundation Series—Hanna and others
13. *Rides and Slides*, Alice and Jerry Books—O'Donnell and Carey
14. *Round About*, Alice and Jerry Books—O'Donnell and Carey
15. *Tom's Trip*, Unit Activity Readers—Smith
16. *Toots in School*—Baker and Baker

THE PROGRAM IN RETROSPECT

1. Twenty-four teachers participated in this program. The plans of class organization and the approach to reading problems used were quite new to many of them. All were not equally successful in putting the plans into operation. Even those in the same building differed considerably in this respect. The greatest success came to the teachers who were most willing to experiment, who were not afraid to change their former procedures. At the end of the year all agreed that only a beginning had been made in meeting individual differences in reading classes, and that they were curious to find out what another year's work would bring forth.

2. It was demonstrated in many of the classes that all of the reading in the primary grades could be improved in response to child interests and needs when properly guided by the teacher.

3. Children thoroly enjoyed initiating their own reading activities, and it helped them to develop self-confidence.

4. A great variety of reading material besides that provided by the schools was brought into the classrooms thru pupils, teachers, friends, and parents. Much wider use was made of local libraries than had been made in previous years.

5. Parents participated in the reading activities of their children by helping them find materials to solve their problems.

6. Teachers found that classes of thirty-eight or forty children could be divided into groups of six or seven on the basis of reading ability with great benefit to all. They came to realize that in every class there were pupils who needed no formal instruction in reading technics. Pupils with severe reading handicaps enjoyed reading easy materials on the same topics as the other children because it enabled them to contribute to class discussions. They did not resent the special helps or the easy reading materials provided. Most pupils grew remarkably in their ability to read independently and to check their own reading.

7. Pupil helpers grew remarkably in the ability to guide the members of small groups while the teacher was engaged with other groups.

8. Drill to improve needed skills and abilities was purposeful because those getting such drill realized their deficiencies. These pupils grew in the ability to detect their own difficulties and to ask for help.

9. Interpretation and use of test results became important factors to principals and teachers in the grouping of pupils. These test results gave an indication of what might reasonably be expected of individual pupils.

10. The ranges in reading ability within the classes of the five schools were not as great as might have been expected. For example, in September the reading ages in the advanced second grades ranged as follows for sentence reading on the *Gates Primary Reading Tests*:

School 1: from 6 years 7 months to 8 years 11 months

School 2: from 7 years 3 months to 8 years 11 months

School 3: from 7 years 5 months to 8 years 11 months

School 4: from 6 years 8 months to 8 years 11 months

School 5: from 6 years 10 months to 8 years 11 months

In February the reading ages in the third grade ranged as follows on the *Gates Silent Reading Tests*, Grades III to VIII Series, Type D:

School 1: from 8 years 3 months to 10 years 7 months

School 2: from 8 years 3 months to 11 years 7 months

School 3: from 8 years 3 months to 15 years 7 months

School 4: from 8 years 1 month to 15 years 3 months

School 5: from 8 years 3 months to 12 years 7 months

11. The final tests in June showed that while a few pupils apparently had not grown in reading ability, many of them had grown by leaps and bounds. Most of the pupils showed considerably more than a year's growth in their reading ages.

FROM the very day on which the teaching of reading is begun, the teacher's objectives should be threefold: (1) teaching the child *how* to read, (2) teaching him to *like* to read, and (3) guiding him in *what* to read. Each of these objectives is related to the others, and any one of them is relatively worthless without the other two. Little has been accomplished if the child has been taught merely *how* to read.—White, Margaret L., in *Newer Practises in Reading in the Elementary School*, Seventeenth Yearbook, Department of Elementary School Principals, 1938, p. 520.

ENRICHMENT FOR POOR READERS THRU A REMEDIAL READING PROGRAM

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WORK IN REMEDIAL READING was started in the Floral Park schools in February 1938. In each school a small room was equipped with a desk or table, a bookcase, and chairs for the child and the remedial reading teacher. Books were selected ranging from pre-primers thru sixth-grade readers. There was sufficient variety of reading material at each grade level to enable each child to read material of special interest to him. Books were chosen also on the basis of clear print so that their physical make-up would not be a handicap in the reading situation. Care was always taken to place the child so that light came over one shoulder with sufficient intensity to avoid any difficulty in seeing the printed page. All remedial work was carried on individually.

Selection of poor readers—The selection of children for this work was made on the basis of failure to read up to the level of the grade in which they were placed and failure to carry on successful work in that grade. The range of grades represented in these reading cases was from the first grade thru the eighth grade, with a majority of the cases at the fifth-grade level. The mental level of the children was ascertained so that no child was expected to read beyond his capacity. Following is the distribution of poor readers according to their grade placement:

Grade	Number of children	Boys	Girls
I	6	2	4
II	6	5	1
III	4	2	2
IV	3	2	1
V	12	8	4
VI	8	5	3
VII	1	0	1
VIII	2	2	0
Total	42	26	16

As group tests of achievement were given all children at the end of each school year, it was not deemed advisable to retest these children by means of formal reading examinations. So often, in the experience of the remedial reading teacher, the results of standardized reading tests have given children too high a rating in relation to their ability to take a new book and read fluently at the grade level indicated by

the test results. Therefore, the test of these children's ability to read was made by actual reading in books which they had never seen before. At the end of the first three tutoring periods the remedial reading teacher knew definitely each child's reading level, the types of errors each child made, and the unknown words in the reading material so far. A careful record of all this information was kept in a loose-leaf notebook. The number of weeks of treatment for each child depended upon his improvement, which was in turn dependent upon several factors which will be discussed later.

Remedial technics used—The length of the individual tutoring period for each child was twenty minutes. In one school this period was given three times a week. In the other school it was given only twice a week because of the larger number of children in that school. The twenty-minute period gave the child time to read new material, to tell what he had read, and to show the remedial teacher that he had learned the words he had missed two days before.

The words missed each day were typed on cards at night by this teacher and were given to the child the next day to take home and learn. This brought the parents into the situation in a way that showed them concretely some of the child's difficulties in learning to read. The words were typed on a regular typewriter instead of a primer typewriter because the latter distorts some of the words by separating the letters more than they are separated in the books the children are given to read. Moreover, the words typed on a regular typewriter are more nearly the size of the printed words in the books. When children have learned the typed words, they are more likely to read them correctly in the books than if they had learned them originally from large cards held up in front of the class. Hand-printed words are less likely to resemble printed words in books because the hand-printing is usually larger and often irregular.

The typewritten word cards became valuable also in discovering the child's understanding of the words missed. The child was asked to tell the meaning of the word and to use it in a sentence. Some children who were handicapped in reading the printed page did not need this type of work as their oral vocabulary was very well developed because of an excellent spoken English background in the home. Other children had a very meager oral vocabulary because of environmental conditions at home. The majority of these cases came from homes where a foreign language was used customarily by the parents. Children with low vocabulary ability will fail in comprehension of material read even though they are taught to pronounce all the words on the printed page. These two phases of reading ability—the recognition of word symbols and the comprehension of material read thru the development of word mean-

ings—must go hand in hand if children are to be successful in their schoolwork and if they are to enjoy reading books.

The use of phonics with these remedial reading cases was omitted until the children had built up a sizable reading vocabulary. For the children with uncorrected eye defects and especially those with eye-muscle imbalance, phonics had to remain a closed book until these handicaps were removed. Success in the use of phonics for independent word recognition depends upon the child's ability to see the correct symbols for the sounds and at the same time to hear those sounds perfectly. Therefore, adequate vision plus a sensitive visual area of the brain must go hand in hand with a keen sense of hearing and a sensitive auditory area of the brain before skill in the use of phonics can be achieved.

The emphasis in tutoring children who are reading failures must be placed upon oral reading, as that is the only way the teacher can tell what the child is actually reading and discover his errors and his vocabulary limitations. After the causes of his reading disability are cured and some real skill in reading is developed, silent reading is in order. Too many children are plunged into difficult silent reading before they have acquired either a sufficient reading vocabulary or an adequate oral vocabulary. Such children become and remain our reading failures.

During the tutoring period the remedial teacher noted many physical signs which led to a diagnosis of the child's failure in reading. A large majority of these failures showed nervous reactions, such as nail-biting and jerky movements of the hands, arms, and legs while reading. These reactions, coupled with the mispronunciation of small words—words that are used over and over again in their daily reading and words which they know when they see them singly but which they continue to miscall in reading—the miscalling of consonants and vowels, the addition or omission of sounds, and the reversal of letters within words and words within sentences, have often been found to point directly to eye defects and can usually be cured when the right diagnosis is made and correct lenses are procured. If lenses are not necessary and eye-muscle exercises are prescribed and used faithfully, these nervous reactions often cease and the simple words are pronounced correctly.

Visual defects and their correction—These children have been to optometrists and oculists and in many cases the diagnosis has been "No eye defects." However, there are two types of eye defects that some eye specialists are not thinking it necessary to correct in children, namely, farsightedness and eye-muscle imbalance. The farsighted children can read the Snellen Chart perfectly, even to the finest print on the last line. Hence, the report comes back to the parents and to the

school, "Perfect vision. Glasses are not necessary." This is perfectly true so far as seeing letters or words twenty feet away is concerned. But books are not held twenty feet away from the children's eyes; they cannot ordinarily be held farther away than an arm's length. Holding books at this awkward distance, even if allowed by the teacher, is not sufficient to make reading the printed page possible for these farsighted children. When such children are taken to an eye specialist who understands that a child with perfect vision for distance may not have perfect vision for close work such as reading in books or working at a desk, and who corrects this farsighted condition with lenses, these children learn to read. They are able then to distinguish between the word symbols in books that they are expected to read. They can see the differences between the various consonants and between the various vowels.

If in addition to farsightedness the children have some astigmatism—even slight astigmatism—they can see clearly only one word at a time; the words on either side of that word are blurred. These children become our "word grunTERS." Their eye span is short and no amount of drill in reading books will increase it until their astigmatism is corrected.

There are also many eye specialists who do not believe that a slight muscle imbalance may hinder a child in learning to read. Yet if the eyes do not work together so that the two images fuse and make one correct image, the child will make many of the errors mentioned above and will never be a fluent reader unless this defect is corrected. Some children have eyes that tend to turn in, while others have eyes that tend to turn out. If either of these conditions is bad enough the defect is usually taken care of, but the children whose eyes need only a little correction get no help from many eye specialists. These children are among our most serious cases of reading disability. Their slight defects distort the images of words so that reading makes little or no sense to them.

Forcing these children to read makes them extremely nervous, and this extreme nervousness reduces their power to concentrate. The blame for this failure usually falls upon both the children and their teachers, but since nearly every teacher is able to teach some children to read successfully, the brunt of the blame falls upon the children. They are punished, ridiculed, and made to feel inferior at home and at school. If the child is successful in finding other activities in which he can achieve, he naturally turns to them as an intelligent adult would do, and turns sturdily away from books. Some people have drawn the conclusion that certain children are not book-minded and thus explain their lack of interest in books. Probably this diagnosis is not usually

correct. Avoidance of books is often due to discomfort in the reading situation because of some slight eye defect.

Of the forty-two children who were studied intensively in our remedial program, twenty-seven were found by eye specialists to have defective vision. Twenty-two of these needed to wear glasses either all of the time or when reading or doing other close work. The other five had eye-muscle imbalance and were helped by muscle exercises; they needed no glasses. Six children who were not taken to an eye specialist for a thoro examination showed decided symptoms of eye defects. Five others apparently had good vision and no other physical defects; all they needed was some individual work in reading. One boy in the first grade wore his hair down over his face so that one eye had to peer thru hair whenever he looked at a printed page or at distant objects. As a result, the eye was beginning to turn in. When the case was presented to the boy's mother, she had his hair cut so that there was no obstruction of his vision. He then learned to read very quickly, requiring only seven tutoring periods.

Other physical and emotional handicaps—In some cases additional defects were found to be hindering progress in reading and in school-work as a whole. An eighth-grade boy made marked improvement in all his school subjects after his physician had given him a series of treatments to increase his low metabolism rate. Such glandular cases are usually found in any group of non-readers. It is true that they do not occur in large numbers, but if there is one case in a schoolroom it should be found and cured.

One girl in the fourth grade was in a serious physical condition because of sinus trouble, which had appeared early in her childhood. Probably owing to this condition and her failure to succeed as her classmates did, she was also in a bad emotional state, which revealed itself daily in the form of "stiffening spells" in the classroom. This behavior did not occur during her tutoring periods, when she was competing only with her past self. Neither did it occur at any of the formal testing periods. At such times she had her work to do and did not have a chance to realize that other children were achieving more successfully than she. Her oculist said that her eye weakness was due entirely to her general physical condition and would disappear as her general health improved.

There was one girl whose unusually poor work in the classroom was apparently due to an emotional upset caused by her failure to be promoted with her twin sister. When she reached the class which she had desired to enter the preceding year, her whole attitude changed and her test results jumped far beyond what might have been expected in view of her previous work in the classroom.

In four cases the presence of adenoids made breathing difficult and in one case it caused a decided speech defect. The parents of two of these children were unwilling to have this condition corrected. Since these two pupils also have eye defects which have not been corrected, they stand small chance at present of succeeding up to their normal ability.

One boy in the fifth grade has a bad sinus condition as well as poorly corrected vision. He spends most of his time gazing around the room while other children are attentively at work. When his inattention is noticed by the teacher he goes back to work, only to revert to gazing as soon as her attention is directed elsewhere. This behavior is undoubtedly caused by the boy's physical condition of discomfort rather than to a weakness in his character development.

Conferences with parents—In conferences with parents after school the remedial reading teacher can show from the notebook records the type of reading the child is doing and can explain the need for careful eye examination. Some parents need only one conference in order to give full cooperation. In many cases, however, two or three conferences are necessary before both parents are convinced of the need for a thoro eye examination.

In the conferences with parents of the forty-two children in this remedial program, nine parents came only once; sixteen came twice; five came three times; two came four times; one came six times; and one came seven times. There were eight children whose parents could not come at all because of illness or because both parents were working. Notes were sent and the telephone was used at night in order to make the necessary contacts with these people.

As it was important to keep a waiting list in order to fill vacancies which occasionally occurred in the remedial reading group, twenty conferences were held with parents in addition to those mentioned above. All told, five fathers and forty-nine mothers were interviewed. A total of ninety-seven conferences were held in order to get the cooperation of the parents.

Time spent in remedial treatment—The length of time a pupil was tutored depended upon the cooperation of the parents in having his physical defects cared for, as well as their willingness to help him learn the words which he had missed in his reading. Another factor was the difficulty of the individual case. Three children were tutored from forty-eight to fifty-one periods each because their cases were extremely difficult and because their parents cooperated well in having the children's physical defects corrected and in assisting them with their reading. Some children, on the other hand, were helped immediately by the correction of their eye defects. Often, if they were not

far below their assigned grade levels in reading ability, they were soon able to enter fully into the activities of their classmates and to succeed in their work. Two first-grade children who late in May showed little ability to read caught on to the reading activity simply by receiving a few periods of individual tutoring.

Some children had fewer periods of work than would have been allotted to them if their parents had cooperated in having their eye defects corrected. When all signs pointed to a very serious need for visual correction and the parents would not cooperate by having the defects corrected, their children were dropped from the remedial program until the correction was made. In this way more children were given the opportunity of receiving help. Since parents who could not have defects cured because of lack of funds were given aid thru the local relief agency or the parent-teacher association, this was not an unfair procedure.

A distribution of the forty-two children according to the number of tutoring periods they received is given below:

Number of periods	Number of children
49 to 51.....	2
46 to 48.....	1
43 to 45.....	0
40 to 42.....	2
37 to 39.....	1
34 to 36.....	0
31 to 33.....	4
28 to 30.....	1
25 to 27.....	1
22 to 24.....	1
19 to 21.....	0
16 to 18.....	3
13 to 15.....	1
10 to 12.....	5
7 to 9.....	9
4 to 6.....	8
1 to 3.....	3
Total...	42

Follow-up procedures—There are certain phases of the work that must be carried on by the classroom teacher after the tutoring ceases as well as by the remedial reading teacher during the periods of tutoring. These require patience, common sense, and an understanding of child nature and the influence of strong motivation in attaining success and interest in the learning situation.

After the proper lenses are procured, unless the children have to wear them constantly, it is difficult for some children to remember to bring their glasses to school or to put them on for their reading and other

close work. The teacher must see that all children wear their glasses when needed. In our remedial group there were a few boys who were unduly concerned about their appearance and disliked to spoil it (as *they* thought) with glasses. It helped greatly to have another boy in the class who wore his glasses without self-consciousness.

When a child's vision has been corrected, real teaching can be started. Often wrong images of the symbols must be unlearned and the correct images substituted, but significant progress is soon realized by both teacher and child. There are several ways in which the child may be helped to realize his increased achievement. One device used successfully even before the full eye correction is achieved is a word progress chart. This chart is marked each day with the number of words which the child has learned so well that he can recognize and say them immediately. As the line of progress rises each day that he has mastered new words, the child has objective evidence of his increasing power and a feeling of elation takes the place of his former discouragement. Another sign of improvement is the child's ability to read more each day as his errors decrease. Then as he realizes that he is reading more difficult material than he could read at first, his self-esteem gradually becomes re-established.

Appraising results—There are three commonly used measures of success in reading. The one most widely used is the actual ability of the child to read well enough so that he may succeed in his school subjects. Another one is the child's desire to read books as indicated by his borrowing them from the library. In our program the records for this activity are kept by the librarian and the classroom teacher. The third measure of success consists of the results obtained on standardized achievement tests.

Of the forty-two children who were given remedial treatment during the first year of our program, there were twelve whose improvement could not be shown in terms of test results. Six of these had transferred from other schools in the fall and hence had not taken our tests at the end of the preceding year. The other six were beginning first-grade children. For the remaining thirty pupils (representing Grades II thru VIII) the gains in reading on the *Metropolitan Achievement Tests*¹ from June 1937 to June or September 1938 were as follows:

Gain in school months	Number of children
20-21.....	1
18-19.....	1
16-17.....	2
14-15.....	2
12-13.....	2

¹ Published by the World Book Co., Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York.

Gain in school months	Number of children
10-11.....	6
8-9	4
6-7	8
4-5	1
2-3	3
Total number..	30
Median gain...	9 months

Conclusion—As the emphasis in all of the reading was upon the content of the material read, every child in the remedial group was strongly motivated to read books which appealed to his interests. Child after child developed a desire to take books home. The books taken home had not been read before by these children and were somewhat easier to read than those used during the tutoring periods. The entire program was based on the conviction that the only way to improve children's reading after they leave school is to create in them a desire to read more books because the reading satisfies their mental hunger.

IN overcoming deficiencies in reading, it is essential to deal with basic causes rather than with symptoms alone. While the first step is to discover existing difficulties by means of adequate tests and careful observation, the remedial program itself must often go beyond the mere drilling of children on the phases of reading in which they are weak. The causes of weakness may be found in the child himself, in his school or out-of-school environment, or in both. In any case, every available means should be used to bring about a satisfactory adjustment between the child and his total environment, giving due regard to his physical, social, and emotional needs as well as to his specific needs in reading.—Editorial Comment in *Newer Practices in Reading in the Elementary School*, Seventeenth Year-book, Department of Elementary School Principals, 1938, p. 387.

EVALUATING THE RESULTS OF CURRICULUM
ENRICHMENT

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EVALUATION of the elementary-school program has been so adequately discussed in a previous yearbook¹ of this organization that it should suffice here to summarize certain points made in that volume and to re-emphasize certain phases of the problem as they apply particularly to an enriched curriculum.

Importance of appraisal—There is no reason why enrichment of the curriculum should in any way lessen the need for evaluation. Undoubtedly the difficulty of appraisal is greatly increased by widening the scope of school activities; it is relatively easy to measure the outcomes of a curriculum restricted to the traditional three R's as compared to judging the outcomes of the vitalized curriculum practices described in the earlier portions of the present book. It does not follow, however, that because of this difficulty schools are relieved of the necessity for appraising their programs. It is difficult to see how any school, no matter how progressive it may claim to be, can have a satisfactory program without knowing a great deal about what it is accomplishing.

Much of the mistrust of some really progressive movements in elementary education has been due to the unwillingness of the proponents of these movements to subject their procedures to an evaluation which would determine whether they are accomplishing the things they desire. No amount of vehement assertion and repetition of claims can take the place of evidence for many teachers and administrators. A more wholesome attitude would result if additional programs of comprehensive evaluation were carried out like that now in progress for the Progressive Education Association² and those described by Wrightstone³ and by Oberholtzer.⁴ It will be unfortunate if the use and improvement of such procedures of vitalization and enrichment as are proposed in this yearbook are retarded or impaired by hesitancy in submitting the results to measurement.

Unless teachers are willing to follow up the various school activities with some kind of appraisal, it cannot be decided whether such activities make the expected contributions. For example, firsthand experi-

¹ National Education Association, Department of Elementary School Principals. *Appraising the Elementary-School Program*. Sixteenth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Department, 1937. 432 p.

² Tyler, Ralph W. "Appraising Progressive Schools." *Educational Method* 15: 412-15; May 1936.

³ Wrightstone, J. Wayne. *Appraisal of Newer Practices in Selected Public Schools*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935. 117 p.

⁴ Oberholtzer, E. E. *An Integrated Curriculum in Practice*. Contributions to Education, No. 694. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937. 218 p.

ences offer the possibility of making learning concrete and more meaningful and of reducing verbalization in favor of real understanding, but one would be unwarranted in assuming, without any verification or appraisal, that these purposes are accomplished by a given series of experiences. Any teacher who has heard the comments and questions of pupils after returning from an excursion can certify that many inaccuracies and misunderstandings can and do arise from such an experience. The teacher who fails to evaluate the outcomes of an excursion is not likely to realize all the possibilities of that and of future excursions.

Evaluation of enrichment activities—No one would claim that the newer type of evaluation demanded in many situations is simple, but a growing number are unwilling to admit that it is impossible. One chapter of the yearbook mentioned above⁵ presents examples of attempts to evaluate pupil participation in dramatics, school newspapers, clubs, and libraries in terms of the unique contributions expected of each activity. Elsewhere in the same volume⁶ are other valuable suggestions as to ways of appraising the newer outcomes. It is not possible to summarize here all that has been accomplished in this direction, but those who are interested will find that much preliminary work has been done.

Some educators attempt to justify the omission of all measurement on the basis that at present satisfactory instruments have not been developed; they especially refuse to use many standardized tests because such a limited number of curricular objectives are measured by these tests. Such an attitude seems comparable to that of a physician who would refuse to take a patient's temperature because there is no adequate way of discovering the complex functioning of certain internal glands. It would be more sensible for schools to recognize the limitations of available tests but to continue to utilize them in the fields to which they apply, accepting in the meantime the challenge to develop instruments which will measure the slighted objectives.

Included in almost every list of objectives for the elementary school is one resembling the following, which is one of the six general purposes proposed by a New York committee:⁷ "To gain command of the common integrating knowledges and skills." All but a few extremists would agree that no matter how much the elementary-school offering is enriched, or how wide a variety of experiences is included, there are

⁵ National Education Association, Department of Elementary School Principals, *op. cit.*, Chapter 6, "Evaluating Socializing Experiences."

⁶ National Education Association, Department of Elementary School Principals, *op. cit.*, p. 309, 377, 493, 502, 508, 514.

⁷ New York Council of Superintendents, Committee on Elementary Education. *Cardinal Objectives in Elementary Education*. Second Report. Albany: New York State Education Department, 1929. p. 13.

certain skills and abilities which should be developed to some degree in all children. The emphasis of many of the newer standardized tests⁸ in these fields is in the right direction so far as enrichment of the curriculum is concerned because they are not *subject* tests. They cut across subject lines and attempt to measure the development of basic skills and essential abilities thruout the activities of the school, regardless of the type of school or the kind of curriculum in effect. A standardized test that serves such a function well should have an important place in any program of school appraisal. Someone has suggested that, if standardized tests are properly used to facilitate the learning of fundamentals, they may actually help rather than impede the enrichment program by releasing more time for the vitalizing activities.

In fairness to the makers of tests and other measuring instruments, it should be pointed out that they have been handicapped in measuring certain traits because we have not yet told them in specific enough terms what objectives we desire. In fact, if more elementary-school teachers and others responsible for the curriculum were working on a program to appraise the so-called "intangibles," this experience might react favorably upon the curriculum by forcing these workers to be more specific, to clarify the terms used, and to provide a more adequate description of the desired traits.

Influence of measurement upon the enrichment program—The question of the possible influence of measurement upon instruction is not a settled one.⁹ Lindquist¹⁰ has pointed out that if a wrong influence is exerted by standardized tests, it is quite likely because teachers do not understand the technical features involved in the construction of such a test which disqualify it as a teaching instrument or as an abbreviated course of study. Brownell,¹¹ on the other hand, has said that "any test, traditional or new-type, which misdirects instruction, is to that degree a poor test." While no one would flatly deny this statement, it might be more accurate and might help to clarify the issue if it were restated thus: Any measuring device which *of itself* misdirects instruction is to that degree a poor instrument, and any teacher who misdirects instruction by the misuse or misinterpretation of a measuring instrument is to that extent a poor teacher.

⁸ For example, the *Iowa Every-Pupil Tests of Basic Skills*, published by the Bureau of Educational Research and Service, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa. This is also true of most of the newer reading tests.

⁹ Note, for example, the wide differences of opinion revealed in: "A Symposium on the Effects of Measurement on Instruction." *Journal of Educational Research* 28: 481-527; March 1935.

¹⁰ Lindquist, E. F. "Standardized Achievement Tests and Their Relation to Curriculum Content." *Appraising the Elementary-School Program*. Sixteenth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, 1937. p. 479-84.

¹¹ Brownell, William A. "Some Neglected Criteria for Evaluating Classroom Tests." *Appraising the Elementary-School Program*. Sixteenth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, 1937. p. 491.

Tiegs has pointed out a related fallacy in the reasoning done by certain critics of testing:

Learning is not atomistic and fragmentary because tests are utilized to identify important elements of a learning pattern . . . and some of the worst examples of atomistic and fragmentary teaching and learning exist where no valid tests at all are used. . . .¹²

While, as noted previously, there is not universal agreement on this question, the majority opinion seems to be that any harmful influences of measurement are due more to the misuse or misunderstanding of measuring instruments than to inherent weaknesses of the instruments themselves. Whether or not this is true, there is no denying that a misguided testing program will seriously hinder adequate enrichment of the school curriculum. If, for example, the rating and promotion of teachers depend to a considerable extent upon the performances of their pupils on standardized tests, and if these tests measure chiefly the mechanical aspects of learning, one can only expect teachers to place undue emphasis on mechanical details in their teaching.

A complaint frequently heard from teachers attending summer schools runs something like this: "I cannot introduce these newer vitalizing activities in my classes because I must put all my time on drill so that my pupils will make the expected scores on standardized achievement tests." Some of these statements probably represent an attempt to rationalize the teachers' ignorance of newer practices or their inability to carry them out, but there is sometimes a definite justification for the complaint.

An example of an administrative practice which tends to produce such a situation is a ruling in a certain state that the average scores of the seventh-grade pupils in a school must reach the seventh-grade norms on certain standardized tests in order for that school to be placed on the "approved list." Certainly this ruling was not intended to limit the scope of school activities, but what actually happens in many instances, according to reports from teachers themselves, is that the teacher neglects other phases of instruction in an attempt to make sure that her pupils will attain the necessary scores on the tests.

Many users of standardized tests assume that a high degree of uniformity in children's accomplishments is desirable. This error is made by administrators or teachers who require each pupil to reach the norms for his grade on standardized achievement tests before being promoted to the next grade. One can readily see what aspects of learning would be emphasized by a teacher in a school where this rule was in effect, and how most of the curriculum practices discussed in this yearbook would suffer. The chief value of many of these prac-

¹² Tiegs, Ernest W. "Measurement and Learning." *Education* 58: 512-15; May 1938.

tices lies in the possibilities they present for meeting individual needs and interests. This important purpose of the school program would be defeated and curriculum enrichment would be reduced by using tests to encourage uniformity.

While extreme instances have been mentioned here, the emphasis represented by these practices is probably present to some degree in many schools. It seems inevitable that where this is true, teachers and pupils will work primarily toward the goals represented in the instruments by which their success is measured, rather than toward the carefully determined objectives of a richer type of curriculum.

It should also be pointed out that schools attempting to carry out some of the newer methods of enrichment may destroy the value of their procedures by an inadequate or misdirected appraisal of these practices. Following excursions by minute questioning or by deadening oral reports and judging dramatizations or assemblies on the perfection of pupil performance rather than on their contribution to child growth are examples of ways in which teachers may defeat the purpose of activities. As suggested above, the situation does not call for an abandonment of appraisal, but for an appraisal in terms of the contributions which the respective activities are intended to make.

Conclusion—It is the viewpoint of this discussion that in the long run the enrichment program will not suffer nearly so much from sincere and intelligent efforts to appraise it as it will from a complete lack of evaluation, even tho present measuring instruments are admittedly inadequate. Accepting the premise that evaluation should be an integral part of any curriculum program, the writer would suggest the following principles for future guidance in this field:

1. Some tests which are not adapted to the needs of the newer curriculum must be either revised or discarded. In general, there should probably be less emphasis upon tests of commonly taught facts, and more attention to basic skills and essential abilities which should be developed in any type of program.

2. The misinterpretations and misuses of tests must be exposed and corrected. Teachers and others concerned must be helped to see the contribution of tests in proper perspective and to make wise use of the available instruments.

3. Educators must accept the challenge of evaluating the newer types of activities. In those areas in which measurement is too difficult for the classroom teacher, more adequate descriptions of the outcomes desired must be furnished to experts in test construction. The complete program of appraisal will include many techniques and instruments besides tests, such as checklists, rating scales, interviews, observational techniques, and the analysis of records and written reports.

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CHAPTER VIII

VITALIZING THE CURRICULUM UNDER VARIOUS TYPES OF SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

EDITORIAL COMMENT

THE SUCCESS OF EFFORTS to meet the individual needs of children depends in part upon having a favorable form of school organization. No organization is perfect and there are sharp differences of opinion as to which general type is best. Nevertheless, school administrators and teachers should frequently reappraise the school organization with a view to making it serve better the purposes of an enriched curriculum. Probably the most important characteristic of a good organization is sufficient flexibility to permit frequent readjustments in the programs of individual pupils. No matter what plan is used, administrative and teaching procedures must be adapted to the elements of strength and of weakness in that particular plan.

The distinctive contribution of this chapter is its emphasis on organization as a factor in curriculum enrichment. Each article deals with the advantages of a particular plan of organization, with attempts to improve older arrangements, or with efforts to vitalize learning within certain organizational limitations.

In the opening article Learned describes a plan in which the pupils of each grade were divided into three groups according to reading ability. Robinson tells how one school undertook to overcome the weaknesses of its organization by having the regular teacher of each class continue with that class thruout the elementary grades. Rickard reports the integration of learning in a departmental organization thru assemblies involving the cooperation of several grades.

The next two contributions are concerned with enrichment in platoon schools. O'Reilly reviews the development and the advantages of a modified platoon plan in a city system. Herron shows how the platoon schools in another city improved their instruction in health and safety.

The last two authors discuss ways of vitalizing the curriculum in rural schools. Potter points out advantages and limitations in the organization of small rural schools and gives illustrations of enrichment in such schools. Topping describes the use of the book auto in distributing reading material to the schools in a county system.

For other helpful discussions of school organization in relation to curriculum problems the reader should consult the bibliography on page 622.—*Editorial Committee.*

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FOURTH-GRADE CHILDREN ENJOYING FOLK DANCES

*Photograph by courtesy of
Thomas H. Ford, Superintendent of Schools
Reading, Pennsylvania*

GROUPING PUPILS WITHIN EACH GRADE ACCORDING TO READING ABILITY

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PRIOR TO THE FALL OF 1936 the educational salvation of a pupil in the first grade of the Washington School depended upon his learning promptly to read. The honor of the school was thought to be impaired if a child was not well along in his pre-primer by the end of the first month of school. We were concerned about what the teachers in other schools would think of us if children transferring to those schools should not be able to read all the books prescribed in the courses of study for their grades. Moreover, the teachers of our beginning classes always feared the complaints which the second-grade teachers would make if the classes did not come to them "well prepared."

What about reading readiness? Well, that seemed to us a pretty theory but not suitable for practical application. A nonreading program, we contended, would be a waste of time for even the slowest pupils and would detrimentally influence their entire school careers. And wouldn't parents rise in indignation if we didn't put a book in every child's hands the first week of school?

Altho we were reluctant to admit it, we did recognize that many of our little folk were unhappy in school. Some would sit and dream or look out the windows. Others would annoy their fellows if the teacher relaxed her vigilance for one moment. Still others, we learned from the parents, would develop illnesses while dressing or eating breakfast from which they miraculously recovered shortly after nine o'clock. The teachers worked earnestly and skilfully, but often with inferior results. Some of the children did seem too young and immature for first-grade work altho they were past six years of age and often were approaching their seventh birthdays. Still we did nothing about the situation until three years ago.

GROUPING FIRST-GRADE CHILDREN

Finally, we decided to select twenty-five of the most immature youngsters and to set up a delayed reading program for them. The rest of the children proceeded as in the past. The plan worked. The children in the special class, which we called the "junior primary," seemed much happier than under the old arrangement. The teachers of the other first-grade classes were much relieved, and the parents gave their full approval.

Within a few weeks, however, the junior primary teacher discovered a wide range of achievement levels within the class. The children's rates of progress varied widely and several smaller teaching groups had to be formed to meet the situation. By the end of the year some of the pupils were as far advanced in reading as the children in the other first-grade classes, while others were not mature enough even to begin reading.

Extending the plan—When school opened in the fall of 1937 we went a step farther in our segregation. We grouped all of the ninety-eight first-graders into three classes on the basis of their social, physical, and mental maturity. We used teacher judgments together with mental and reading readiness test scores as our criteria for classification. We limited the least mature group to twenty-five children, and the teacher in charge of this class was designated the "receiving" teacher for all new first-graders.

Since much of the area from which the Washington School draws its pupils is situated in an encroaching industrial section of the city with poor housing conditions, transiency is prevalent and there is a rapid turnover in pupil personnel. The receiving teacher therefore had a difficult task in studying incoming pupils and in adjusting them to the school. As this adjustment was accomplished she assigned them one by one to the classes for which they seemed best fitted according to their maturity. Some children, of course, remained in the receiving class, while others were moved immediately to more advanced classes. From time to time children were shifted from one group to another as their development seemed to warrant, thus taking care of varying rates of maturity in the children while maintaining the maximum of homogeneity in each group.

At first we were concerned about shifting the children from one teacher to another. Often a child made as many as two or three changes during the year. But our fears were soon allayed, for these changes seemed to make little difference to the children. This favorable reaction was undoubtedly due to the fact that the first-grade teachers, whose rooms are all adjoining, carried on so many activities together and were so closely associated in their work that the child soon knew the other two teachers almost as well as his own.

Differentiating instruction—Each teacher in the first grade soon found that this plan of relatively homogeneous grouping conserved her energies by restricting the range of her instructional problems, and soon she began to collect materials and equipment and to plan a method of approach especially adapted to the level of her children's maturity. For example, the "receiving" room soon had a rabbit, and all the problems connected with naming, feeding, and caring for him

motivated the conversation of these youngsters. In anticipation of his coming they had built for him a little house and a pen in which to run. Shopping for his food was a regular occurrence. Later in the year a little yellow, newly hatched duck became Fluffy Peter's companion, and Ducky's rapid growth and change of color were a constant source of interest and amazement. The planning period, the teacher's writing on the blackboard, the daily newspaper relating the highlights of the children's experiences at home and at school, the building of articles to satisfy immediate needs—these and other activities helped to broaden the experiences of these little folk whose homes were very humble and limited in opportunities for enrichment. It was gratifying to observe how this nonreading program soon created an urgent desire on the part of many to learn to read. As this desire reached a certain intensity the child was moved in to the next more mature class of children, where reading formed a regular part of the day's work.

By the end of the first semester the activities of the first-grade teachers had become the talk of the school. Teachers and pupils of the upper grades began to visit the first-grade wing. Donations of orange boxes, paper cartons, dolls, miniature housekeeping equipment, and a variety of other usable material began to come in.

GROUPING CHILDREN IN THE HIGHER GRADES

Then the question arose among the upper-grade teachers, "What about our reading program?" The three fifth-grade teachers, with the aid of the principal, began an investigation. Reading tests disclosed that our practice of placing children in classes by semester grading, that is, for example, classifying them as "low" fifth-graders and "high" fifth-graders, was illogical. We found that quite a number of our low fifth-grade pupils read much better than some of those in the high fifth grade. Moreover, the *Durrell-Sullivan Reading Capacity Tests*,¹ which require no knowledge of reading symbols, revealed that several of our poorest readers possessed the capacity to read from one to three years above their present achievement levels. Our only consolation in connection with this embarrassing discovery was that the children transferring to our school, whether from within the city, from other cities and towns in the state, or from remote sections of the nation, were generally no better trained than the boys and girls in Washington School. However, we had unearthed a real challenge to provide a better organization and better methods for teaching reading. The findings obtained by our fifth-grade teachers were set up in graphic form and were presented to the other teachers of the school in a series of conferences.

¹ Published by the World Book Co., Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York.

Administrative aspects—Out of these conferences came a decision in the spring of 1938 to group all children, when school opened the next fall, within each grade level according to their reading achievement as determined by standardized tests provided by the research department of the school system. Altho this plan of reorganization seemed to revert to a practice frowned upon by many, we felt the need, as we had previously in the first grades, of narrowing the teaching task of the classroom teacher. We believed that such specialization could be defended with sound argument. Studies by Gates, Monroe, and others show that segregation is essential for the best results in remedial reading programs. Why would segregation not be beneficial, we reasoned, for the more able readers as well as for the poorer ones?

So we decided to segregate the children of each grade above the first in such a manner as to have a weak, an average, and a strong reading class. The weak reading class would be much smaller than either of the other two. It would preferably be limited to twenty-six or twenty-seven pupils while the other classes might have as many as forty pupils each. As in the first grades, the teacher of each remedial class would be the "receiving" teacher for all new pupils of her grade level and would determine by a reading test the particular *class* in which each new pupil should be placed. On the other hand, the *grade* placement of the child usually would depend upon his report card of the previous semester or on the record which he brought from another school. If he came to us without a transfer, as many do, we would place him in a grade according to his social and physical maturity and his chronological age.

An illustrative case—To make this arrangement a little clearer, let us illustrate by the arrival at the Washington School of Frank Gomez from El Paso, Texas. He has no transfer record. His chronological age, physical development, and social maturity, as indicated by his responses to a census questionnaire which we require of outside pupils, suggest that he should adjust quickly to the sixth-grade level. Frank is sent therefore to the receiving teacher of that grade, who arranges at her earliest convenience to give him the *Los Angeles Elementary Reading Test*.² He makes a reading grade-score of 4.9, which lies within the range of achievement represented in the class of the sixth-grade receiving teacher. She keeps the boy in her class. If, however, he had made a score of 7.5, he would have been sent to the fastest of the three sixth-grade classes.

Since he is nearly thirteen years old and quite large for his age, we plan to send Frank to the junior high school at the end of the semester in February. For this reason we give him a high sixth-grade rating on

² Published by the California Test Bureau, Los Angeles, California.

his continuous record card. If he were smaller in stature and several months younger we would designate him as a low sixth-grader, a rating which would keep him at Washington School for a whole year. In either case he would be placed with the same teacher, this placement being determined by his current reading level. We keep the "low" and "high" differentiation on report cards to satisfy the children and the parents; they have been accustomed to this classification scheme for many years and it is the one followed by the other schools of the city.

Broad scope of the plan—Another point should be made clear in connection with our plan. The literature discussing reading programs generally indicates that the children are grouped homogeneously for the reading period only. We are not following this conventional setup but are maintaining the same grouping thruout the school day. Our belief is that reading should be taught not only during the reading period but also in connection with social studies, arithmetic, language, spelling, and even music. Hence, the teacher's approach in all subject fields depends primarily upon the reading level of the children. For example, the teacher of the sixth-grade remedial group, whose pupils are reading on the third- or fourth-grade level, approaches the teaching of spelling with a strong phonetic emphasis while the teacher having the rapid reading class in the same grade teaches spelling in an entirely different manner. To keep these superior children, whom we have permitted to acquire poor work habits in the past, on a high plane of accomplishment in harmony with their abilities is just as important as to help the remedial pupils overcome their deficiencies.

In addition, we have taken advantage of the fact that there are three teachers for every grade level in our school, and instead of restricting the grouping to the children within each individual classroom, we are grouping within each grade as a whole. Of course, within each ability group we still form smaller groups for better classroom instruction. Individualized teaching of spelling and arithmetic also enhances the flexibility of the plan.

There are those who would seriously question our segregation of pupils within a grade solely on the basis of reading and by means of a reading test. Only time and careful appraisal will tell whether we are justified.

SOME ENRICHMENT VALUES

While it is too early to predict the ultimate outcomes of our present approach to the teaching of reading, this much can already be said: Not for years has the enthusiasm of the staff for the task at hand been so universally evident as during the past year. Summer session

work and professional reading have touched a new "high" in purposefulness. We are reading to solve real problems which are crowding us for solution. The use of visual aids to provide enriching experiences, especially in the weak reading classes, has tripled. The school library is being searched constantly for materials suited to the interests and reading abilities of the children. Excursions to the nearby industrial plants are rapidly increasing in frequency. The school's duplicating equipment is busy reproducing specially prepared materials to fit current needs as they arise in the teaching of spelling, reading, arithmetic, and social studies. Better study habits are being stressed on all levels.

The special supervisors are giving us counsel to solve new problems as they arise. We are finding, for example, that the poor reading groups cannot read the music for two-part work without the leadership of the better readers, and are in need of remedial work in note-reading. Use of the city library is growing among our children. Much more attention than in the past is being given to the emotional adjustment of our boys and girls thru the promotion of numerous social and service activities. Informal conferences between teachers with comparable problems for the purpose of discussing methods and exchanging ideas are common these days.

Even if we should eventually return to the old plan of grouping only within each heterogeneous class, our present emphasis upon reading will continue to be an enriching experience and will promote better teaching in our school for years to come.³

³ While the school referred to in this article is organized on a modified platoon basis in the intermediate grades, the plan of grouping described would seem to be equally applicable to a school organized entirely on the traditional basis of one teacher per class.—*Editorial Committee.*

No administrative scheme alone will solve the problem of individual differences. No matter how children are grouped, there will be differences requiring individual teaching within each group. Moreover, the contributions which pupils of different abilities and interests can make to the intellectual and social development of a class should not be overlooked. Nevertheless, reading instruction may be facilitated by narrowing somewhat the range of reading needs found in the typical school grade.—Editorial Comment in *Newer Practises in Reading in the Elementary School*, Seventeenth Yearbook, Department of Elementary School Principals, 1938, p. 519.

INTEGRATING PUPIL EXPERIENCES THRU A CONTINUING-TEACHER PLAN

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TO OVERCOME CERTAIN WEAKNESSES of the departmental and platoon forms of school organization the plan described in this article was evolved by the staff of the Liberty School, a seven-grade elementary school in Highland Park, Michigan. While this plan will not be startlingly new to many readers, the story of how one school has been changing its organization better to meet its children's needs may help other principals and teachers beset by similar problems.

Problems faced—In most schools organized along subjectmatter lines the problem of correlating the content of various subjects has received much attention. Likewise, the matter of integrating the experiences which a pupil has in various special activities under different teachers has been considered. These problems of correlation and integration have arisen largely because the child's school program has been divided into subjectmatter compartments. Moreover, in the departmental organization and to a lesser degree in the platoon organization, these compartments have been handled by teachers who were specialists in particular fields. It has been difficult for these teachers to cut across or eliminate the compartmental barriers. This difficulty was met in the Liberty School by changing to a modified form of the traditional organization in which each regular teacher teaches most of the subjects offered.

Another problem which has bothered elementary-school principals and teachers has been the hurdle over grade lines semester after semester, with the usual change of teachers as the children went from grade to grade. This procedure has been as much of a barrier to the integration of present with past experiences as subjectmatter compartments have been to the integration of current experiences. This problem was largely eliminated in this school by having the regular teacher of each class stay with that class as it progressed from the lower to the higher grade levels.

Development of the plan—The trail for this scheme in the Liberty School was broken seven years ago by an overflow class of IB children who were taught by the same teacher they had had in the kindergarten. Since there was no overflow group in the succeeding first grades, expediency kept this teacher and her group together during the years that followed.

Normally in this school the children in each grade of the primary

department were taught by two different teachers, one a so-called academic teacher with whom the children learned to read, write, and spell, and the other a so-called activity teacher who taught handwork, art, oral expression, and subjects of a freer nature. Obviously, these grades too had problems of correlation and integration. As the overflow group referred to above went thru the primary grades under a single teacher, it was possible to make direct comparisons between the two forms of organization.

On entering the fourth grade, which normally was organized on a departmental basis, the children of the overflow class continued with their one teacher in all schoolwork except activities for which the school had provided special facilities, such as swimming, gymnasium, woodshop, and home economics. Meanwhile, other primary classes embarked on a similar program and the number gradually increased until at present twelve additional rooms ranging from the beginning first grade to the finishing fifth grade are following the continuing-teacher plan. The overflow group has reached the beginning sixth-grade level. Of these thirteen rooms all but three involve only one grade level, the three exceptions having children of two adjacent half-grades.

Some questions answered—Before discussing the apparent advantages of the plan it may be well to consider certain questions which are often raised in regard to its practicability. First, what about the poor or weak teacher? While such a teacher is a handicap to any school program, she obviously can do the most harm where she has the same group of children semester after semester. There is no place in the continuing-teacher organization for the unqualified teacher. Similarly, one may question the soundness of having even a good teacher with the same group all the time, especially with reference to individual cases in which pupil-teacher conflicts arise. Where such conflicts prove unsolvable in the class, the plan presents a real difficulty. Sometimes this difficulty can be handled by transferring the pupil in question to another group with another teacher. On the other hand, if the teacher recognizes such a conflict as involving her own personality as much as the child's, she may study it seriously and over a long period may bring about a better pupil-teacher adjustment than would have been accomplished if she had merely passed the child on, with a sigh of relief, to the teacher of the next grade at the end of the semester.

Questions may be raised also in regard to the teacher's knowledge and treatment of subjectmatter. Is she not likely to be unfamiliar with the course of study in any one grade because she teaches the work of that grade so infrequently? May she not be inexperienced in certain

fields such as music, art, and science? May she not, because of her special interests, overemphasize certain phases of subjectmatter and neglect others? These possibilities are indeed shortcomings, but not to the degree that they appear at first glance. Most of them are objections from a purely subjectmatter viewpoint and neglect the fact that the teacher, while perhaps being less familiar with certain subjectmatter, is more familiar with the child than if she taught the same courses to a different class each year. As shown in the following discussion, this fact is one of the chief advantages of the continuing-teacher plan.

Emphasis on growth of the "whole" child—With the teacher working more or less continuously with one group, emphasis is placed on the child as a whole. Constant association with the same children in working out individual problems and group activities gives the teacher a better understanding of each child as a person and a better conception of his particular needs. It also gives her an opportunity to help the child work out the optimum relationship between himself and the rest of the group. His ability to get along with others, to contribute to the planning of activities, to execute his own or others' ideas, to make good criticisms—these and other desirable qualities of the pupil can be fostered best by the teacher who has a close and continuous acquaintance with him.

The continuing-teacher organization places the teacher in a better position to judge pupil growth. Frequently under the old system certain undesirable characteristics of a particular child have been called to the writer's attention by teachers in the middle grades. Having known the child at an earlier age when he had even more undesirable traits, the writer could see in him more than the normal *rate* of improvement even tho his level of development was still below that of his classmates. Such continuing knowledge of the child is important. The present type of organization gives the teacher this knowledge, whereas under earlier plans it existed only on the school records in brief form, if at all.

With continuing emphasis on the pupil's actual growth, it is obvious that grade lines tend to become hazy. General standards of achievement are still used, but the emphasis is more on the pupil's own standard as determined by his natural growth rate than on the "norm" of the grade in which he is classified. In the three rooms of this school which contain pupils of more than one grade the grade line has disappeared almost entirely in all work except arithmetic. In the latter subject the differentiation between grades is evident mainly in formal drill when such drill is needed.

It thus becomes possible in such an organization to eliminate "failure" as an adjustment device. With the teacher concerned mainly with

pupil growth and not entirely with class growth, a child can be classified with others of his own age and social maturity. This is the aim of most individualized programs and the program outlined here lends itself well to that aim.

A natural outgrowth of the continuing-teacher plan is an improvement in home-school relations. The plan binds together over a long period of time the teacher-parent contacts made thru home visits, school visits, notes, and discussions. In this school no formal report cards are issued in the primary grades. Reports of the child's educational problems and progress are given to the parents in teacher-parent conferences, usually held at the school. Again we find the chief emphasis on the child himself rather than on his standing in relation to others.

Integration of learning—Obviously, any activity carried on by a class under this form of organization can be readily integrated not only with other subjects and activities of the current year but also with activities carried on in preceding years. The bogey of correlating work-type reading, social studies, and literature, for example, is largely eliminated. As far as the children are concerned no differentiation need be made.

An illustration of such integration is found in a project carried on by the overflow group referred to earlier. In the fourth grade these children began to publish a weekly newspaper which they called the *Hi-Lites*. Later this paper developed into a monthly magazine of about fifteen or twenty mimeographed pages with pupil illustrations. The following quotation from the teacher's description of the activity indicates its purpose and procedure:

The *Hi-Lites* is a medium of news and of original expression in story and verse which is one means of integrating the work of our school month.

The inspiration and stimulus for the writing come sometimes from suggestions made by the teacher, but usually from some interest of the child. Often our best stories are written after the illustrations are drawn. Children draw something intensely interesting to themselves and then write about it. Events, plays, personal happenings, and trips may serve as stimuli for writing. No one is forced to write, but usually most of the children voluntarily contribute. When reading factual matter they often say, "This would be good for the *Hi-Lites*," and then cull out the facts because they are interesting to remember. The more talented writers sometimes inspire the less gifted children to contribute by talking over the proposed article and then helping them to write it.

The children's work is typed exactly as submitted and later the published *Hi-Lites* is used as source material for English and spelling lessons. Early in the school year the children made books, "Hi-Lites Speller" and "Hi-Lites English," in which they write the corrected words and make up their own English rules. They recognize homonyms, having made long lists of those used in their writing, and are quite excited over finding new ones.

Growth in English and spelling is evident, for now, as contrasted with a year ago, the papers are submitted with the small, deceptive words correctly spelled, and, at last, commas and quotation marks are in, whereas they used to be con-

spicuous by their absence. The children are beginning to ask for correction *before* publication, but usually the creative effort is enough for them at the time.

There is no feeling that English is a dry subject or a burden or a bore. It is like a puzzle in which the children are constantly trying to find a solution. Sometimes we take a traditional English text and the children enjoy hunting thru it for rules of correct usage. We are learning to write by writing, hoping the constant effort will in time, like the spring, purify itself.

Certainly here is an integrative activity. Yet a reader of the magazine can tell at a glance whether social studies, poetry, arithmetic, or something else has been the predominant motif of the month's work. Interest is such that when the deadline for publication nears, no formal time schedule would stand up under the strain. The activities of publication day may supplant all other schoolwork for this group.

The continuing-teacher organization permits great flexibility not only in curriculum content but also in time allotments. Recess may come whenever it is needed or not at all. Lessons may be long or short according to the needs of the children at the moment. Field trips upset no one else's schedule and there is plenty of time for them. A whole day or even a week, if necessary, may be devoted to a construction project. This situation is in sharp contrast to the one-period system of class scheduling, under which the child may have to spend half the period in getting out and putting away his materials. Under the newer plan chairs can be moved out of the room or stacked at one side because no other class will need to use them at any set time.

Contributions of special subjects—As children become older their school life becomes more extensive and the demands on the versatility of the teacher become more strenuous. In an ideal situation the teacher would be an expert in all fields, but until that situation becomes a reality certain fields will demand special teachers. The Liberty School has such teachers as well as special facilities for manual arts, domestic science, swimming, gymnasium, library, and art. However, under the continuing-teacher organization the emphasis in these subjects has been placed on their correlation with current activities in the regular classrooms. For example, if a class play is in preparation, manual arts contributes to the construction of the set, domestic science to the costume-making, dancing to the play itself, the library to research, and art to the scenery and costumes. In each instance the teacher of the special subject involved acts in an advisory capacity and subordinates her work to the main activity. While such contributions are made by these special teachers in any type of school organization which includes them, the writer believes that the bond is closer under the continuing-teacher scheme. The regular classroom teacher may move to the shop with her children or the shopwork may be done in the classroom or in the hall. In either case the activity is the focus of

attention and the special subject becomes more meaningful thru serving a definite need.

It must not be assumed, however, that the work of the special departments consists entirely of serving particular needs which arise in the regular classrooms. The special teacher gives considerable attention to the general work which can, and probably should, be done in his or her department. But the flexibility of the program, with its minimizing of time schedules, gives greater impetus to the work of the special rooms as well as to that of the regular classrooms. It is conceivable that ultimately the use of the special facilities will be scheduled on a weekly basis in accordance with the activities in progress at the time. A class might wish to use the shop all day at certain times, and at other times might not use it at all for several days.

Emergence of group characteristics—Thruout the continuing-teacher organization an observer can see definite group characteristics emerging as the various classes go thru their school experiences. These group traits may be due to the personal attributes of the teachers in charge or to the personality interactions of the particular children in each group, or to both of these factors. In any event, each group seems to develop its own "personality," a something which distinguishes it from the other groups. The children who publish the *Hi-Lites* and who have been together for six years are as a group aggressive, inquisitive, good at planning and initiating activities, and inclined to work hard when carrying out their ideas. Those in a certain fifth-grade class are noted for their quiet self-control. They function well for long periods without their teacher. The members of a second-grade group are characterized by an intimate thoughtfulness of one another and by an ability to make things of whatever materials are at hand. In a fourth-grade group the children like to sing softly while doing handwork. It makes no difference who starts the singing or what songs are sung so long as they are familiar to all. The members of a third-grade class exhibit a definitely recognizable art style in their cooperatively-made murals, which is due, according to the art teacher, to the particular combination of children in that room. In another fifth grade the youngsters' forte is cooperative planning and execution of dramatic productions based on their work, usually in the social studies. Such group characteristics as these were not observable, if they existed, under either type of organization in effect prior to the continuing-teacher plan.

Administrative and supervisory considerations—There are several things which the school administrator or supervisor must do if the continuing-teacher plan is to be successful. The first and probably the most important of these is to help the teacher overcome certain tradi-

tional attitudes which she may hold toward school life. The manner in which children pass from room to room, their conduct in the halls, classroom neatness, noise, seating arrangements, requiring children to obtain permission for obviously necessary acts—all these things must be viewed in the light of the children's purposes, their levels of maturity, and the nature of the activities in which they are engaged. Otherwise the pupils may reach the end of their elementary-school careers with minds patterned largely by the edicts of adults. To achieve this new attitude is as much a task for the principal as for the teacher.

Second, the teacher must be freed from the necessity of following detailed prescriptions in courses of study. She must learn to use such courses only as a broad guide, omitting or modifying details as she sees fit. This point of view is reflected in the following statement by a teacher in the Liberty School who has just completed her third year with the same group of pupils:

The aim of my work is to keep the children happy, useful, and growing. Subjectmatter is important, but only so far as we have need for it to take us where we want to go.

The thirty-four children and I spend our school hours in a room which serves as our workshop and living quarters during the day. Since it is both a workshop and living quarters, we try to make it attractive and useful. Supplies of all kinds are within easy reach of all children and no child needs to ask for anything he needs. These are *his* supplies and naturally he keeps them in order. Accidents to equipment or materials are never noticed except to note how well the room looks after things have been cleaned up.

We attempt to appreciate the things about us. We satisfy our curiosity by investigating—anything, any time. We ask questions and seek the answers. We always take time for things that really interest us.

We use our seats or chairs to make us comfortable, and we use the floor if it serves us better.

All of us are important and all of us need help, so school life is a game of give and take. The group helps each one and each one owes something to the group. We respect the rights of others.

We express ourselves in as many ways as we can. We feel free to choose the type of material we like to use. Our tools must help us and unless they do they are not used.

In order to do things we want to do we need to know a great deal about subjectmatter but we don't think of it as such. Above all, we don't pigeonhole each subject into a period of so many minutes. Out of the whole we find we have learned the things we needed to know at the time we used them.

My aim is to teach the child to use subjectmatter as a tool just as he uses a saw or paste to make things he needs at the moment. I have a course of study and it is surprising how much of it fits in with what we are doing, but if I should fail to teach a single thing that the course of study says should be taught, I would not worry for I probably would be teaching something equally important.

Third, both teacher and principal must take a long-range view of child growth—not on a month-to-month basis but on a year-to-year basis. Groups, like individuals, grow at different rates. If tests given yearly or less often show that a particular group is progressing about as well as can reasonably be expected in the development of basic

skills, supervisors should be satisfied. Overemphasis on objective test results will interfere with the attainment of many social and personal objectives sought thru the continuing-teacher plan. Care should be taken that the school does not try to measure and judge all pupil progress by means of tests which cover only a few aspects of that progress. Until behavior scales, social maturity standards, and other measures of personality are better developed, the principal or supervisor will probably do well to require a minimum of formal testing.

How then shall progress be determined? It must be determined to considerable extent by careful observation of the children in all phases of school activity. Are they happy? Are they eager to come to school? Do they get along with each other? Can they plan together? Is their capacity for self-appraisal well developed? Are they self-satisfied, or are they striving for better performance and achievement? Can they use their educational tools as they need them? Are they alert? These are a few of the questions which the teacher and principal should ask in determining whether the group, or the pupil in the group, is progressing. This is admittedly a subjective approach, but social and personal qualities are subjective things.

To attain these objectives there must be a free and frank interchange of ideas, criticisms, and suggestions between the teacher and principal at all times. The relationship between these two workers must be maintained on the same cooperative, mutual-help basis as is the pupil-teacher relationship. If it is not, the values of the continuing-teacher plan will be jeopardized. The principal and teacher must, in a sense, forget the difference in their official positions and work as equals.

THE learning of the child is subordinate to his attitude of mind and he responds to the personality before him as a small body in a vast field of force responds to the invisible pressures around it. The most intangible, least measurable and least known forces in nature are among the most potent, and personality is one of these. No student passes through the educational system without the stamp of some teacher upon him.—Wheeler, Raymond H., and Perkins, Francis T., *Principles of Mental Development*, Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1932, p. 510. (Quoted by permission of the publishers.)

INTEGRATION THRU COOPERATIVE ASSEMBLIES IN A
DEPARTMENTAL ORGANIZATION

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IN AN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL whose upper grades are departmentalized, one of the most effective means of integrating the learning of pupils in these grades is the cooperative assembly. Such an assembly must be carefully planned over a long period with two purposes in mind: (1) to bring about a maximum of integration, and (2) to induce the greatest possible amount of cooperation upon the part of pupils and teachers.

Selecting a central theme—In attaining these objectives the first step is to find a central theme or unifying principle about which the assembly can be centered—a theme which can be broken into subordinate units for distribution as contracts or projects among various classes, clubs, or other groups in the school. This central topic must be susceptible of such concrete and dramatic treatment as will appeal to an audience, whether the audience be parents or groups of children. Further, if the theme is to serve as an instrument of integration it must be broad and extensive. Its parts must have continuity. It is better if the theme can be thought of as a series of episodes, each carrying its own educational point but having a close relationship to preceding episodes as well as to those which follow. In other words, the episodes should have a dramatic unity. Finally, the theme must lend itself to many types of development so that the teachers of English, history, geography, music, and art can immediately see possibilities of treating it from the viewpoints of their respective subjects.

Altho we at the LaFayette School have employed successfully such broad, fundamental topics as "Youth and Leisure in American History," about which we developed vivid portrayals of the leisure-time activities of the American people in successive historical periods, we have never found another topic which was so successful in securing both integration and cooperation as was "The Mississippi," which we used as the core idea for a recent assembly. In the pages that follow, the development of this assembly will be used to illustrate the suggestions and recommendations offered. The scope of the topic used and the continuity of its parts are evident in the list of scenes presented:

Scene I

The Mississippi—Its Geography and History

*Scene II*Canoes of French Explorers, Fur Traders, and Indians Touch at the
Sites of Future Cities

Scene III

Flatboats of Pioneer Settlers in the Great Valley Bind the West to
French New Orleans

Scene IV

Steamboats Make the Mississippi the Great Highway between North and South
in the Days Before the Civil War

Scene V

The Showboat Brings Glamor and Romance to the River Towns as Their
Glory Wanes Before the Rising Cities of the Great Lakes

Organizing class work about the central theme—Since we plan but one assembly of this kind each semester,¹ it is possible to weave much of the preparation for it into the daily work of the pupils. The pupils of each room spend as much or as little time on the project as circumstances seem to require. For the most part they prepare for the assembly as if getting ready for an ordinary classroom exercise and thus avoid those hectic days of final preparation which in some schools bring teachers and pupils to the verge of prostration. If each teacher plans her work for a considerable portion of the semester about the theme of the semester assembly, there is no need for undue emotional stress upon the part of either teachers or pupils.

If the theme is wisely chosen, the teacher immediately sees possibilities of developing projects around it in the subject she teaches. When the topic "The Mississippi" was presented for consideration to the upper-grade teachers at the LaFayette School, the geography teachers at once saw possibilities of focusing the projects, activities, handwork, and factual material of the semester on the geography of the Mississippi Valley. These classroom contributions may be as profound or as sketchy as desired. For example, pupils in the upper grades may consider such relatively difficult problems as why Chicago surpassed St. Louis in trade, wealth, and population after the Civil War, a topic involving the whole economic struggle between the "Lake cities" and the "river cities" of the Central West. On the other hand, a sixth-grade class may merely determine the location of the river cities and draw a pictorial map of the industries and products typical of the regions in which the cities are situated.

Whether the treatment be profound or sketchy, pupils and teachers who undertake to develop the "Mississippi" theme must keep uppermost in their minds the dominant role that this great inland waterway has played in our history and still plays in our economic life. In addition, the teachers must realize that adequate concepts of the river's dominance can be built up in the minds of pupils only by many concrete experiences pointing toward this central idea. Un-

¹ Assemblies of less extensive scope are held by individual classes at more frequent intervals.

less the fundamental principle of building concepts thru a number of concrete related activities is kept clearly in mind by all teachers, each one may find herself working on some isolated phase of the general theme and her pupils may fail to attain the integration of learning which is the chief purpose of the assembly project.

While the geography teacher may derive the most benefit in her teaching from such a broad theme as "The Mississippi," the history teacher can immediately focus much of her semester's teaching on the Mississippi Valley as a theater of great historic events. In fact, the history teacher has an advantage over the geography teacher in that historical events are susceptible of a more dramatic, vivid, and concrete presentation than are the facts of geography. Both teachers can deal as profoundly or as sketchily with their subjects as they choose.

Pupils of the upper grades are capable of dealing with such elaborate concepts as the influence of the flatboat trade of the Mississippi in necessitating our purchase of Louisiana from the French. The economic significance of the river trade, altho a difficult abstraction in itself, can be approached concretely thru studying the flatboat to discover how it was made, what sort of produce it carried, and where the produce was sold. Thus the pupil can attain the concept of the river's economic significance as readily as he attains more elemental concepts.

In the LaFayette School the music teachers set their classes to work finding the music that owes its inspiration to the Mississippi. The children discovered songs of French voyageurs and Indians, songs of flatboat men, folk songs of Negro workmen on river wharves, and showboat songs which were popular a generation ago and are now being revived occasionally on the radio. The children sang these with unusual zest because they understood the historic background from which each one had arisen.

The art teachers saw the possibilities of developing their project about the colorful costumes of men on flatboats, about wharf scenes, or about the exciting and glamorous showboats. While the pupils had to obtain many of their ideas from pictures of such scenes—particularly from paintings showing the colors of the costumes—and while pupils needed to be warned against "copying" historic paintings, there were many opportunities for them to be creative and original. Often this creativeness was the result of considerable intensive study. For example, some children wished to depict in a poster the bonnets of the pioneer women who came down to see the flatboat depart. Should they use some turkey red to relieve the somber browns? How could they devise colorful and artistic costumes which would also be reasonably authentic? Careful research was necessary to answer these questions. The same was true in regard to the costumes of

the actors and the stage decorations on the showboat, all of which called for a high degree of original, creative art.

The English teachers turned to Mark Twain and other writers who have given us vivid pictures of life on the Mississippi. So many poems and stories owe their inspiration to the Mississippi that it may well be called the "river of romance." The task of the teachers was to choose wisely from the abundance of material available.

The teachers of physical education centered much of their instruction on games and dances, including Indian dances, the hoe-down, the Virginia reel, and the cake-walk. Here, as elsewhere, the important thing was to have the pupils keep in mind and display vividly and concretely the influence of the Mississippi upon our social customs as evidenced in the recreation of communities along its banks.

Preparing and presenting successive scenes—In developing the several episodes or scenes for the assembly it is better to follow the chronological order of historical periods or events. We departed from the strict chronological order only in the first scene. In this scene an eighth-grade class presented a socialized recitation in which committees brought upon the stage records of facts which they had found on such topics as flood control, the lake-to-the-gulf waterway, government appropriations for dredging, and the extent of freight traffic on the Mississippi. These were prosaic facts but important. When they were presented by the committee members, authorities were carefully cited and illustrations were given by means of bar graphs on large posters. At the back of the stage was a large pictorial map of the Mississippi Valley. A boy with a long pointer indicated the locations on the map as the committee members discussed incidents or facts concerning the various topics under consideration.

The amount of active research which the members of this class did for a considerable period prior to the presentation of the assembly was really surprising. Almost every child was able to find some interesting fact about the Mississippi River which could be woven into the general pattern of the program. In planning the first scene, emphasis was placed on having the pupils discuss freely, interestingly, and intelligently such broad topics as the rise and decline of the river trade, the influence of railroads in bringing about the decline of this trade, the significance of the Mississippi as a North-South axis prior to the Civil War, and the recent attempts of the federal government to control the floods of the Mississippi and to make it again a favorable influence in the economic life of the Central West.

The social and economic insight of these children and their ability to explain rather complex facts in simple language were indeed gratifying to those who had encouraged them to proceed on their own initia-

tive with a minimum of direction from the teacher. They were allowed twenty minutes for the presentation of their unit. In order to present a coherent and unified discussion within the allotted time, they first had to exercise discrimination in their choice of facts and then had to arrange the selected facts in logical sequence. Their sentences had to be complete and their enunciation clear. From the standpoint of English, the emphasis was placed upon free but carefully thought out exposition and narration. Unless pupils are held to high standards of oral English in their socialized recitations, one of the great educational values of such recitations is lost.

After this eighth-grade group had presented the basic facts about the Mississippi and had given an overview of what was to follow, the assembly program followed a strictly chronological order, each group being responsible for a particular historical period. The sixth-grade pupils led off with stories of LaSalle and the exploration of the Mississippi. About 140 pupils participated in this episode, including those who took part in the music, dancing, dramatization, and setting of the stage. The work of the sixth-grade teachers of history, English, art, music, and physical education was centered in this scene. The next episode represented the work of about 140 seventh-grade pupils, who under the direction of their history, English, music, art, and physical education teachers re-created flatboat days by singing appropriate songs, re-enacting the dances of the time, and dramatizing historic events. Then followed a scene from the days before the Civil War when steamboat traffic on the Mississippi dominated the social and economic life along its banks. In elaborateness and artistry of costuming and stage setting this was probably the most remarkable scene of all, altho the last scene, in which the melodious songs of showboat days were revived, was the most popular with the audience. The entire assembly was a particularly joyous presentation.

Summary of values—The major values of an assembly project of this sort appear to be as follows:

1. The major fields of elementary-school learning are unified about a central thread.
2. Basic concepts or understandings are developed in the minds of participants and audience.
3. A large organization of pupils and teachers works at a common task, thus learning cooperation in the only practical way.
4. Creative and original thinking on the part of pupils is induced at every step; everything in the way of dialog, costumes, and scenery is homemade.
5. Finally, and probably most important, each child comes to know the thrill of creative and artistic craftsmanship.

ENRICHMENT THRU A MODIFIED PLATOON ORGANIZATION

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A MAJOR WEAKNESS of the traditional school, whether graded or ungraded, has been the inadequate teaching of subjectmatter. It has usually been impossible for one teacher to master all the subjects taught. The chief weakness of the departmental school organization, on the other hand, has been the inadequate consideration given to pupils. Teachers in this type of school have tended to become teachers of subjects rather than teachers of children.

The platoon or companion-class scheme of organization was evolved in an attempt to retain the strong points and avoid the weaknesses of the other plans just mentioned. Essentially, as most educators know, this scheme provides for dividing the population of the school into two large groups called platoons. The platoons are so scheduled that while the pupils in one are studying the so-called fundamental subjects in homerooms, the pupils of the other platoon are engaged with special or "activity" subjects in special rooms. At the end of each class period the two platoons alternate from the homerooms to the special rooms and vice versa.

The original Sacramento plan—While the regular platoon school was being developed in the East and Middlewest, Superintendent Charles C. Hughes of Sacramento originated a somewhat different plan utilizing the companion-class principle. This plan was first tried out in two schools during the school year 1914-15, and was officially adopted by the schoolboard in 1916. Altho it has been adjusted and improved several times, the companion-class organization has been in constant operation in the elementary schools of Sacramento since its adoption.

In developing this plan the superintendent was seeking a creative-activity type of education to replace the traditional academic, formal curriculum. He saw the need for special rooms and special facilities for teaching certain subjects, such as art and science. He advocated less recitation and more creative activity as a method of teaching and learning, and incidentally more complete use of all features of the school plant. The plan was originally worked out on the theory that instruction is more effective when it is carried on in surroundings especially suited to the purposes and methods of the subjects, especially such subjects as art, music, science, physical training, and handwork; that specially equipped rooms for these subjects tend to encour-

age an orderly use of the time devoted to them; that such specialization tends to center the teacher's thoughts more specifically upon the aims of her instruction; that the moving from room to room provides recreation and important social training; and that such a plan may be made a means of saving space in buildings.¹

Briefly, the plan divided the children of each grade from I thru V into two groups. There had to be an even number of classes since each class was paired with another in the same grade. The classes in each pair were known as the "Alpha" and "Beta" classes. Since they used the same homerooms for regular work they were called companion classes.

Each building had "regular" and "special" rooms. Each regular room (or homeroom) housed a pair of classes for the study of history, language, reading, writing, spelling, and arithmetic. Special rooms and a playground were provided for drawing, music, nature study, physical training, and construction work. The children of one platoon, consisting of all the Alpha classes, arrived for work at 8:45 A.M. and entered the homerooms for regular studies. They remained in the homerooms until 9:25 when the Beta classes arrived. At this time the Alpha classes went to various special rooms and the Beta classes occupied the homerooms. The Beta classes kept the homerooms until 10:05 when the Alpha group returned and the Beta classes went to the special rooms. This procedure continued thruout the day. Each teacher taught all subjects to her own class but she taught the special subjects in specially equipped rooms.

Modification of the plan—In his survey of the Sacramento schools in 1927, J. B. Sears commented that he believed the companion-class organization had much merit and he offered several suggestions for improving it.² Consequently, while the original theory of the plan has been maintained certain changes have been made since 1931 in accordance with the following points of view:

1. Better teaching is secured when teachers specialize somewhat in subject-matter. Teachers should not be expected to master each of the twelve to fifteen subjects in the elementary-school curriculum.

2. No teacher should spend all her time teaching special subjects. By so doing she tends to become a teacher of subjectmatter rather than a teacher of children.

3. Children in the primary grades need the constant care and attention of the "mother" teacher. They are too young to adjust themselves to a number of different teacher personalities. A single teacher can give better attention to their general development and to the coordination of their learning efforts than can several teachers working independently. Keeping primary children out of the platoon grouping is also desirable because the California School Code provides a maximum school day of four hours for these pupils. This provision would make it difficult to schedule them with other classes in the use of the special rooms.

¹ Sears, Jesse B. *Sacramento School Survey*. Vol. II. Sacramento, Calif.: Board of Education, 1928. p. 259-65.

² Sears, Jesse B., *ibid.*

4. Children in the upper grades, on the other hand, profit greatly by coming in contact with several different teachers and being influenced by their different personalities.

5. Children should be given the benefit of good equipment in music, art, science, library, and physical education. Instruction in these subjects requires special provisions if it is to be effective.

6. The plan of alternating study, work, and recreational types of activities is desirable from both the physical and the psychological points of view.

The present companion-class plan in Sacramento differs from the usual platoon plan in that each teacher is responsible for only one homeroom class. She spends at least half of her day (in alternate periods) teaching this class in a group of subjects which offer a great deal of opportunity for integration and the remainder of the day teaching one special subject to the other classes in her platoon. Thus, no teacher spends all her time teaching either homeroom subjects or special subjects. The plan is similar to the usual platoon organization in that the regular classrooms are used by two platoons in alternating periods, and the regular subjects are all taught in these homerooms. For the other periods the children go to special rooms where the special subjects are taught. The school day consists of six periods of approximately fifty-five minutes each.

The local school system as a whole is organized on the 7-3-3-2 plan. The elementary schools include the kindergarten and Grades I to VI, inclusive. The companion-class organization affects only Grades III, IV, V, and VI. The kindergarten and Grades I and II are organized so that each teacher has her own room and her own class group thruout the day. There are no special-subject teachers in the primary group.

The homeroom—In the traditional school there is no particular need for designating certain subjects as "special" and others as "regular." However, as soon as specialized teaching is begun or the establishment of special rooms is undertaken, it becomes necessary to distinguish these two types of subjects.

In dividing the subjects into special and homeroom groups, the schools of this city have been guided mostly by educational considerations altho administrative expediency has necessitated some arbitrary choices. In general, those subjects which offer the most opportunity and incentive for social integration in teaching and learning were chosen as the homeroom subjects. In this group are reading, social studies, writing, spelling, and English or arithmetic. The homeroom program is usually arranged by the homeroom teacher and approved by the principal, the teacher being allowed considerable independence in her programming.

In the homeroom the teacher occupies a place of great responsibility for the integration of the personalities of the children. Here the chil-

dren and teacher become well acquainted and the teacher acts as a mother, counselor, and guide as well as instructor. The pupil learns to rely upon his homeroom teacher for all of these functions. Because of the value of such an influence on the lives of the boys and girls, Sacramento has seen fit to retain the homeroom as an essential part of each teacher's program.

The special rooms—The so-called special subjects include those that demand special equipment and special talent and training on the part of the teacher. Special supervisors also are provided for these subjects. By classifying them as "special," the problem of providing necessary equipment is greatly simplified and supervision is made easier since the number of teachers teaching any one subject is greatly reduced. Art, music, library, science, and physical education are included in this group of subjects.

As intimated above, each of the special rooms is always in charge of a teacher specially qualified to teach the subject assigned to that room. For instance, the library is in charge of a teacher who does regular classroom teaching part of the day and teaches library work the rest of the day. The music room likewise is in charge of a teacher who teaches regular subjects in her homeroom part of the day and teaches music in the special music room the rest of the day. In addition to their regular teacher training, these teachers have had training in their special fields. They are familiar with their special subjects from the classroom point of view. They know the regular courses of study and are familiar with general classroom methods as well as the specific materials and methods in their own special fields. It is taken for granted that they should have personalities that will facilitate happy cooperation with other members of the faculty.

In any platoon plan it is necessary to give the same time allotment to the special subjects as to the homeroom subjects, in order to make possible the use of the rooms during alternate periods by the two platoons. To accomplish this and to enable the principal to make the best use of his teaching personnel, either arithmetic or English may be classified as a special subject. If English is chosen, arithmetic obviously must be taught as a homeroom subject, and vice versa. Thus, in the Sacramento plan certain subjects are always classified as special and some are always classified as homeroom subjects, while two others may be either homeroom or special subjects depending on how they are programmed.

Time allotments—The time allotted to the different subjects is of special importance in the companion-class program. The time given to each subject must be such that it will program properly in the

schedule adopted. The weekly time schedule used in the Sacramento program is as follows:

Homeroom subjects		Minutes per week
Reading		200
Writing		75
Social studies (Grades IV, V, and VI)		275
Social studies (Grade III)		135
Spelling		100
Optional homeroom or special subjects		
English	}	{ 175 if a homeroom subject 135 if a special subject
Arithmetic		
Special subjects		
Art		135
Music		135
Science		135
Physical Education		135
Library		135

The daily program—Altho there are variations from school to school, the daily program shown in Figure I illustrates the main features of the companion-class plan as it operates in this city. It will be noted that each class regularly alternates from academic homeroom work to the more relaxing work done in the special rooms; that each teacher (indicated by her initials on the chart) is basically responsible for one class group which returns to her in the homeroom each alternate hour; and that each teacher teaches one special subject to various groups during the other periods. The heavily outlined rectangles on the chart indicate the location of a single class (the low 6a) during each period or half-period of the day, while the diagonal lines follow the homeroom teacher of this class thru her program for the day.

Attention should be called to the fact that while two homeroom subjects, such as reading and writing, are scheduled together during one long period of fifty-five minutes, they do not receive the same amount of time. As already stated, reading receives 200 minutes and writing only 75 minutes per week. The teacher is expected to make the proper time adjustment within the period available for these subjects. During the last period of the day the third grades are scheduled for a subject requiring only half a period because they are dismissed a half period earlier than the three higher grades.

This program is arranged on the basis of twelve classes grouped in two platoons of six classes each. Eleven classrooms and the playground are used. One classroom is saved by using the playground during each period. The success of the plan does not depend on having twelve classes; platoons of four or five classes each will work just as effectively. In such cases, one or two of the special subjects must become homeroom subjects and be taught by the homeroom teacher.

Period	Music Room 24	Phys. Ed. Yard	Library Room 6	Art Room 10	Science Room 8	Arith. Room 22	Room 5	Room 4	Room 23	Room 9	Room 7	Room 21
I	Low 3a L.O.	High 3 A.R.	Low 3b E.R.	Low 4a E.F.	High 4 S.C.	Low 4b P.R.	Low 6a Social Studies C.S.	High 5 Reading Writing M.K.	Low 5b Spelling English L.C.	Low 6b Reading Writing O.P.	High 6 Social Studies I.F.	Low 5a Spelling English M.S.
	Low 3b L.O.	Low 3a A.R.	High 3 E.R.	Low 4b E.F.	Low 4a S.C.	High 4 P.R.	Low 6a Social Studies C.S.	Low 4a English Spelling A.R.	Low 4b Social Studies L.O.	High 4 Reading Writing E.F.	Low 3b Social Studies Spelling S.C.	Low 3a Social Studies Writing P.R.
II	Low 5a L.C.	High 5 M.K.	Low 5b C.S.	Low 6a O.P.	High 6 I.F.	Low 6b M.S.	High 3 Reading Writing E.R.	Low 4a English Spelling A.R.	Low 4b Social Studies L.O.	High 4 Reading Writing E.F.	Low 3b Social Studies Spelling S.C.	Low 3a Social Studies Writing P.R.
	Low 5b L.C.	Low 5a M.K.	High 5b C.S.	Low 6b O.P.	Low 6a I.F.	High 6 M.S.	High 3 Reading Writing E.R.	Low 4a English Spelling A.R.	Low 4b Social Studies L.O.	High 4 Reading Writing E.F.	Low 3b Social Studies Spelling S.C.	Low 3a Social Studies Writing P.R.
Recess												
III	Low 4a L.O.	High 4 A.R.	Low 4b E.R.	Low 3a E.F.	High 3 S.C.	Low 3b P.R.	Low 6a Reading Social Writing C.S.	High 5 Social Studies M.K.	Low 5b Reading Writing L.C.	Low 6b Social Studies L.C.	High 6 Spelling English I.F.	Low 5a Reading Writing M.S.
	Low 4b L.O.	Low 4a A.R.	High 4 E.R.	Low 3b E.F.	Low 3a S.C.	High 3 P.R.	Low 6a Reading Social Writing C.S.	High 5 Social Studies M.K.	Low 5b Reading Writing L.C.	Low 6b Social Studies L.C.	High 6 Spelling English I.F.	Low 5a Reading Writing M.S.
NOON												
IV	Low 6a L.C.	High 6 M.K.	Low 6b C.S.	Low 5a O.P.	High 5 I.F.	Low 5b M.S.	High 3 Social Studies E.R.	Low 4a Social Studies A.R.	Low 4b English Spelling L.O.	High 4 English Spelling E.F.	Low 3b Reading Writing S.C.	Low 3a Spelling Reading F.R.
	Low 6b L.C.	Low 6a M.K.	High 6b C.S.	Low 5b O.P.	Low 5a I.F.	High 5 M.S.	High 3 Social Studies E.R.	Low 4a Social Studies A.R.	Low 4b English Spelling L.O.	High 4 English Spelling E.F.	Low 3b Reading Writing S.C.	Low 3a Spelling Reading F.R.
V	High 3 L.O.	Low 3b A.R.	Low 4a E.R.	High 4 E.F.	Low 4b S.C.	Low 3a P.R.	Low 6a Spelling English C.S.	High 5 Spelling English M.K.	Low 5b Social Studies L.C.	Low 6b Spelling English O.P.	High 6 Reading Writing I.F.	Low 5a Social Studies M.S.
	High 4 L.O.	Low 4b A.R.	Low 3a E.R.	High 3 E.F.	Low 3b S.C.	Low 4a P.R.	Low 6a Spelling English C.S.	High 5 Spelling English M.K.	Low 5b Social Studies L.C.	Low 6b Spelling English O.P.	High 6 Reading Writing I.F.	Low 5a Social Studies M.S.
Recess												
VI	High 5 L.C.	Low 5b M.K.	Low 6a C.S.	High 6 O.P.	Low 6b I.F.	Low 5a M.S.	High 3 English E.R.	Low 4a Reading Writing A.R.	Low 4b Writing Reading L.O.	High 4 Social Studies E.F.	Low 3b English S.C.	Low 3a English F.R.
	High 6 L.C.	Low 6b M.K.	Low 5a C.S.	High 5 O.P.	Low 5b I.F.	Low 6a M.S.	High 3 English E.R.	Low 4a Reading Writing A.R.	Low 4b Writing Reading L.O.	High 4 Social Studies E.F.	Low 3b English S.C.	Low 3a English F.R.

Heavily outlined rectangles indicate location of the low 6a class during each period.

Diagonal lines show movement of the homeroom teacher of this class from period to period.

FIGURE I—COMPANION-CLASS DAILY PROGRAM FOR TWELVE CLASSES, WILLIAM LAND SCHOOL, SACRAMENTO, CALIFORNIA

Conclusion—In considering the merits of the companion-class plan of organization, it should be recognized that no plan can provide all the features desirable in a school program. Moreover, this plan is only a scheme of organization and not a method of instruction. It must not be confused with the activity method, the Dalton plan, or any other method of teaching. However, any method or plan of instruction may be used as effectively in the companion-class organization as in any other type.

As a piece of educational machinery the plan works well in Sacramento. It is flexible enough to be applied to varying school conditions. It lends itself well to the programming of subjects and classes. It reduces the number of subjects each teacher is required to teach and thereby decreases the teacher's problem in mastering new curriculum material. It allows each teacher to handle the special subject she is best qualified to teach. The writer believes that these factors contribute to better teaching of both regular and special subjects.

In addition, the plan simplifies the problem of supervising special subjects. In a school having twelve companion classes there are only two teachers teaching each of the special subjects instead of twelve as would be the case in a traditional graded school of the same size. Since each teacher has special training in her special field the supervisor's problems are reduced in number and in magnitude.

The homeroom periods are fifty-five minutes in length, thus giving ample time for good teaching and learning procedures. With each teacher primarily responsible for one group of children, it is felt that attention is centered more on the development of children than on the teaching of subjectmatter.

The equipment of special rooms in the companion-class school obviates the necessity of duplicating equipment in the regular classrooms. Proper equipment in the music room, for instance, saves duplicating such equipment as pianos, phonographs, and radios. A well-equipped central library makes it unnecessary to duplicate many books which would be required in each room of a traditional school. It is possible in this scheme to set up one well-planned and well-equipped room for each of the special subjects and to have it used by as many as twelve different classes during the day. It would usually be impossible to afford equally good equipment if each classroom had to be completely equipped to teach these subjects.

While other forms of organization offer some of the same advantages, the writer's experience leads him to believe that the companion-class plan permits greater curriculum enrichment at lower cost than do any of the traditional arrangements or the usual type of platoon organization.

IMPROVING HEALTH AND SAFETY INSTRUCTION IN PLATOON SCHOOLS

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IN ANY TYPE of school organization there are both advantages and limitations. Proponents of each type emphasize its recognized assets while critics unhesitatingly condemn those features which they claim are liabilities. To date the "ideal" organization has not been invented, and so the battle of professional opinion goes merrily on.

Irrespective of the type of school organization—be it traditional, departmental, cooperative group, or platoon—the school principal shoulders no more serious responsibility than that of providing for pupils an effective program in health and safety education. It is relatively easy to set forth a program on paper, but the successful execution of a program which will result in a steady building of right knowledges, attitudes, and practices in the fields of health and safety is a task to challenge every school administrator.

The problem in platoon schools—Because of the fundamental structure of the platoon organization, many principals in schools of this type have found a knotty problem confronting them in their attempts to make health and safety instruction function thru the one place where it must be centered if the program is to be successful. That place is the homeroom. Health and safety have for years been taught in the activity or special-subject periods and, in some situations, taught well; yet the feeling has prevailed that there was a definite loss somewhere along the line. Principals have generally agreed that these studies belonged in the homeroom. The question was how to center the instruction in a homeroom whose schedule was already filled. The following pages tell briefly how a committee of platoon school principals in Newark has sought to solve this problem.

The platoon organization in Newark—During the past fifteen years the Newark school system has simplified its platoon organization and overcome, one after another, the main criticisms leveled against this type of school. In this city the homeroom teacher is assigned to two classes, one of which she teaches for the entire morning and the other for the entire afternoon. The academic subjects, with the exception of arithmetic, are usually taught in the homeroom. Departmentalization takes place only in the special activities, which consist of physical education, auditorium, art, music, science, home economics, shop, library, and study.

The following program is typical of the class schedules of seventh- and eighth-grade classes prior to the changes brought about thru the study by the principals' committee:

Homeroom subjects	Minutes per week	Activity subjects	Minutes per week
Reading and literature.....	150	Arithmetic	138
Social studies	300	Music and science.....	137
Language (oral and written)....	225	Art	138
Spelling	75	Physical education	137
Penmanship	60	Auditorium	138
Unassigned	15	Shop	137
		Home economics{	
Total	825	Total	825

The problem with reference to this program was to take the direction of health and safety education from the activity rooms (where it was carried on thru auditorium, science, home economics, shop, and physical education) and to assign it ninety minutes per week in the homeroom. The obvious conclusion was that if the teaching of health and safety was to be given a definite place on the homeroom schedule, some other subject would have to be dropped or at least its allotted time would have to be curtailed.

Advantages of homeroom placement—The arguments advanced for centering the teaching of both health and safety in the homeroom were as follows:

1. Correlation and unification of these subjects with reading, spelling, penmanship, language, and the social studies would be made possible. In fact, this could be achieved only in the homeroom.
2. The directive influence of the homeroom teacher would be present every day. (The development of attitudes and habits requires regular attention.)
3. The teaching would be done on a regular schedule and would not be subject to interruptions and breaks because of cycle programming.
4. Health and safety units or projects could be carried out more efficiently in all departments of the school if initiated in the homeroom rather than in an activity room.
5. The homeroom teacher, because of her influence and close relationship with her own class, would be the person to teach health and safety most effectively.

Guiding principles—Further study of typical homeroom schedules, together with a careful consideration of fundamental educational principles, led the committee to the following general conclusions:

1. That the skill subjects (formal language, reading, handwriting, spelling, and manipulation of numbers) are means and not ends in themselves; that these skills are to be developed in children primarily as "keys" to open up the world's storehouse of knowledge or to extend and enrich their personal experiences.
2. That the major fields of knowledge (those of greatest interest to most people, including children) are to be found in the social studies, literature, and science.
3. That the skills involved in reading, oral and written language, penmanship, and spelling can be developed as readily thru the materials of health and safety as thru the materials of history, geography, literature, and science.
4. That the vital interests of children shall take precedence, here and now, over

the hoary tradition which years ago set up the acquisition of skills (the three R's) as the "end and all" of elementary education.

5. That health and safety are among the foremost objectives of education; that a place must be found for them where they will have a chance to function on an equal footing with other favored subjects.

6. That the supposedly fixed features of the platoon organization shall be made to serve, rather than be permitted to dictate, the purposes and procedures of the school.

Committee recommendations—In the light of these conclusions, the committee recommended that health and safety education be scheduled within each homeroom. The decision as to whether the time for this work should come from social studies, reading, or language was left to the individual principals. It was argued by some that, since the academic side of health and safety teaching would largely involve reading and language, the time allotted to the latter subjects could be reduced without loss to either. Others pointed out that since safety instruction belongs fundamentally to the social studies, the time for such instruction might reasonably be taken from the social studies period.

With these recommendations carried out, the homeroom class program previously presented as typical of the seventh- and eighth-grade schedules might now read as follows:

Homeroom subjects	Minutes per week
Reading and literature.....	150
Social studies	270
Health and safety.....	90
Language	165
Spelling	75
Penmanship	60
Unassigned	15
Total	825

The changes thus introduced into the homeroom program mean that the vital and interesting content of health and safety education is now given the emphasis which it deserves, and that it also becomes a part of the material thru which the functioning of the skill subjects takes place.

Contributions of the activity rooms—With the centering of health and safety in the homeroom, the way is now open for a systematic functioning of these subjects thruout the activity rooms. In each platoon school the principal and teachers now relate much of the work of the activity periods to the aims and objectives of the health or safety units which are initiated in the homeroom. This is accomplished thru teacher conferences arranged by the principal. The auditorium contributes dramatizations, talks, songs, motion pictures, and stereopticon slides to illustrate pupil programs. The home economics, science,

shop, and physical education teachers likewise make appropriate contributions, while the art teacher directs the making of posters, pictures, models, murals, and book covers. The school nurse's influence and assistance are felt in all phases of the work.

The homeroom program in health and safety—As the curriculum now functions, the following features are included in the homeroom program of health and safety education:

1. The initiating and teaching of definite health and safety units
2. The daily inspection of pupils as to their general physical condition, cleanliness, symptoms of illness, and other aspects of health
3. The functioning of health and safety knowledge as part of the content thru which the skill subjects are taught
4. Inspirational guidance in the development of right attitudes and practices with respect to health and safety
5. The maintenance of an environment which is favorable to healthful and safe living, including special attention to the control of lighting, temperature, and ventilation and to the elimination of hazards
6. The periodic weighing and measuring of pupils to determine their rates of growth (done by the homeroom teacher with the assistance of the school nurse).

It is the general feeling in Newark that the teaching of health and safety has been greatly improved and that the skill subjects have been enriched and vitalized thru the introduction of the changes outlined in this article.

HEALTH is a factor which conditions our success in all undertakings, personal and social. For that reason schools properly place great emphasis on health as an outcome of education. For the educated person the first requirement in the field of health is an inoculation against superstition, voodoo, witchcraft, and humbug in the fields of medicine and human biology. The best serum now available for this purpose is scientific knowledge concerning the human mind and body as a functioning organism.—Educational Policies Commission, *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*, National Education Association, 1938, p. 60.

VITALIZING THE CURRICULUM IN SMALL RURAL SCHOOLS

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THE INCLUSION OF THIS TOPIC in the yearbook is a fitting recognition of the difficult problems of the principal and teacher in the small rural school. Too frequently teachers have been asked to adapt curriculum material prepared for graded schools to the complex organization of the one-, two-, or three-teacher school. Such a task, challenging to even the wisest curriculum experts, cannot be done by most rural teachers without much guidance and help.

The teacher in the small rural school must face her problem realistically. Her school by its very nature does not lend itself to grade organization or to grade standards. An attempt on her part to use a graded course of study or materials prepared for a specific age-grade group is likely to be ineffectual. Instead, she should take stock of the enrichment opportunities in her own school situation and develop appropriate plans and procedures with such supervisory assistance as may be available.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR ENRICHMENT

Opportunities inherent in the school organization—In a one-teacher school enrolling from eight to thirty-eight children who vary widely in age and interests, the teacher has an ideal situation for organizing learning experiences in terms of pupil needs. Frequently not many families are represented in such a school. The children are well acquainted with each other, and the teacher is usually a member of the community and knows the homes and general backgrounds of the children better than the typical urban teacher can know her group. The help, interest, tolerance, consideration, and exchange of ideas afforded by the various age groups constitute a stimulating and wholesome opportunity that is often lacking in the graded elementary school. Here, then, is an opportunity to group children according to needs, interests, and abilities of which the teacher is intimately aware, without the limitations of rigid classification according to chronological age or grade. Here is an opportunity for children to change groups whenever such a change would be beneficial, without administrative complications and without emotional disturbance for the children involved.

In a one-teacher situation, too, programs are more flexible. No one will be disturbed by the construction work going on, by an excursion,

or by an irregular recess period. The constant fear of "what the next teacher will think" is entirely removed when the same guiding hand leads children thru consecutive periods of development.

Many of these advantages are characteristic also of the two- or three-teacher school. Why should not these opportunities be capitalized rather than ignored or misused? Grades as such are disappearing from many of the larger progressive schools. The teacher in the small rural school should rejoice in having an organization which by its very nature precludes grades, and should plan her curriculum in terms of the situation in which she finds herself rather than endeavor to force her teaching into a pattern which is unsuitable and inefficient.

Opportunities in the out-of-school environment—Curriculum experts tell us that rich living here and now is essential to effective learning. Rural life has a wealth of educative resources to be used by the teacher who is aware of their possibilities. Life is less complicated in the country than in the city and the rural child has an opportunity to share in the production as well as in the consumption of goods. Housing, clothing, recreational facilities, and lines of communication and transportation are simple enough and available enough to provide many vital, firsthand experiences for rural children. Social concepts can be understood thru meaningful experiences in community living.

Recognition of, and acquaintance with, trees, flowers, animals, insects, and land forms, as well as an appreciation of the importance and significance of the seasons and the weather, are experiences often not readily available to urban children but they are the warp and woof of rural life. What better way is there to meet the interests of rural boys and girls, to increase their understanding and appreciation of the environment, to provide for their recreation, and to help them realize their responsibilities for the intelligent use of their own lives and of environmental resources than to center their curriculum in the community life where social and natural factors are familiar and intrinsic? Science richly taught will be replete with social concepts; no understanding of science can be adequate without a consideration of the human relationships involved. Likewise, no study of social life can be complete without an understanding of the influence of science on man and his environment.

ORGANIZING LEARNING EXPERIENCES THRU LARGE UNITS OF WORK

How may learning be organized best to meet the needs of children in small rural schools? Probably the most effective method of organizing learning in any school, large or small, is to establish a rich environment in which children may participate in activities related to large centers of interest. Curriculum units based on centers of interest have been

outlined for each grade in scores of city and county courses of study. As a result, teachers of every grade in city and town schools have led their pupils into large units of work designed to suit the interests and abilities of children at a particular level of maturity.

Unfortunately, many rural teachers have struggled to follow suit without due consideration of the situation in their own schools. "If it is done in the city it must be good!" Obviously the Herculean effort to carry on eight separate units of work in a one-teacher school, with only one or two children participating in each unit, is a waste of time and energy. Yet such a task has been attempted by many conscientious teachers who wished to carry on an activity type of program.

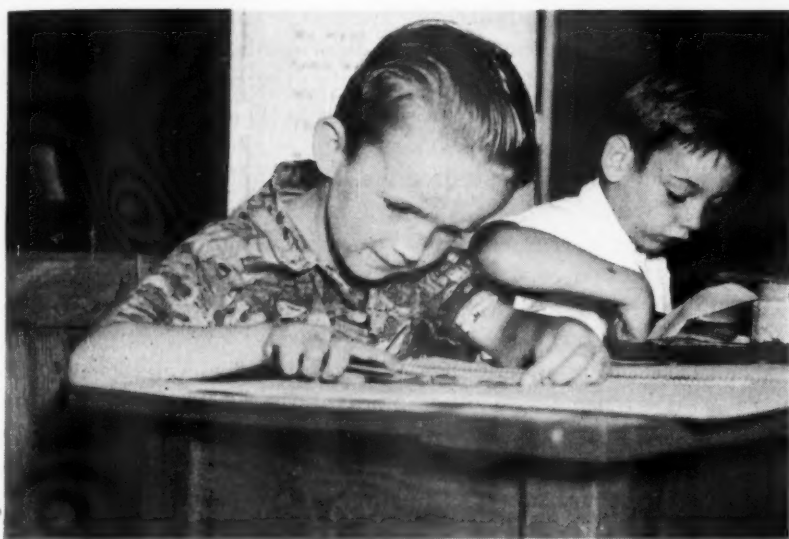


FIGURE I—THE TWO YOUNGEST CHILDREN IN A ONE-TEACHER SCHOOL MAKING A SCRAPBOOK AS PART OF A CURRICULUM UNIT ON FOODS

There are, however, certain large units of work that have sufficient ramifications and are sufficiently significant to meet the needs and interests of children at many different levels of maturity—units to which all pupils even in a one-teacher school may contribute and in which all may participate profitably. In such units grade lines disappear and individual development along socially desirable lines becomes the goal. Examples of such units are those associated with the major social functions of shelter, food, clothing, transportation, communication, and recreation. Another is the intensive study of a culture such as that of China, Mexico, or Sweden, or of an important historical development such as the Westward Movement. A study of community life as a

whole might also furnish a rich and valuable educative experience for children of all ages.

A unit on shelter in a one-teacher school—Bobby and Mary in their first year at school will feel a need to participate in a study of shelter as they construct a house of blocks or packing boxes and enjoy “playing house.” Sally, who after attending school for four years needs help in working with others and has a low reading rate, will find satisfaction in reading easy material, telling stories, and dramatizing the services of various workers concerned with building shelters. Walter, in the eighth grade, who is superior and needs a challenging situation, will find stimulation in industrial and economic problems which are rooted in housing. Evelyn and Grace, in the seventh grade, may have excellent experiences in house furnishing and decoration. George may study blueprints. Albert may determine the relative costs of owning and renting a house in the neighborhood. Martha and Frieda may trace the materials of which houses are constructed to their sources. The whole school may go “excursioning” to see various types of houses, to see houses or other shelters in the process of construction, to see building materials being prepared or transported, to see an apartment house or a hotel in a neighboring center, or to see ways in which animals, farm products, or other goods are housed.

Among the many activities which may be undertaken in a unit on shelter in a small rural school are the following: constructing a miniature house; building a miniature community; depicting the types of homes used by peoples in other parts of the world; sharing stories, poems, and reports with others and keeping them in a class record book; studying the school environment critically and promoting desirable changes; dramatizing the building of a new home by a typical American family; drawing plans for houses; arranging interiors; collecting and evaluating samples or pictures of different kinds of furniture, architecture, textiles, etc.; determining the suitability and costs of various materials; and discovering the ways in which animals provide shelter for themselves in the community.

Many of the source materials for such a unit are to be found in the immediate environment—a farm with shelter for the family, workers, and livestock, the newest house in the village, the oldest house, a trailer, the roominghouse, the schoolhouse, the church, and nests of birds and of wasps. All of these offer the child firsthand knowledge of social conditions and relationships. In addition are the possibilities of bringing into the school persons who know how men provided shelter when the community was new, as well as workers in the community such as carpenters, masons, beekeepers, and dairymen. Vicarious experiences available thru books, pictures, and other visual materials are many in

the study of shelter. In fact, much material is available at every level of reading difficulty on topics relating to all the major social functions of man.

A unit on clothing in a two-teacher school—In a two-teacher school where an experience curriculum was in operation the children in the upper-grade room were studying clothing. At the time the writer visited them they were deep in a study of leather and tanning. One of the industries of the local community was stock raising, and the children were consequently familiar with hides. They had experimented with recipes



FIGURE II—PRIMARY CHILDREN USING THEIR STORE FOR DRAMATIC PLAY IN A STUDY OF COMMUNITY LIFE

for tanning, explored the shoe industry, investigated the kinds of artificial leather, studied stock raising, and painted pictures showing herds of cattle. They were even tooling leather and they knew the various uses of this material. Equally intensive study had taken place in regard to silk, synthetic fabrics, wool, cotton, and rubber. More important was the fact that democratic living was going on in a meaningful situation. Initiative, responsibility, critical thinking, and problem-solving were all given an opportunity to function in the development of the project. Reading and oral and written language had a purpose as real problems were investigated and talked over by the group. Social and scientific concepts became clearer as the sources of raw materials, the processes, the workers, and the users of textiles were studied. Here was a cur-

riculum unit rich in social significance and in opportunities for developing the potentialities of all the children concerned.

A unit on citizenship in a three-teacher school—A young man with a sound educational philosophy found himself principal of a three-teacher school. He also taught the upper-grade room in the school. Several nationalities were represented among the children, including Portuguese, Scandinavian, American, Italian, and Mexican. The intolerant attitudes of the children toward one another merely reflected the attitudes of adults in the community. It was clear that if true democratic living was to be the basis of the curriculum in that school, these attitudes must be changed. Consequently, a curriculum unit fittingly called "We, the People of the United States" was soon under way. The birthplaces of the children in the room were charted, as were the birthplaces of their fathers, mothers, and grandparents. The questions of how and why these people had come to this particular community and what they had done in the communities from which they came served as the starting point for a study of the variety of cultural patterns centered in this little rural town. Costumes, pictures, cherished bits of pottery, musical instruments, utensils, and other appropriate objects were brought to school. A trip to Angel Island, the immigration station in San Francisco Bay, made the coming of foreigners into America real. The regulations for entrance to the United States, the requirements for becoming a citizen, and the quota for each nationality were discussed. A trip down Market Street in San Francisco as the shops were closing and "people of the United States" were hurrying homeward made the children realize that America is indeed a "melting pot."

The improvement of transportation and communication as a factor in bringing the peoples of the world closer together; the universal language of music to which many nationalities have contributed; the varieties of customs, costumes, and shelters that have come about thru adaptation to environment—all these were avenues thru which the children came to have greater tolerance and appreciation of the contributions brought to the local community by people of each nationality.

What a unit is called or where it leads is less important than what happens to children as a result of the experiences they have. Tolerance, open-mindedness, broad-mindedness, respect for the rights of others, self-confidence, and consciousness of the interdependence of mankind were among the desirable characteristics developed in this three-teacher school under wise teacher leadership.

Assuring well-rounded development—The teacher in a small rural school must provide a variety of developmental experiences for each child. It is essential that records be kept of the activities undertaken by the various members of the group during the progress of a large unit of

work so that the experiences may be progressively challenging and may contribute to well-rounded growth. Individual record sheets on which all possible activities are listed and those undertaken by individuals are checked and kept for reference will prove of inestimable value in meeting the needs of children. These records, if transmitted to the various teachers responsible for the education of children as they pass thru the school, will help to provide a unified and purposeful educational program. While such records are highly desirable in any school, they are essential in small rural schools because of the lack of close supervision and the relatively high teacher turnover often found in these schools.



FIGURE III—MEETING INDIVIDUAL NEEDS AND INTERESTS THRU LARGE CURRICULUM UNITS IN A SMALL RURAL SCHOOL

Providing practice in basic skills—Curriculum units which are carefully developed so that the potentialities and needs of all children are constantly cared for will insure considerable skill in the handling of the three R's. There is ample evidence¹ of this fact but teachers seem to need frequent reassurance of its truth. A point which many teachers overlook is that when pupil experiences are significant and purposeful, learning is accomplished in a way that is impossible by monotonous drill. A child may have been drilled unsuccessfully on the spelling of

¹ See, for example: Wrightstone, J. Wayne. *Appraisal of Newer Practices in Selected Public Schools*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935. 117 p. ¶ Waddell, Charles W. "Some Basic Considerations in Evaluating the Activity School." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 16: 481-94; October 1930.

a certain word, but if he needs to use that word in the school newspaper he will learn to spell it correctly. In this instance his purpose is not to get a mark of 100 in spelling but to write an acceptable news note for the school paper. The real issue is not *whether* the basic skills are to be learned, but *how* and *when* they are to be learned. It goes without saying that reading, spelling, arithmetic, and the other skill subjects must be provided for in any school program worthy of the name.

In addition to the activity units, time should be allowed in the daily program for necessary instruction and practice in essential processes. Most teachers probably are not yet skilful enough to arrange an environment in which all necessary learning in arithmetic and reading, for example, is carried on as an integral part of broad and meaningful experiences. But surely to have such subjects function to considerable extent in the larger program is a long step in the right direction.

A SUGGESTED DAILY PROGRAM

The daily program is an important problem for the teacher who is considering large units of work for a number of grades in a small rural school. The program suggested in the following paragraphs has been used successfully by teachers in one-, two-, and three-teacher schools carrying on large curriculum units. It may easily be modified to suit local conditions.

Opening period—This period is one of the most important in the entire day. In some rural schools, school “begins” as the pupils arrive; greetings are exchanged, the teacher observes the appearance of each child; and a happy working attitude for the day is created. When all the children have arrived and school begins officially, the school club may take charge. The president may appoint certain pupils to be responsible for certain duties during the day. Then the children may share current events, local news, jokes, poetry, book reports, and observations made on the arrival of birds, the blooming of flowers, and other natural phenomena. Before the period ends the teacher should check carefully on aspects of the children’s health. Arrangements for the noon lunch also may be made at this time.

Planning the day’s activities—This period will vary greatly in length depending upon the enterprises under way. New individual and group undertakings must be discussed; unfinished work should be reported on and further plans made; letters to be written should be talked over; and materials should be arranged as conveniently as possible. Responsibilities must be definitely indicated so that the children may go to work with real purposes. Long-time plans relative to excursions and interviews outside the school may also be discussed at this time.

Work period—Some of the activities that may take place during the sixty to seventy-five minutes devoted to this phase of the program are listed here:

For older children

1. Construction
2. Art
3. Reading to solve problems
4. Experiments
5. Writing letters
6. Preparing reports
7. Writing dramatizations
8. Classifying and caring for collections of material
9. Cleaning up after work.

For primary children

1. Reading with the teacher
2. Making cooperative stories
3. Construction work
4. Art
5. Reading for pleasure
6. Free play
7. Writing short compositions.

The teacher should be free during a part of this period to work with groups and individuals, to observe the needs of different children, and to guide them in their activities.

Relief periods—Primary children should have a brief relief period each hour. The older children may or may not observe the same routine.

Physical education and health—This period must be at least twenty minutes in length. It is primarily a teaching and learning period and should be regarded as such by the teacher and children. Games should be learned, lunch may be served, and health problems may be discussed. A few children may need to spend most of this period in resting.

Evaluation period—At this time the work done during the morning should be discussed and evaluated. Suggestions from the group should be constructive. Materials and books needed may be listed. Committees may be enlarged to meet specific problems.

The length of this period will vary considerably. If there is time left before lunch it may be used for such activities as pleasure reading, dramatic play, story reading by the teacher, a club meeting, and creative writing.

Noon hour—Clean hands and faces should be required before lunch is eaten. In schools where the table is set and all the children lunch together with a host or hostess in charge there is ample opportunity for practice in table etiquette, the art of conversation, and healthful habits of eating.

Practice in skills—A variety of activities should occupy the period following lunch. Some of them are as follows:

For older children

1. Free reading
2. Finishing reports
3. Spelling study
4. Easel work
5. Creative expression
6. Art instruction.

For primary children

1. Music with the teacher
2. Reading with the teacher
3. Individual help as needed
4. Art
5. Arithmetic (third grade).

For older children

7. Music with the teacher
8. Arithmetic (largely individual work, not more than thirty minutes)
9. Reading in groups with the teacher.

While the work undertaken during this period may vary greatly from day to day, needed practice in the basic skills should receive the major emphasis.

The younger children should have a relief period at about two o'clock. In many schools these children are dismissed at that hour.

Opportunity period—During this period the teacher should assist individuals who need special help in any field. Needs in handwriting may be emphasized, particular difficulties in reading or speech may be analyzed, and plans may be made for improvement. Science should be developed in connection with the large curriculum unit wherever possible, but there may be time during the opportunity period for the pursuit of special science interests. Hobbies should be encouraged and opportunities provided for carrying them on. Appreciation of literature, music, and art also will find a place in this period as well as during other parts of the day.

HELP FROM THE SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

How can the principal (if there is a principal) help the teacher to insure a well-rounded development for children under a program like that outlined above? Teacher and principal together must study the children and analyze their interests, abilities, and needs. The teacher must have a broad cultural background and be familiar with the ramifications of the large areas of experience in which her pupils are engaged. She must have a knowledge of crafts, of literature, and of sources of information. She must be alive to current social problems.

Some of this background the teacher will have acquired during her college or normal school training, but to help vitalize her teaching and familiarize her with the local environment, the principal should discuss with her the needs of the children, explore with her the educative resources of the community by means of excursions, and help her gather and write materials of significance for the local situation. College extension courses in the technics of handling clay, wood, and textiles may be arranged by the principal. Other teachers in the local school or in a neighboring high school may be enlisted to share their understanding of the crafts.

Community participation in the school program should be encour-

aged by the principal. Sympathetic understanding of the modern program will be fostered most surely by enlisting the parents and other citizens in the enterprises of the school.

Materials and supplies needed for the successful carrying out of activities should be ordered well in advance. Teachers may be helped to wise choices by a principal who is sympathetic toward the program and who knows materials. One hammer of the correct weight may be better than three cheaper, less suitable tools. Wrapping paper and calcimine may be more useful than workbooks. Wise choices may best be made if the teacher and principal together prepare the order list, checking their decisions by means of such questions as these: What do we plan to do with this? What are its educative values? Will this item be of more service than some other one?

Teachers in multigraded schools must be released from the domination of grouping by grades and of grade standards consisting of artificial hurdles to be jumped. Tests should not be used as the only criteria for promotion. Promotions for all pupils should be assured in a school program where changed ways of behaving are the objectives of all enterprises undertaken. The disintegrating fear of failure has no place in a program dedicated to child development.

If a teacher knows that the principal has confidence that she is carrying on a sound educative program, her fears of criticism will be allayed and her work will improve. Curriculum enrichment in small rural schools will be assured if a functional program is put into practice, if thru an understanding of his own environment the child is brought to an understanding of society, and if rural teachers are freed from the fetters of courses of study designed for city schools and are allowed to organize learning in terms of the situation which they face.

THE average rural community provides a "million dollar" laboratory for nature study, geology, astronomy, and the other natural sciences to which rural children can be scientifically introduced. Within the heterogeneous grouping of many grades, many ages, many interests, the modern teacher sees an opportunity for education in citizenship. This organization, considered for many years as a liability, in the hands of a skillful teacher becomes an asset.—Wofford, Kate V., *Modern Education in the Small Rural School*, Macmillan Co., 1938, p. 14. (Quoted by permission of the publishers.)

ENRICHMENT THRU THE BOOK AUTO IN A COUNTY SCHOOL SYSTEM

ELIZABETH R. TOPPING

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THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS OF Ventura County, with the exception of those in two of the larger towns, belong to the county library. That is, these schools contract for library service from the county and pool their resources for buying books. This year all but one school have also pooled their funds for visual education. Under the law of California the county librarian buys supplementary texts, other books, and visual education material approved by the county board of education. In addition, the schools draw on the teachers' library which is affiliated with the county library, as well as on the general collection of books in the county library.

Every teacher or every school may have a collection of books for general reading. Several of the larger schools have centralized libraries in charge of special teachers where the children go regularly for books. Three schools make a practice of going by classes to one of the branch libraries every week and getting the books needed for study or leisure reading. But in many schools it is difficult for the teachers to get to a branch library as often as they would like, and difficult in the press of work to send word for the material they need.

While the county library has community branches scattered thru the county, many of these are not accessible to children living in the open country because these children go back and forth to school on buses. The librarian's problem is how to give service to all children in the county.

Development of the book-auto plan—In serving the children of one of the larger schools the library sent books to the playground at noon in the library car. These books were spread on benches and tables. The collection was changed from week to week and the teachers and children used it not only for pleasure but also in connection with their studies. Soon the principal reported that some of the Spanish-speaking boys who had shown little interest in reading were beginning to read books from cover to cover. The collection sent to the school was in charge of a trained children's librarian.

This was the start of the book-auto plan. The next year the library bought a pick-up Ford truck and a carpenter built bookcases for it that opened outward on the sides. The inside of the truck was used for the storage of extra books to replenish the outside supply. Card tables were carried on the truck and books for little children were displayed on them.

The next step was to build a bookcase that fitted on the trunk rack of the library sedan. This bookcase opens outward with winged sides. The sedan is sent to the smaller schools.

Either the truck or the sedan goes to every school that does not have ready access to a branch library, as well as to some ranches and communities that would not otherwise have book service. In charge of the entire service is a professionally trained librarian specializing in children's work who goes out to many of the schools herself. Associated with her are two clerically trained girls.

How one school uses the book service—Each of the schools presents its own problem. In some of them, like the Rio School, over 90 percent of the children are Spanish-speaking. Every Thursday the truck is filled with books especially selected for this school, and two people are sent with it. On its arrival at the school the children come out in small groups and choose books that they want to read and books that will help them in their studies. The truck also carries books which the teachers have requested either for their own personal reading or as aids in their classroom work. It may also carry films, slides, pictures, projectors, or victrola records to add to the material from which the teacher may draw for curriculum enrichment.

In this county the weather is pleasant most of the year. Children and teachers alike enjoy getting outdoors, talking freely with someone who is interested in supplying them something they really care about, and looking over lovely books. One of the teachers at the Rio School reports that boys hitherto interested only in cigarettes and poolrooms have become active readers. A drawing of an airplane or engine catches the attention of such a boy as he glances thru the books on the shelves. He picks up the book, turns the pages idly at first, and then becomes lost in concentration upon the printed page. The book is taken into the classroom, where the wise teacher encourages and capitalizes the interest aroused. Then the book is taken home. Thus the nonreader develops a desire to read because reading is a means of learning something he wants to know.

This particular school is one in which the manual arts are stressed because the children come from Spanish-speaking homes and their parents are for the most part agricultural workers who harvest beans, walnuts, and citrus fruits. Special facilities for cooking and shopwork are provided. A little crippled boy at this school, who is deficient in muscular control, has made many toys with the help of books obtained from the library truck.

Curiously, with this background, some of the children at the Rio School and at other similar schools read books of high literary quality. They ask for fairy tales, poetry, and imaginative stories. In the quality

of their reading they compare favorably with children in the other schools of the county.

Certificates given for reading—For reading eight books a year the library gives a certificate to any child who cares to apply for it. The books read must have variety and a reasonable degree of merit. The teacher is asked to examine the children on the titles they submit so as to make sure they have assimilated what they have read. The librarian keeps carbon copies of the certificates issued, and from these and the lists the children hand in she keeps informed as to the kinds of books read.

Books for the book auto are chosen to give richness and variety to the reading program. They aid in procuring the certificates as well as in enriching the school curriculum. The books read for certificates are often related to the unit of work on which the school or class is engaged. Teachers in each school talk over their programs informally with the book-auto assistant, and the librarian chooses the books accordingly for that school.

Use of a particular book—Suppose, for example, that a child chooses *A Picture Book of Houses*.¹ It is charged to him. If it is used for a book report, the author, title, and publisher are noted. "Verpilleux" is not an easy name to get correct. Who is the author? The drawings and pictures interest the artistic members of the class. And so it goes.

The introduction of one book can enlarge the mental horizons of all the children when the book appeals in as many ways as this one does. When one child returns it another takes it out. It not only is used in the schoolroom but is taken home and discussed there.

On the same trip the book auto may bring a picture, a film, a set of slides, or phonograph records bearing on home life. The alert and conscientious teacher has made a study of these aids so that she can connect them with the study the class is making. The picture is shown, the views are examined, or the records are listened to, and thus the whole subject is made more alive.

There is a point here of special interest from the administrative viewpoint. When a school is finished with *A Picture Book of Houses*, the book does not gather dust on the schoolroom shelves but goes in the book auto to other schools, where the magnet of interest picks it up and uses it. It is not misplaced and it is not destroyed by misuse. Books on the auto are checked and cared for as they seldom can be in a school where there is no librarian or special teacher in charge. Very few books are lost. This fact means that more new books instead of replacements may be purchased, thus increasing the resources from which the schools may draw.

¹ Verpilleux, Emile A. *A Picture Book of Houses*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1931. 64 p.

Influence of the service on children's reading—Miss Theodora Mahan, principal of the Somis School, made an interesting report on one boy's reading. In 1936 his reading comprehension, as shown by standardized tests, was 6.2 while in 1938 it was 9.6. Thus he made more than three years' improvement in two years. During these two years he did most of his reading in books taken from the book truck. A great change was evident in his attitude toward reading. At first he considered reading merely a necessary duty, but after the weekly visits of the book truck started he looked forward to them and began to choose his books and read them with real pleasure. This boy's experience was similar to those of many other children in this school.

Mrs. Cheever, of the Rio School, has always been enthusiastic about the book truck and is one of its most ardent supporters. During the school year 1937-38 her entire class of Spanish pupils in the fifth and sixth grades read eight books each, and all except three pupils received reading certificates by reading two books in each of four categories. Before this time very few of the children had read as many as eight books from those which she herself had chosen from the county library. She stressed the point that the children enjoy choosing their own books with the guidance of the teacher and the librarians.

Mrs. Duncan, of the Mupu School, stressed the fact that thru the book truck the children may procure books which are simple enough for them to read by themselves and yet interesting enough to hold their attention—an advantage not possessed by the ordinary textbook. A great interest in reading has developed, and practically all of the upper-grade children, as well as many in the third and fourth grades, now read for reading certificates.

Conclusion—This brief article has attempted to show the values of a library on wheels for rural schools, as follows: (1) Such a library reaches children who have no other access to books except in the schoolroom; (2) it gives pupils and teacher the services of trained library assistants as an inspiration and help in choosing books; (3) it aids the children and teacher in any study that is under way in the classroom; (4) it is economical because it helps preserve the books; and (5) by the novelty of its appeal it induces children to read who have hitherto not been moved emotionally by the attractiveness of books and their subjectmatter.

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RECORDS AND INFORMATION

The information in this section is of two types: (1) the names of officers of professional organizations in which elementary-school principals participate, and (2) the names and addresses of paid-up members of the national Department of Elementary School Principals. The list of organizations is divided into three parts: (a) local principals organizations, (b) sectional principals associations, and (c) state principals associations. While these lists are not complete, they include every organization from which up-to-date information about its officers was received in time for publication. The Department hopes that all organizations of elementary-school principals or supervisors will supply such information regularly for inclusion in future year-books.

Membership in the national Department has continued to grow during the year 1938-39. The number of members as this yearbook went to press was 6101, including 191 life members. This number exceeds the membership of a year ago by 424, or a little more than 7 percent. This increase, while not as large as that experienced during the preceding year, undoubtedly indicates that elementary-school principals and supervisors are increasingly aware of the importance of pooling their resources with a view to improving not only their own economic and professional status but also the quality of education for children.

The Department looks forward to the opportunity of serving everyone in the field of elementary education. This aim can be realized only thru continued increases in membership. As we grow in numbers and financial resources, we shall be able to reach more and more people with a steadily improving quality of work.

LOCAL PRINCIPALS ORGANIZATIONS

In the following roster the symbol (1) is used to indicate the person reported as president and (2) is used to indicate the secretary.

- A B E R D E E N, S. DAK.**—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Sada C. Post, Lincoln School. (2) Violet Schrimpf, Simmons School.
- AKRON, OHIO**—ELEMENTARY MEN PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) John Bunnell, 583 Blanche. (2) Robert B. Jones, 1006 Flanders Ave.
- AKRON, OHIO**—WOMEN PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Lillian Madden, 394 Greenwood Ave. (2) Margaret Rook, 250 Crescent Dr.
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- ANDERSON, IND.**—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Thomas S. Baker, 623 E. 31st St.
- ATLANTA, GA.**—PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) May Taylor, 458 N. Highland Ave. (2) Elizabeth Silvey, 624 Cumberland Rd.
- BAKERSFIELD, CALIF.**—PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) J. David Laird, Washington School. (2) Alfred Ames, Lincoln School.
- BATTLE CREEK, MICH.**—PRINCIPALS' Association. (1) Leo Shaw, Southwestern Junior High School. (2) Mrs. Catherine Daugherty, Wilson School.
- BEAUMONT, TEXAS**—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' AND SUPERVISORS' CLUB. (1) Loula Greer, 1351 Washington Blvd. (2) Mrs. C. K. Smart, Box 1933.
- BERKELEY, CALIF.**—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Mary O'Bannon, 137 Ardmore Rd. (2) Alfred Baxter, 2420 Virginia St.
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HAZEL PARK, MICH.—PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Marjorie Long, Hoover School. (2) Avis Blakeslee, Wanda School.

HOLYOKE, MASS.—WOMEN PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Eva C. Moynihan, 2089 Northampton St. (2) Lillian M. Donoghue, 309 Walnut St.

HOUSTON, TEXAS.—PRINCIPALS' AND SUPERVISORS' ASSOCIATION. (1) L. R. Center, 1500 Louisiana St. (2) Helen Byington, 1500 Louisiana St.

HUTCHINSON, KANSAS.—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Jane Hudson, 502 E. First. (2) Mrs. May Vogenitz, 420 E. 15th.

INDIANAPOLIS, IND.—COUNCIL OF ADMINISTRATIVE WOMEN IN EDUCATION. (1) Bertha O. Leming, 526 E. Fall Creek Blvd. (2) Jessie C. Russell, 111 E. 16th St.

JACKSON, MICH.—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Martha B. Chase, 808 Bush St. (2) Mrs. Jennie Mandigo, 318 S. Ginnell.

JERSEY CITY, N. J.—MALE PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Dr. T. W. Hopkins, 2 Harrison Ave. (2) E. J. Campbell, Public School No. 5.

JERSEY CITY, N. J.—WOMEN PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Helen McMahon, 10 Duncan Ave. (2) Anita Desmond, 47 Broadman Pkwy.

KALAMAZOO, MICH.—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Alvina L. Good, 815 W. Kalamazoo Ave. (2) Esca B. Rogers, 121 Arbor St.

KANSAS CITY, KANSAS.—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Lucy Jones, Gould Hotel. (2) Minnie Martin, 1118 Haskell.

KANSAS CITY, MO.—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Clara Falke, Faxon School, 3710 Paseo. (2) Paul M. Marshall, H. C. Kumpf School, 4423 Olive.

KNOXVILLE, TENN.—PROFESSIONAL CLUB. (1) Luther Harris, 3500 Ashland. (2) Nancy Sterling, 612 Atlantic.

LA FAYETTE, IND.—PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Ray B. Linville, 714 Hitt St. (2) H. E. Sweeney, 1721 Charles St.

LANSING, MICH.—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) C. May Wagner, 1030 S. Washington Ave. (2) Marlon Lang, 533 E. Mt. Hope.

LAWRENCE, MASS.—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Lillian B. Haverty, 297 S. Broadway. (2) Helen F. Gainey, 1 Kingston St.

LAWRENCE, MASS.—GRAMMAR MASTERS' CLUB. (1) John J. Hogan, John R. Rollins School. (2) John P. Fleming, A. B. Bruce School.

LITTLE ROCK, ARK.—PRINCIPALS' ROUND TABLE. (1) W. F. Hayes, 1813 Schiller. (2) Bessie Stevenson, 1726 Galnes.

LONG BEACH, CALIF.—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) A. H. Martin, Burnett School. (2) I. C. Wilson, Signal Hill School.

LOS ANGELES, CALIF.—COUNCIL OF DIRECTORS AND SUPERVISORS. (1) Edna Wiese, Central District, Los Feliz School. (2) Jessie Graham, 875 Chamber of Commerce Bldg.

LOS ANGELES, CALIF.—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Mrs. Gertrude Best Hammond, 7316 Crenshaw Blvd. (2) Mrs. Georgie K. Huntoon, 900 S. Serrano.

- LOS ANGELES, CALIF.**—JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) William E. White, 9301 S. Hoover St. (2) Dr. Hazelle S. Moore, 4066 W. 17th St.
- LOWELL, MASS.**—MASTERS' CLUB. (1) W. W. Dennett, Morey Junior High School. (2) John E. Barr, Washington Training School.
- MALDEN, MASS.**—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Minnie G. Thompson, 108 Highland Ave., West Melrose. (2) Jennie E. Shute, 30 Hancock St., Malden.
- MERIDIAN, MISS.**—PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Mrs. Laurie Mae Carter, Oakland Heights School. (2) Annie Bordeaux, Poplar Springs School.
- MILWAUKEE, WIS.**—PUBLIC SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS' ASSOCIATION. (1) John A. Clark, 845 N. 18th St. (2) Florence Flanagan, 1111 N. Tenth St.
- MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.**—PRINCIPALS' FORUM. (1) Claude D. Siehl, 4602 W. Lake Harriet Blvd. (2) Elizabeth J. Kaasa, Curtis Hotel.
- MOUNT VERNON, N. Y.**—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Martha H. Clarke, William Penn School. (2) Mrs. Edith F. Werner, Robert Fulton School.
- MUSKEGON, MICH.**—PRINCIPALS' COUNCIL. (1) Ethel M. Bowden, No. 2 Hamilton Apts. (2) Eugenia Oole, 48 E. Iona.
- NEWARK, N. J.**—PUBLIC SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) May L. Shepard, Garfield School. (2) Harold H. Phillips, Sussex Avenue School.
- NEWARK, N. J.**—VICE-PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Lillian Heller, South Seventeenth Street School. (2) Allene Magowan, Ann Street School.
- NEW BEDFORD, MASS.**—PRIMARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Joanna Sweeney, 146 Cottage St. (2) Edith M. Astley, 51 Norman St.
- NEW BEDFORD, MASS.**—PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Raymond H. Cook, 303 Maple St. (2) Stella McCarthy, 233 Middle St.
- NEWBURGH, N. Y.**—PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Snyder J. Gage, 98 Grand St. (2) Harry S. Simmons, 16 Bay View Ter.
- NEW HAVEN, CONN.**—PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Elizabeth R. Malcolm, Truman Street School, 114 Truman St. (2) Leah Kleiner, Ezekiel Cheever School, 454 Lombard St.
- NEW ORLEANS, LA.**—PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Miriam Cohen, 425 Audubon Blvd. (2) Donald Marshall, 7520 Plum St.
- NEWPORT, R. I.**—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Barbara C. Taylor, 9 Pleasant St. (2) Francis R. Kerr, 39 Powell Ave.
- NEW YORK, N. Y.**—PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Margaret A. Lindquist, Junior High School No. 136, Manhattan, 6 Edgecombe Ave., New York City. (2) Charles T. Trace, Public School No. 91, E. New York and Albany Aves., Brooklyn.
- NORFOLK, VA.**—PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) A. P. S. Robinson, James Madison School. (2) Bessie B. Lane, Villa Heights School.
- OAKLAND, CALIF.**—ELEMENTARY SECTION, PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) F. B. Zimmerman, Stonehurst School. (2) Sarah L. Young, Parker School.
- OAKLAND, CALIF.**—PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Laura Curley, Jefferson Elementary School. (2) James A. Hensley, McClymonds High School.
- ODGEN, UTAH**—PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) John Stark, 2838 Jefferson. (2) Glen Eye, 2629 Taylor.
- OKLAHOMA CITY, OKLA.**—COUNCIL OF OKLAHOMA CITY SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS. (1) Ira Baker, 1100 N. E. 63rd St. (2) Mrs. Nina Birkhead, 532 S. W. 26th.
- OMAHA, NEBR.**—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Mary Foster, Bancroft School, Riverview Blvd. and Bancroft St. (2) Mrs. Lucille Ambury, Florence School, 31st and Tucker St.
- ORLANDO, FLA.**—ORLANDO-WINTER PARK ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Mrs. Annie B. Lord, 1808 Weber Ave.
- OSHKOSH, WIS.**—PRINCIPALS' CONFERENCE. (1) Charles L. Yule, 110 Grand Ave. (2) William N. Skowlund, 17 Saratoga Ave.
- PALO ALTO, CALIF.**—ADMINISTRATORS' CLUB. (1) C. L. Suffield, 543 Channing. (2) Mrs. Gladys Harrington, Convalescent Home.
- PASADENA, CALIF.**—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) De Roy F. Cobb, 1218 N. Chester Ave. (2) George N. Boone, 1654 Francisca St.
- PATERSON, N. J.**—PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Edwin W. Bramhall, School No. 23. (2) Eleanor Mombert, School No. 14.
- PEORIA, ILL.**—ELEMENTARY MEN PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Joseph Murphy, Whittier School. (2) Corinth Laug, Douglas School.
- PERTH AMBOY, N. J.**—PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Royal R. Predmore, 79 Hornsby Ave., Fords. (2) Agnes Hardiman, 175 Brighton Ave., Perth Amboy.
- PHILADELPHIA, PA.**—PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) A. Reaga Mullen, Corman School, Melon St. East of 12th St. (2) Jean M. Tweed, Taylor School, Randolph and Erie Ave.
- PITTSBURGH, PA.**—PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Jane C. Bryce, Bellefield Vocational High School, Fifth Ave. and Bouquet St. (2) Grace A. Courtney, McCandless School, McCandless and Batter St.
- PORTLAND, OREGON**—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) C. T. Thompson, 6301 S. E. 14th Ave. (2) R. A. Kenney, 049 S. W. Porter St.
- PORTSMOUTH, VA.**—PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) George B. Ish, 58 Court St. (2) A. J. Mapp, 200 Maryland Ave.
- PROVIDENCE, R. I.**—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Francesca de S. Cosgrove, 258 Hoyle Ave. (2) Margaret M. Blessing, 12 Blackstone Blvd.
- PUEBLO, COLO.**—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL MEN PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) M. N. Potter Fountain Elementary School. (2) Paul L. Kirk, Keating Junior High School.
- RACINE, WIS.**—PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) D. W. Miller, Horlick High School. (2) H. B. Temme, 4400 Milmine Rd.

REVERE, MASS.—PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Zulette Potter, Liberty School. (2) Mary E. Colburn, Abraham Lincoln School.

RICHMOND, VA.—LEAGUE OF PRINCIPALS. (1) C. H. Dunaway, John B. Cary School. (2) Clyde Busby, Booker Washington School.

ROCHESTER, N. Y.—COUNCIL OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS. (1) Mrs. Edna S. Jones, 198 Bronson Ave. (2) Julia E. Arnott, 656 Broadway St.

SACRAMENTO, CALIF.—PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Ray B. Dean, David Lubin School. (2) Emma Von Hatten, Marshall School.

SAGINAW, MICH.—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Alda Mumaw, 120 S. Mason. (2) Ruth Murphy, 121 S. Mason.

SAINT JOSEPH, MO.—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Reuby Moore, 2220 Eugene Field Ave. (2) Mamie E. Miles, 14 Summit Pl.

SAINT LOUIS, MO.—CLUB OF WOMEN PRINCIPALS. (1) Ida M. Hooss, Meramec School. (2) Nellie McCarthy, Taussig Open Air School, 1540 S. Grand Blvd.

SAINT LOUIS, MO.—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) R. E. Strickler, 7003 Pernod Ave., St. Louis. (2) Thomas F. Gentry, 421 Edgewood Dr., Clayton.

SAINT PAUL, MINN.—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Edith L. McNaughtan, 610 Summit Ave. (2) Evelyn E. Barrett, 383 Dayton Ave.

SAINT PETERSBURG, FLA.—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Helen E. Nippert, 1014 Third St., S. (2) Mrs. Dorothy Case, 1885 11th St., S.

SALT LAKE CITY, UTAH.—PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Mr. DeVoe Woolf, 1575 S. State. (2) Eva Lund, University of Utah.

SAN DIEGO, CALIF.—PRINCIPALS' AND SUPERVISORS' CLUB. (1) Ralph Troge, 4351 Hamilton. (2) Ruth Munsell, 3645 Park Blvd.

SAN FRANCISCO, CALIF.—ELEMENTARY VICE-PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Miss Dorey Sullivan, 123 Cascade Dr., Mill Valley. (2) Nellie C. Sullivan, 130 Frederick St., San Francisco.

SAVANNAH, GA.—PRINCIPALS' AND SUPERVISORS' CLUB. (1) Mrs. Louis Clark, Hotel De Soto. (2) Margaret Murphy, 11 E. Perry St.

SEATTLE, WASH.—PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) H. Reed Fulton, West Seattle High School. (2) Walter Reseburg, Franklin High School.

SIoux CITY, IOWA.—ADMINISTRATION CLUB. (1) J. E. FitzGerald, 1821 Ross St. (2) Nina B. Johnston, 2315 S. Newton St.

SIoux CITY, IOWA.—PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) H. E. Van Pelt, Washington School. (2) Florence Boles, Board of Education.

SOMERVILLE, MASS.—SCHOOLMEN'S CLUB. (1) Daniel J. Cotter, 71 Cherry St. (2) Edward G. Giroux, 9 Sunnyside Ave.

SOUTH BEND, IND.—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Mrs. May Reynard, Colfax School. (2) Crissie E. Reimold, 1113 N. St. Joseph St.

SOUTH PORTLAND, MAINE—PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Mrs. Edith H. Harmon, 363 Main St. (2) Alice M. Treadwell, 547 Ocean St.

SPOKANE, WASH.—PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Nora C. Lambert, 1216 13th Ave. (2) Austin L. Henry, 411 Garland Ave.

SPOKANE, WASH.—WOMEN PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Ida D. Most, 607 Cleveland. (2) Clara Mader, E. 1110 Fifth Ave.

STOCKTON, CALIF.—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Charles F. Fisher, 1999 W. Willow St. (2) Ellen Buckley, 504 W. Fremont St.

SUPERIOR, WIS.—PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) J. G. King, 1212 E. Second St. (2) A. T. Conrad, 709 E. Eighth St.

SYRACUSE, N. Y.—MEN PRINCIPALS' AND SUPERVISORS' ASSOCIATION. (1) H. C. Gouldin, Washington Irving School. (2) Kenneth Drake, Porter School.

SYRACUSE, N. Y.—WOMEN PRINCIPALS' AND SUPERVISORS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Mrs. Winifred Brownell, 1445 S. Salina St. (2) Miss Marion C. Orr, 230 W. Lafayette Ave.

TACOMA, WASH.—ADMINISTRATIVE GROUP. (1) C. G. Jespersen, Park Avenue School, 510 North J St. (2) Roy Cruver, Franklin School, 2502 N. Washington St.

TOLEDO, OHIO—PRINCIPALS' AND SUPERVISORS' CLUB. (1) Bess M. Campbell, 3375 Glenwood Ave. (2) Mary C. Dwyer, 362 Winthrop St.

TOPEKA, KANSAS—PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) M. C. Poort, 622 Rockledge. (2) Charles S. Todd, 1524 Lane St.

TRENTON, N. J.—ADMINISTRATIVE AND SUPERVISORY DEPARTMENT. (1) Isabel Hill, Junior High School No. 4, Dayton St. (2) Kathryn Mitchell, Grant School, Grant Ave.

UTICA, N. Y.—PRINCIPALS' AND SUPERVISORS' CLUB. (1) Hugh B. Shelton, 100 Herkimer Rd. (2) Mary E. O'Connor, 1603 St. Agnes Ave.

WICHITA, KANSAS—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Clara O. Rebstein, 511 N. Belmont. (2) Faye Gregory, 240 N. Topeka.

WICHITA FALLS, TEXAS—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Esther Berry, 1409 Taylor St. (2) T. B. Parnell, Regan Junior High School.

WILMINGTON, DEL.—PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Mary C. Dennison, 1106 Jefferson St. (2) Mrs. Elva M. Dugan, 1513 W. Ninth St.

WORCESTER, MASS.—PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) George B. O'Flynn, Providence Street Junior High School. (2) Elizabeth M. Shea, May Street School.

YONKERS, N. Y.—PRINCIPALS' AND DIRECTORS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Frank L. Baker, 6040 Huxley Ave. (2) Dr. Richard F. Hayes, 236 N. Trenchard St.

YORK, PA.—PRINCIPALS' PROFESSIONAL CLUB. (1) Clarence T. Hodgson, 472 Atlantic Ave. (2) T. Goldie Sweeney, 275 W. Jackson St.

SECTIONAL PRINCIPALS ASSOCIATIONS

These include organizations in counties, districts, zones and similar divisions of the states.

In the following roster the symbol (1) is used to indicate the person reported as president and (2) is used to indicate the secretary.

ALABAMA—JEFFERSON COUNTY ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Gleen Barrow, Irondale. (2) Ralph Shakit, Gardendale.

ARIZONA—SALT RIVER VALLEY ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENTS' AND PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Harry Sams, Tolleson. (2) Loren Vaughn, Balsz School, Phoenix.

CALIFORNIA—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

BAY SECTION. (1) Beecher H. Harris, Whittier-University Elementary School, Berkeley. (2) Kenneth Forry, Martinez Elementary School, Martinez.

BUTTE COUNTY SCHOOLMASTERS' CLUB. (1) George McIntyre, Chico High School, Chico. (2) E. A. Hendrix, Biggs Elementary School, Biggs.

CENTRAL SECTION. (1) Stephen L. Walker, 130 N. Argus St., Fresno. (2) Mrs. Elizabeth K. Ramacher, Fresno County.

CENTRAL COAST SECTION. (1) Alton E. Scott, San Juan Bautista. (2) Oda Hogan, Hollister.

FRESNO COUNTY ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Harvey E. Bailey, Jr., 209 Florodora Ave., Fresno. (2) Mrs. May S. Christensen, Route 1, Box 176, Fresno.

MARIN COUNTY ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Nell N. Cummins, Larkspur. (2) Clarence G. Herkner, 124 H St., San Rafael.

MONTEREY COUNTY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Curtis Bell, Marina. (2) Mrs. Laura Tarver, 227 Church St., Salinas.

NORTH COAST SECTION. (1) Emil J. Splering, Ferndale. (2) Clyde A. Pate-naude, Box 5, Korbol.

NORTHERN SECTION. (1) Ethel Baker, Route 4, Box 4630, Sacramento. (2) Mrs. Maude Elthian, North Sacramento School, North Sacramento.

SAN LUIS OBISPO COUNTY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Russel Hoyt, Supvr., S. L. O. Co., San Luis Obispo. (2) Mrs. Howard, Arroyo Grande.

SAN MATEO COUNTY ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Marie Traynor, Jefferson School, Werner St., Colma. (2) Clara L. Bolel, 235 Hopkins Ave., Redwood City.

SANTA CLARA COUNTY SCHOOLMASTERS' CLUB. (1) Hugh S. Falconer, 68 Park Court, Santa Clara. (2) Walker L. Bachrodt, 408 Almaden, San Jose.

SANTA CRUZ COUNTY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Viola Melnts, 24 Peyton St., Santa Cruz. (2) Loren Miller, 81 Church St., Santa Cruz.

SONOMA COUNTY ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) John Allan, Stewart's Point, Sonoma County. (2) Edith Peterson, Office of County Supt. of Schools, Santa Rosa.

SOUTHERN SECTION. (1) Vincent I. Correll, 1838 McKenzie St., Long Beach. (2) Mrs. Rose M. Smith, 695 S. Ardmore, Los Angeles.

STANISLAUS COUNTY ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Arthur Bubb, Hughson. (2) Maxine de Lapp, Office of County Supt. of Schools, Modesto.

TULARE COUNTY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) E. G. Rice, Ivanhoe School, Ivanhoe. (2) Bernice Arnett, East Lyne School, Box 69, Ivanhoe.

COLORADO—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

EASTERN DIVISION. Committeeman, Lloyd Gillette, Washington School, Boulder.

FREMONT COUNTY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Leo Durkee, Canon City.

MESA COUNTY ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Howard Sherd, Appleton. (2) Anna McGinley, R. D. 2, Grand Junction.

SOUTHERN DIVISION. Committeeman, J. F. Scott, Park School, La Junta.

WESTERN DIVISION. Committeeman, L. B. Orvis, Emerson School, Grand Junction.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA—DIVISION 10 TO 13. ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) J. C. Payne, John F. Cook School. (2) Mrs. Ruth G. Savoy, 1834 Vernon Pl., N. W.

FLORIDA—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

CENTRAL DISTRICT. (1) H. A. White, Bronson.

DISTRICT 7. (1) George W. Marks, De Land.

DEVAL COUNTY DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS. (1) Ralph N. Brown, 3340 San Jose Blvd., Jacksonville. (2) Mrs. Belle M. Kenniston, 2515 Forbes St., Jacksonville.

EAST CENTRAL DISTRICT. (1) Judson B. Walker, Orlando.

GULF COAST DISTRICT. (1) Frank Leslie, Inverness.

INDIAN RIVER DISTRICT. (1) J. A. Jamison, Stuart. (2) C. W. Long, Stuart.

MID-WEST DISTRICT. (1) C. L. Costlin, Wewahatchka.

OCKLOCKNEE DISTRICT. (1) V. W. Clark, Leon High School, Tallahassee.

PEACE RIVER DISTRICT. (1) J. K. Chapman, Wauchula.

PINELLAS COUNTY ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Julia Dieffenwerth, 5651 36th St., N., Clearwater.

POLK COUNTY DISTRICT. (1) C. I. Hollingsworth, Bartow.

ROYAL PALM DISTRICT. (1) Ulric J. Bennett, Box 1342, Ft. Lauderdale.

ST. JOHNS DISTRICT. (1) L. L. Dugger, Macclenny. (2) Mrs. Constance Rood, St. Augustine.

SOUTHWEST DISTRICT. (1) Mrs. G. B. Thomas, Clewiston.

SUWANNEE DISTRICT. (1) J. A. Hodges, Jasper.

TAMPA DISTRICT ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' COUNCIL. (1) Mrs. Anne Hartman, 4210 Barcelona Ave. (2) LaVerne Nelson, 820 S. Dakota Ave.

WEST COAST DISTRICT. (1) Wayne A. Hamilton, 5502 Branch Ave., Tampa.

WEST FLORIDA DISTRICT. (1) J. C. Word, Milton.

GEORGIA—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

DE KALB COUNTY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Mrs. J. W. Mozley, 1324 Briarcliff Rd., Atlanta. (2) Mrs. Julian Harris, Stone Mountain.

FIFTH DISTRICT. (1) Sara Mell Dugan, 850 Penn Ave., N. E., Atlanta.

FULTON COUNTY ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Mrs. Homer L. Wilson, Bolton. (2) Mrs. H. O. Smith, Alpharetta.

SAVANNAH AND CHATHAM COUNTY ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' AND SUPERVISORS' CLUB. (1) Mrs. Laurie Clark, Hotel De Soto, Savannah. (2) Margaret A., Murphy, 11 E. Perry St., Savannah.

SECOND DISTRICT. (1) Florence Willoughby, Moultrie. (2) Mrs. B. R. Stocks, Tifton.

IOWA—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

NORTH CENTRAL DISTRICT. (1) Lela Galloway, Hawley School, Ft. Dodge. (2) Lucy Taff, Waukonsa School, Ft. Dodge.

NORTHEAST DISTRICT. (1) Mrs. Caroline Preston, Jackson School, Cedar Rapids. (2) Anna Steinmetz, Franklin School, Dubuque.

SOUTHEAST DISTRICT. (1) Karl C. Smith, West Liberty. (2) Edith May Ball, Milton.

KANSAS—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

DISTRICT ORGANIZATION OF ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS. (1) R. Dale Pomeroy, Hugoton. (2) Harry W. Carr, Liberal.

GARDEN CITY DISTRICT. Chairman. Harry W. Carr, Liberal.

HAYS DISTRICT. Chairman. Dan Foster, La Crosse.

HUTCHINSON DISTRICT. Chairman. Kenneth Hill, Turon.

KANSAS CITY DISTRICT. Chairman. Ira E. Hunt, 816 Ohio St., Lawrence.

PITTSBURG DISTRICT. Chairman. Besse Baker, Oswego.

TOPEKA DISTRICT. Chairman. Harry Adamson, Manhattan.

WICHITA DISTRICT. Chairman. E. C. Wine, 1147 Perry, Wichita.

WYANDOTTE COUNTY ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Wallace Smith, Turner. (2) Clara Stockhoff, Bethel.

KENTUCKY—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

NORTHERN SECTION. (1) Loretta Riddle, Beechwood School, Ft. Mitchell. (2) Frances Austin, 10 Elizabeth St., Erlanger.

UPPER KENTUCKY ASSOCIATION. (1) J. D. Bowling, Lothair. (2) M. C. Napier, Hazard.

LOUISIANA—CADDO PARISH PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Mrs. D. J. Nuttall, 2949 Midway, Shreveport. (2) Mrs. Mary Ethel King, 829 Elmwood Ave., Shreveport.

MAINE—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

KENNEBEC VALLEY SCHOOLMASTERS' CLUB. (1) Kenneth B. Coombs, 23 Pleasant St., Waterville. (2) George W. Bucknam, 240 Main St., Waterville.

SOUTHWESTERN ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB. Chairman, Paul H. McIntire, 17 Tremont St., Portland. (2) Richard Barbour, Freeport.

WASHINGTON COUNTY SCHOOLMEN'S CLUB. (1) Kenneth Bragdon, Cherryfield. (2) Earle D. Merrill, Machias.

MARYLAND—ALLEGANY COUNTY ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Earl F. Brain, Hill Street School, Frostburg. (2) John F. Manley, 116 Wood St., Frostburg.

MASSACHUSETTS—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

DISTRICT 1. (1) Mary Molloy, Johnson School, North Adams. (2) Harold Millet, Adams.

DISTRICT 2. (1) K. Merton Bozolan, Center School, Belchertown.

DISTRICT 4. (1) Sara E. Chase, Washington School, Springfield.

DISTRICT 5. (1) William F. Butler, Lamartine School, Worcester.

DISTRICT 6. (1) Mrs. Edna F. Burns, Bennett School, Leominster. (2) Mrs. Madeline Sargent, Pierce School, Leominster.

DISTRICT 8. (1) Earl B. Tracy, Merrimack School, North Andover.

DISTRICT 9. (1) Milton L. Fuller, Collins School, Gloucester. (2) Elizabeth G. Harding, Hardie School, Beverly.

DISTRICT 10. (1) Mark R. Shibbes, Butler School, Belmont. (2) Chester A. Robinson, Kendall School, Belmont.

DISTRICT 11. (1) A. Irvin Studley, 26 West St., Attleboro. (2) Gertrude Leighton, 120 Temple St., N., Abington.

DISTRICT 12. (1) Margaret McGuire, Oxford School, Fairhaven.

MICHIGAN—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

REGION 1. Chairman. Leo M. Randall, Hally School, 2585 Grove, Detroit.

REGION 2. Chairman. Ethel Staudacher, Kolb School, Bay City.

REGION 3. Chairman. Helen Horner, 114 S. Grinnel, Jackson.

REGION 5. Chairman. Gladys O'Beirne, Petoskey. Second member on Committee, Mina Dewey, Harbor Springs.

REGION 6. Chairman. Ralph L. Witherpoon, Harriett School, Ypsilanti. (2) Jeannette Cummings, Washington School, Royal Oak.

REGION 7. Chairman. Esther Ojala, 302 W. McMillan Ave., Newberry.

MISSOURI—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

CENTRAL MISSOURI COUNTY GRADE PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Charles G. James, 610 W. Maple St., Independence. (2) Catherine Garmon, 1016 E. Broadway, Sedalia.

CENTRAL MISSOURI ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Dr. Frank H. Gorman, Dir. of Experimental School, University of Missouri, Columbia. (2) Wayne T. Snyder, Fairview School, Jefferson City.

KIRKSVILLE DISTRICT. (1) Russell Bastian, Washington School, Palmyra.

MARYVILLE DISTRICT. (1) Harvey Rogers, Elmo.

NORTHEAST MISSOURI ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) C. H. Allen (Acting) 414 E. Normal St., Kirksville. (2) Neva Lamb, Marcelline.

ROLLA DISTRICT. (1) Hugh J. Puyear, Washington.

ST. FRANCOIS COUNTY ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) James A. Sanders, Leadwood. (2) Nellie Humphrey, Esther.

ST. JOSEPH DISTRICT. (2) Mammie Miles, 724 Robidoux St., St. Joseph.

ST. LOUIS COUNTY ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Ward Barnes, 6506 Hazen Ave., Normandy. (2) Mabel McAllister, 3238 Marshall Ave., Ritenour.

ST. LOUIS COUNTY MEN PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Fred Brooks, 7341 Wellington, University City. (2) Clark Troutman, 325 Scenic Dr., Riverview Gardens.

ST. LOUIS DISTRICT SCHOOLMASTERS' CLUB. (1) Thomas F. Gentry, 421 Edge-wood Dr., Clayton. (2) R. L. Short, 6932 Amherst Ave., University City.

SOUTHEAST MISSOURI ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Theron Stallings, Sikeston. (2) Alice P. Carroll, 312 Independence St., Cape Girardeau.

UNIVERSITY ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Harold B. Remley, Boonville Rd., Jefferson. (2) Joe M. Barnes, Columbia.

NEBRASKA—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

DISTRICT 1. (1) Eunice Preston, Hawthorne School, 130 S. 28th St., Lincoln.

DISTRICT 3. (1) Dorothy Tewell, Supvr. of Elem. Education, City Schools, Norfolk.

DISTRICT 4. (1) Gladys Sheridan, Alcott Ward School, Hastings.

DISTRICT 5. (1) Edna Bratton, Valentine Ward School, McCook.

DISTRICT 6. (1) Lillian Galleher, Central Ward School, Scottsbluff.

NEW JERSEY—BURLINGTON COUNTY CONSOLIDATED SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Mrs. Elsie Wright, Wrightstown. (2) Mrs. Betty Lewis, Tabernacle.

NEW MEXICO—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

CENTRAL NEW MEXICO PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Oda E. Schupp, 223 N. High St., Albuquerque. (2) Adolfo Chavez, Albuquerque.

DONA ANA COUNTY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Haskell Smith, Las Cruces. (2) Mrs. Clem Russell, Mesilla Park.

GRANT COUNTY ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Floyd Jones, Cliff.

LEA COUNTY ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Jimmy Gamgall, Jal. (2) Bonnie Moore, Monument.

NORTHWESTERN NEW MEXICO PRINCIPALS' SECTION. (1) Mohota Montgomery, Gallup. (2) Mrs. Bernadine Kelley, Gallup.

SOUTHEASTERN NEW MEXICO ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Jimmy Gamgall, Jal. (2) Bonnie Moore, Monument.

SOUTHWESTERN NEW MEXICO PRINCIPALS' SECTION. (1) Haskell Smith, Las Cruces. (2) Mrs. Julia K. Early, Las Cruces.

NEW YORK—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

CENTRAL ZONE. Chairman, Anna L. Murtagh, Prospect School, Solvay.

CENTRAL WESTERN ZONE. (1) Earle W. Nash, Beechwood Station, Rochester.

EASTERN ZONE. (1) J. Wilbert Jones, Singerlands School, Singerlands. (2) H. D. Vincent, School No. 16, Troy.

HUDSON VALLEY SCHOOLMASTERS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Joseph C. Kaag, 56 Marion Ave., Poughkeepsie. (2) Wilber T. Archibald, 84 S. Randolph Ave., Poughkeepsie.

LONG ISLAND ZONE. (1) Albert L. Edgar, Aquebogue Elementary School, Aquebogue.

NASSAU COUNTY ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Henry C. Ducker, Church Street School, Baldwin.

(2) Lillian Wells, Brookville School, Glen Head, Long Island.

NEW YORK ZONE. (1) Margaret A. Lindquist, 344 E. 14th St., New York City.

NORTH CENTRAL, NORTH EASTERN AND NORTHERN ZONES. (1) Charles E. Flinn, Cooper School, Watertown.

ROCKLAND COUNTY ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Dexter G. Tilroe, Garnerville. (2) Dorah M. Her- rington, New City.

SOUTH EASTERN ZONE. (1) William O. Schaefer, Oak Tree Rd., Tappan.

SOUTHERN ZONE. (1) William G. Shearer, 227 Sly Ave., Corning.

WESTERN ZONE. (1) Frank J. Wiede- mann, Warren G. Harding School, River- dale and Grover Sts., Buffalo.

NORTH CAROLINA—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

NORTH CENTRAL DISTRICT. (1) Emma D. Conn, Murphey School, Raleigh. (2) Elizabeth Kelley, Henderson School, Henderson.

NORTHEASTERN DISTRICT. (1) Mary H. Bridgers, Central School, Tarboro. (2) H. T. Latham, Jr., Ransomville School, Bath.

NORTHWESTERN DISTRICT. (1) L. W. Kelly, McIver School, Greensboro. (2) Lucile Kirkpatrick, Colonial Drive School, Thomasville.

SOUTHEASTERN DISTRICT. (1) Mrs. Floyd B. Souders, Central School, Fayetteville. (2) Dale K. Spencer, Brad- leys Creek School, Wilmington.

SOUTH PIEDMONT DISTRICT. (1) W. A. Hethcox, Shepherd School, Mooresville. (2) Sue E. Reese, China Grove School, China Grove.

WESTERN DISTRICT. (1) Paul Huss, Spindale School, Spindale. (2) Mrs. M. L. Nesbitt, Gladys School, Candler.

OHIO—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

EASTERN OHIO DEPARTMENT OF ELE- MENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS. (1) Edna Tefft, Norwood School, Marietta. (2) Lulu Keller, Rose Hill School, Bellaire.

GALLIA COUNTY ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Hobart Niday, Galli- polis. (2) Howard Broyles, R. F. D., Gallipolis.

HAMILTON COUNTY ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Martin D. Bishop, Madeira School, Madeira. (2) Jane McDermott, Montgomery.

SOUTHEASTERN DISTRICT. (1) B. R. Evans, 14 Grape, Gallipolis. (2) Wayne T. Matthews, 191 N. Congress, Athens.

OKLAHOMA—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

EAST CENTRAL DISTRICT. (1) M. A. Hall, Route 1, Okemah. (2) Carl Kniffin, 1200 W. 13th, Sulphur.

NORTHEAST DISTRICT. (1) H. H. Stephenson, 1169 Chestnut St., Musko- gee. (2) Mary Shirley, 1114 Fremont, Muskogee.

NORTHERN DISTRICT. (1) Mrs. Lulu D. Moorhouse, 1120 W. Cherokee Ave., Enid. (2) Ethel Evans, 1502 W. James St., Enid.

SOUTHEAST DISTRICT. (1) Wayne Byrd, Ardmore. (2) Margaret Arm- strong, Boswell.

OREGON—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

CENTRAL OREGON ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CONFERENCE. (1) T. J. Means, The Dalles.

COLUMBIA COUNTY SCHOOLMASTERS' CLUB. (1) Robert L. Henagin, Rainier. (2) Carroll Newth, Clatskanie.

DISTRICT ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) John C. Johnson, Lapine. (2) Howard Oldham, Bend.

DOUGLAS COUNTY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Ben C. Huntington, Gledale. (2) A. R. Marsh, Yoncalla.

EASTERN OREGON ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CONFERENCE. (1) John A. Morton, 118 Long St., Pendleton. (2) Mildred Bennett, 903 Jackson, Pendleton.

HOOD RIVER PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) P. S. Knight, 803 Columbia, Hood River. (2) J. E. Root, Route 1, Hood River.

LANE COUNTY ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Vernon Meyer, Wendling. (2) Mrs. Nina Stutz, Trent.

MARION COUNTY GRADE PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) L. B. McClendon, Route 1, Box 31, Salem. (2) Mrs. Helen Patton Phillips, Stayton.

MULTNOMAH COUNTY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) J. A. Wickham, 4930 S. E. 67th Ave., Portland.

NORTHWESTERN OREGON ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CONFERENCE. (1) James W. Poynter, Elementary Superintendent, Hillsboro. (2) Walter E. Dillon, Eastham School, Oregon City.

SOUTHERN OREGON ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CONFERENCE. (1) R. H. Gandee, Central Point.

WESTERN OREGON ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CONFERENCE. (1) R. R. Brand, Roseburg.

YAMHILL COUNTY ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Guy L. Lee, McMinnville Junior High School, McMinnville. (2) Grace Duren, Route 1, Salem.

PENNSYLVANIA—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

LANCASTER COUNTY ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Benjamin Funk, Marietta. (2) Luella M. Mellinger, Route 2, Conestoga.

PRINCIPALS' ROUND TABLE OF ALLEGHENY COUNTY. (1) J. E. Clark, 531 Roup St., Tarentum. (2) M. A. Steiner, 59 Danvers Ave., Pittsburgh.

TENNESSEE—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

EAST TENNESSEE ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' GROUP. (1) Gerald L. Bell, 1190 Edgewood Ave., Knoxville. (2) Mrs. Fred Moore Lewis, Elizabethton.

INTERMEDIATE, MIDDLE SECTION ASSOCIATION. (1) James E. Gibbs, Ashland City. (2) Mrs. C. O. Moss, Ross School, Nashville.

MIDDLE TENNESSEE ASSOCIATION. (2) N. C. Beasley, State Teachers College, Murfreesboro.

SOUTHEASTERN ASSOCIATION. (1) Roy Terry, 306 Clifton Circle, Chattanooga. (2) T. H. Allen, Cleveland.

WEST TENNESSEE ASSOCIATION. (2) John George, Bartlett.

TEXAS—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

DISTRICT 1. (1) Verna Smith, Groves. (2) Miss Wayne Young, 2010 14th St., Port Arthur.

DISTRICT 3. (1) J. C. Gates, Beeville. (2) C. E. Burnett, Corpus Christi.

DISTRICT 6. (1) J. F. Reeves, Supt. of Schools, Ft. Stockton.

DISTRICT 7. (1) Charles H. Tennyson, Public Schools, Wichita Falls.

DISTRICT 8. (1) C. O. Pollard, Supt. of Schools, Henderson. (2) J. R. McLemore, Paris Junior College, Paris.

DISTRICT 10. (1) W. H. Norwood, Supt. of Schools, Corsicana. (2) R. A. Armistead, 709 W. Third, Corsicana.

DISTRICT 11. (1) Noble W. Prentice, Supt. of Schools, Richland Springs. (2) J. I. Warren, Supt. of Schools, Miles.

ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' SECTION. (1) F. E. Wilks, Taylor. (2) Ruby Jones, 927 N. 17th, Waco.

NORTHEAST DIVISION, ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' AND SUPERVISORS' ASSOCIATION. (1) A. E. Wells, Elementary School, Gladewater. (2) L. M. Roch, Elementary School, Henderson.

TRANS-PECOS DIVISION ASSOCIATION. (1) Mary Alice Allen, 1210 Los Angeles St., El Paso.

UTAH—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

BOX ELDER COUNTY ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Victor J. Bott, Brigham. (2) Oleen Palmer, R. F. D. 1, Brigham.

CACHE COUNTY ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Elmer G. Jessop, Lewiston. (2) Ella Neddoo, River Heights, Logan.

DAVIS COUNTY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Mark Argyle, Clearfield.

GRANITE ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) A. O. Clark, 23rd E. 48th S., Salt Lake City. (2) W. H. Dayton, 34th W. Seventh St., Salt Lake City.

PARK CITY, MORGAN, N. SUMMIT, S. SUMMIT AND WASATCH PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Eugene McCusker, Park City. (2) J. Hibbert, Marion.

SEVIER-PUTE ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ORGANIZATION. (1) Moroni Jensen, Redmond. (2) Alma S. Edwards, Joseph.

SOUTH SANPETE DISTRICT ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Clive Despain, Centerfield.

UNITAH COUNTY PRINCIPALS' ORGANIZATION. (1) John Stagg, Vernal. (2) Thomas E. Caldwell, Vernal.

UTAH COUNTY ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (Includes three school districts—Alpine, Nebo and Provo). (1) Fred C. Strate, 733 N. University Ave., Provo. (2) H. R. Stahell, Provo.

WEBER COUNTY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Leland Rhees, Harrisville, Route 3, Ogden. (2) Don Carver, Plain City.

VERMONT—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

CHAMPLAIN VALLEY ASSOCIATION. (2) Mrs. Thelma H. Jobling, Burlington.

ORANGE-WINDSOR COUNTY ASSOCIATION. (1) Carl Anderson, Theford. (2) Charles S. Rising, White River Junction.

SOUTHEASTERN VERMONT ASSOCIATION. (2) Natt B. Burbank, Bellows Falls.

TRI-COUNTY ASSOCIATION. (1) Margaret Hoyt, Lincoln School, Rutland. (2) Mrs. Helen Van Guilder, East Poultney.

WINOOSKI VALLEY ASSOCIATION. (2) Ariel A. Benway, Richmond.

VIRGINIA—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

DISTRICT F. (1) Paul G. Hook, Moody Public School, Clifton Forge. (2) Mrs. R. F. Morgan, Forest.

DISTRICT M. (1) Lillian L. Smith, Pulaski. (2) Mrs. McClaugherty, Pearisburg.

- ROANOKE COUNTY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Edith Riley, Oakland School, Salem. (2) Mrs. Lillian Jennings, Hollins School, Salem.
- WASHINGTON—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.
- DISTRICT 10. ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' STUDY CLUB. (1) Elmer L. Thune, 3115 N. 29th St., Tacoma. (2) C. G. Jespersen, 510 North J St., Tacoma.
- PUGET SOUND SCHOOLMASTERS' CLUB. (1) E. W. Campbell, 810 Dexter Ave., Seattle. (2) Frank Farrar, 7752 33rd Ave., N. W., Seattle.
- SKAGIT COUNTY ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Arnell Johnson, Route 2, Anacortes. (2) Mrs. Lella B. Hanson, 303 N. Baker St., Mt. Vernon.
- WHATCOM COUNTY GRADE SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Gordon W. Leen, Acme. (2) Clinton McBeath, Everson.
- WEST VIRGINIA—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.
- CABELL COUNTY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) W. V. Christian, 2714 Highlawn Ave., Huntington. (2) Guy M. Chapman, 1829 12th Ave., Huntington.
- HAMPSHIRE COUNTY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) W. L. Thompson, Three Churches. (2) S. W. Judy, Romney.
- KANAWHA COUNTY ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Winifred H. Newman, 211 Beauregard St., Charleston. (2) Paul J. Stevers, 935 West Virginia Ave., Dunbar.
- MCDOWELL COUNTY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) C. M. Otey, Welch. (2) Mary Boardman, Pageton.
- MARION COUNTY ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) F. Walter Cox, 1024 Fennimore St., Fairmont. (2) Larney Gump, Monongah.

- MARSHALL COUNTY ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) John Kady, 42 Seventh St., McMechen. (2) Alice Sanford, 1111 Fifth St., Moundsville.
- MONONGALIA COUNTY SCHOOLMASTERS' CLUB. (1) Homer S. Johnson, Route 2, Fairview. (2) Mrs. Lila Bowers, 538 Brockway Ave., Morgantown.
- SUMMERS COUNTY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Mrs. Ruby Williams, River-view School, Hinton. (2) Mrs. Addie Gooch, Avie School, Hinton.
- TUCKER COUNTY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) F. C. Randolph, Parsons. (2) Martha Bomberger, Thomas.
- TYLER COUNTY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Russell Bonner, Shirley. (2) Cecil Nicholas, Alma.
- UPSHUR COUNTY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Glenn S. Ours, Buckhannon. (2) Mrs. Marguerite Riggs, Arlington.
- WOOD COUNTY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Gorda L. Wilson, Parkersburg. (2) Austin H. George, Parkersburg.
- WISCONSIN—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.
- ASHLAND DISTRICT. (1) Bessie Alcorn, Ashland. (2) Bertha E. Brensike, Ashland.
- CHIPPEWA FALLS AREA. (1) Freda Johnson, Chippewa Falls.
- JANESVILLE DISTRICT. (1) Rose Gagen, Janesville. (2) J. E. Heffernan, 2112 S. Ninth St., Sheboygan.
- LA CROSSE AREA. (1) Alice M. Byrne, 812 King St., La Crosse.
- NORTH EASTERN AREA. (1) J. E. Heffernan, 2112 S. Ninth St., Sheboygan.
- PLATTEVILLE AREA. (1) Frances Bentley, Platteville.
- STEVENS POINT CENTRAL ASSOCIATION. Chairman, Lucy Doyle, 503 Church St., Stevens Point.
- SUPERIOR DISTRICT. (1) Josephine Benson, 202 E. Eighth St., Superior.

STATE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS ASSOCIATIONS

In the following roster the symbol (1) is used to indicate the person reported as president and (2) is used to indicate the secretary.

- ALABAMA—DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS. (1) Dalton Moss, Oneonta. (2) Mrs. Emma Flowers, Ozark.
- ARKANSAS—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' SECTION. (1) Carter Short, Fayetteville. (2) Lela Nichols, Hot Springs.
- CALIFORNIA—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Fred B. Zimmerman, Stonehurst School, Oakland. (2) Mrs. Howardline G. Hoffman, 392 Riverside Dr., Chino.
- COLORADO—ASSOCIATION OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS. (1) V. H. Volgamore, Carlie and Lincoln Schools, Pueblo. (2) M. J. Henley, Lowell School, Colorado Springs.
- CONNECTICUT—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Cro M. Gray, 123 Stearns St., Bristol. (2) Marcia W. Zabriskie, Bloomfield.
- DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Eva M. Trushelm, Congress Heights School. (2) Katherine Doonan, West School.

- FLORIDA—DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS. (1) Fred Gehan, Caroline Brevard School, Tallahassee. (2) Miss Dempse Brewster, The Palms, De Land.
- GEORGIA—DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS. (1) Mrs. R. D. Osterhout, 1056 Reeder Circle, N. E., Atlanta. (2) Mrs. J. W. Mozley, 1324 Blaircliff Rd., Atlanta.
- IDAHO—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) A. R. Adams, Nampa. (2) Barnell Wrigley, Malad City.
- INDIANA—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' DEPARTMENT. (1) R. W. Holmes, 1717 S. Main St., Kokomo. (2) Merle Stump, 325 W. 44th St., Indianapolis.
- IOWA—DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS. (1) Marjorie E. Walters, Harrison School, Cedar Rapids. (2) Mrs. Irene O'Connor, 1523 23rd St., Des Moines.
- KANSAS—ASSOCIATION OF ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS. (1) O. P. Loevenguth, Kellogg School, Wichita. (2) Charles H. Gleason, 228 S. Erie, Wichita.

KENTUCKY—SUPERVISORS' AND PRINCIPALS' GROUP. (1) Etta Paulson, Morehead Teachers College, Morehead. (2) Mrs. Lela Vice Powell, Frenchburg.

LOUISIANA—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' SECTION. (1) G. L. Stafford, Opelousas. (2) Mrs. G. Martin, Natalbany.

MARYLAND—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' SECTION. (1) James G. Carroll, Halethorpe. (2) Goldie Schimmel, 3304 Oakfield Ave., Baltimore.

MASSACHUSETTS—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) LeRoy Fuller, Jenkins School, Scituate. (2) Rita M. Hiltz, Maplewood School, Gloucester.

MICHIGAN—DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS. (1) Glenn O. Lockwood, Ann Visger School, River Rouge. (2) O. D. Reynolds, Sampson School, Detroit.

MINNESOTA—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' SECTION. (1) Annie Ginsberg, Phalen Park School, St. Paul. (2) Eliza Wunn, Hendricks School, St. Paul.

MISSISSIPPI—DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS AND SUPERVISORS. (1) E. E. Smith, Foxworth. (2) Mrs. Minnie B. Ford, Louisville.

MISSOURI—DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS. (1) Dr. Frank H. Gorman, Dir. of Experimental School, University of Missouri, Columbia. (2) John P. McKay, Jennings Elementary School, Jennings.

NEBRASKA—DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS. (1) Linna Barnett, Principal, East Ward, Fremont. (2) Ernest Holmberg, Madison School, Omaha.

NEW HAMPSHIRE—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Wayne Gray, Pittsfield. (2) Mary Mulvanity, 15 New St., Nashua.

NEW JERSEY—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Anne Y. Scott, Leonia. (2) Albert Hartman, Rosemont School, Montclair.

NEW MEXICO—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' SECTION. (1) A. C. Pruett, Lindsey Goode School, Portales. (2) Mrs. C. E. Little, 617 S. W. State St., Portales.

NEW YORK—ASSOCIATION OF ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS. (1) Fred B. Painter, 117 E. Buffalo St., Ithaca. (2) Walter A. Le Baron, Franklin School, Schenectady.

NORTH CAROLINA—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) J. E. Miller, J. H. Small School, Washington. (2) Kate A. McIntyre, Central School, Laurinburg.

OHIO—DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS. (1) W. Paul Allen, 4340 Turney Rd., Garfield Heights. (2) Edna Morgan, 2943 Berkshire Rd., Cleveland.

OKLAHOMA—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) H. P. Rice, Glenwood School, Ada. (2) Isabel Watson, Washington School, Bartlesville.

OREGON—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' DEPARTMENT. (1) Earl L. Condit, 2425 S. W. Vista Ave., Portland. (2) Guy L. Lee, McMinnville Junior High School, McMinnville.

PENNSYLVANIA—DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS. (1) Dr. Reinhold W. Goll, Elverson School, Philadelphia. (2) Anna Williamson, 22 Arbor St., Pittsburgh.

RHODE ISLAND—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Hermann G. Patt, John Clarke School, Newport. (2) Elizabeth Baldwin, 203 Newell Ave., Pawtucket.

SOUTH CAROLINA—DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS. (1) J. Douglas Blanding, Sumter. (2) Caroline Voigt, Logan School, Columbia.

SOUTH CAROLINA—PRINCIPALS' CLUB, PALMETTO STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION. (1) William Henry Grayson, Jr., Simonton School, Charleston. (2) J. Andrew Simmons, Booker Washington School, Columbia.

SOUTH DAKOTA—ROUND TABLE, ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' AND SUPERVISORS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Etta De Kraay, Box 1075, Aberdeen. (2) Adah E. Minard, Watertown.

TENNESSEE—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' SECTION. (1) H. P. Dodd, Mt. Pleasant. (2) Bertha Forrest, Lucy.

TEXAS—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' AND SUPERVISORS' ASSOCIATION. (1) B. C. Sulkey, 409 E. Weatherfordity, Ft. Worth. (2) A. E. Wells, Elementary Principal, Gladewater.

UTAH—DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS. (1) Frank Stevens, Corinne. (2) Victor J. Bott, Brigham.

VIRGINIA—DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS. (1) James E. Bauserman, Box 51, Fairfax. (2) Mrs. L. P. Woodward, Lee School, Alexandria.

WASHINGTON—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Leo Brewer, Snoqualmie. (2) Susan Lacey, Arlington School, Spokane.

WEST VIRGINIA—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Winifred H. Newman, Lincoln Grade School, Charleston. (2) W. E. Lawson, 2903 N. Avery St., Parkersburg.

WISCONSIN—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Laura E. Keller, Atwater School, Shorewood, Milwaukee. (2) Fred S. Schnell, 2722 Highland Ter., Sheboygan.

LIST OF MEMBERS

THE DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

FOR THE YEAR 1938-39, CORRECTED TO JULY 1, 1939

† Indicates the Life Members of the Department

One asterisk (*) indicates the City, County and District Enrolment Chairmen of the Department

Two asterisks (**) indicate the State Enrolment Chairmen of the Department

§ Indicates those members who are deceased

ALABAMA

Attebery, J. S., Forrest Hill Dr., Crichton
Bauchman, Mattie, R. F. D. 8, Box 394,
Birmingham
Belser, Dr. Danylu, College of Education,
University of Alabama, University
Brown, Eura, Ozark
Bryant, Mrs. Fred B., 2025 Leighton Ave.,
Anniston
Centerfit, Miss Innee, 1246 S. Court St.,
Montgomery
Cox, George D., 1408 N. 20th St., Birming-
ham
Ethridge, Mrs. J. W., Aliceville Element-
ary School, Aliceville
Farris, Eunora, County Supervisor, Coffee
County, Elba
Flock, Mrs. Elizabeth C., 7 N. Bayou St.,
Mobile
Flowers, Mrs. Emma, Ozark City School,
Ozark
Flurry, Bruce, Box 137, Dothan
Follis, Hattie, 3013 Ave. F, Ensley, Bir-
mingham
Gardner, W. M., W. Jasper Elementary
School, Jasper
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 Crump, Leah, Kealing School, Kansas City
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INDEX

ACTIVITY UNITS, building and operating a post office, 334-35; charting a nature trail, 313-14; conducting a toy-lending library, 444-47; cooperative assemblies, 591-95; correlating with school subjects, 337; creative and interpretive, 383-87; finding out about bees, 311-12; getting acquainted with the early Egyptians, 312; in content subjects, 362-64; integration of handwork and subjectmatter learning, 315-21; learning about mail, 330-38; learning about Vikings, 310; learning essentials of picture-making, 428-29; living with American pioneers, 310-11; living with Boy Scouts, 339-45; making and using marionettes, 388-95; making relief map of the United States, 347-54; on citizenship in rural school, 612; planning and presenting a circus, 307-08; publishing a newspaper, 368-72; serving the school, 366-67; studying clothing in rural school, 611-12; studying current social problems, 355-61; studying farm life, 308-09; studying medieval life, 312-13; studying shelter in rural school, 610-11; using a public address system, 434-37; using out-of-school environment, 364-66, 449-504; visiting Holland, 309; writing and staging a play, 396-402. *See also* Projects

ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION, by principal in small rural schools, 616-17; creating common point of view among teachers, 266-67; developing reading program, 551-52; importance of having competent French teachers, 301-02; in continuing-teacher plan, 588-90; need for orientation of teachers, 263; need of providing teachers with science subjectmatter, 286; participation of teachers in developing science program, 285-88; providing guidance for teachers, 257; pupil classification according to reading ability, 577-81; stimulating and guiding teachers in enrichment program, 278-84, 287; using film slides in teachers meetings, 427; using teacher committees in English project, 280-81; using teacher committees in science project, 282-83. *See also* Organization of schools and classes

AIMS AND PURPOSES OF LEARNING, cultivating appreciation and taste, 375-82; extension of pupil experience, 362-67; functional organization of school program, 267; growth in attitudes and appreciations, 387; habits of interpretation and critical thinking, 355-61; in child-centered curriculum, 245-46; in social-centered curriculum, 246-47; in vacation schools, 500-01; limitations of traditional curriculum, 236-37

APPRAISAL. *See* Evaluation

APPRECIATIONS. *See* Attitudes and appreciations

ARNOLD, DWIGHT L., 355

ARITHMETIC, direct teaching of, 254; discovering individual needs in, 512-13, 520-21

ART, and crafts in vacation schools, 503; building a play center, 384-86; developing music appreciation, 403-09; making and using marionettes, 388-95; producing an original play, 396-402; scope of school program in, 255, 291-94, 378; study of community needs in, 289-95

ASSEMBLIES, cooperative, 591-95

ATTITUDES AND APPRECIATIONS, as outcomes of study of community life, 476-77; creative and interpretive activities for developing, 383-87; cultivation of, in various fields, 375-82; developed in community art study, 291-95; habits of interpretation and critical thinking, 355-61; in music, 403-09; measuring, 360-61; using marionettes to develop, 388-95

AUDITORIUM, as a socializing and integrating center, 256-57

AUDITORY AIDS. *See* Visual and auditory aids

BAIRD, ANITA M., 383

BASIC SKILLS, development of, 342-43, 474-76, 503-04, 542-48, 613-14, 615-16. *See also* Arithmetic, English, Language arts, and Reading

BROADBUSH, LOUISE E., 278

BROOKS, FRED E., 434

CASWELL, HOLLIS L., 235

CHALFANT, ANNABELLE, 296

CITIZENSHIP TRAINING, and patriotism, 344-45; in rural schools, 612; in vacation schools, 502-03. *See also* Community resources

CLOWES, HELEN, 559

COMMUNITY RESOURCES, community art study, 290-95; community improvement thru pupil activity, 452-54; contributions of parents to school program, 489-93; cooperation of school and other community agencies, 291, 462-64; fostering wholesome living outside the school, 365-66; grade sponsors selected from local residents, 494-99; school experiences in using, 458-64, 472-77, 478-80, 608; study of community institutions, 458-61, 465-71; survey of community problems, 450-57; use of, in vacation schools, 500-04. *See also* Excursions and field trips

CURRICULUM, addition of activity periods to, 242-43; addition of subjects to, 240-41; child-centered, 245-46; cooperative study of, 271-77; course of study construction, 273-74; extending pupil experiences, 362-67; for gifted children, 523-31; for maladjusted children, 538-41; for retarded pupils, 532-37; functionally organized, 266-70; in small rural schools, 607-17; introducing French in upper grades, 296-302; methods of enriching, 239-47; modification of content and activities already taught, 241-42; nature and significance of enrichment, 235-48; organization of, in terms of activities, 267-68; philosophy of, 277; pupil experiences limited by traditional, 236-37; social-centered, 246-47; unified, 247-48

DERRIG, DOROTHA E., 362
DYE, HELEN ALMA, 425

EDITORIAL COMMENTS, for each chapter, 250, 304, 374, 413, 449, 506, 574

EDITORIAL COMMITTEE FOR 1939 YEAR-BOOK, members of, 228; preface by, 229.
See also Editorial comments

EDLEBECK, MAYME M., 322

ENGLISH, developing a course of study in, 279-82.

ENVIRONMENTAL RESOURCES. *See* Community resources, and Excursions and field trips

EVALUATION, of assembly project in departmentalized organization, 595; of book auto service in county school system, 621; of camera club, 431-32; of community study, 474-77; of companion-class organization, 602; of creative and interpretive activities, 386-87; of curriculum enrichment in general, 568-72; of enrichment program for gifted children, 530-31; of excursions, 480; of functional reorganization of a curriculum evaluation, 270; of grouping pupils within each grade according to reading ability, 581-82; of integration of handwork and subjectmatter, 320-21; of program for developing appreciation of instrumental music in primary grades, 405; of project in French, 300-01; of project in science, 283-84; of project in social studies, 354; of puppet show, 393; of public address system, 435; of remedial reading program, 566-67; of social studies as center of integration, 262; of study of controversial issues, 358-61; of toy-lending library, 446-67; of writing and staging play, 402

EXCURSIONS AND FIELD TRIPS, activities following, 479-80; as integral parts of learning units, 456-57; as low-cost visual aids, 422-23; financing, 485-86; in seventh-grade geography, 478-80; making pictures on, 425-26; obtaining official sanction for, 481-82; of camera club, 429; organizing, 478-79; preparing for, 465-67, 479, 482-85; to airport, 336; to farm, 325-26, 459-60, 468-70; to government and business institutions, 460; to greenhouse, 467-68; to homes, 458-59; to industrial plants, 478-80; to local community institutions, 465-71; to museum, 470-71; to observatory, 471; to other communities, 460-62; 481-88; to post office, 333-34; to public library, 461; to railroad, 458; to symphony concerts, 408-09; typical, 467-71; values of, 480

FALK, ETHEL MARIE, 271

FARTHING, DOROTHY K., 263

FERTSCH, L. M., 228, 229

FOSTER, RICHARD R., 229

FRENCH, study of, in upper grades, 296-302

GALVIN, CECILIA, 228

GEOGRAPHY, enriching thru trips to industrial plants, 478-80

GIFTED CHILDREN, definition of, 524; enrichment for, in regular classrooms, 529-30; hobby club for, 529; opportu-

nity classes for, 525-27; special activities for, 527-29

GORMAN, FRANK H., 263

GRADE LEVELS, eighth, 296-302, 319, 462, 463; fifth, 312, 318, 339-45, 362-63, 363, 369-72, 461-62, 463, 471, 498-99; first, 308, 316, 322-29, 403-04, 458-59, 468-69, 469-70, 489-90, 495-96, 516-17, 577-79; fourth, 310, 311, 317-18, 363, 390, 396, 402, 461, 481-88, 498, 518-21; higher, 579-81; intermediate and upper, 317-19; kindergarten, 307-08, 316, 467-68, 495; primary, 316-17, 403-05, 549-58; second, 309, 316-17, 330-38, 364, 388-89, 404-05, 459-60, 472-77, 497, 517-18; seventh, 258-62, 296-302, 318-19, 363-64, 462, 478-80; sixth, 258-62, 264-65, 312-13, 313-14, 318-19, 346-54, 357-58, 364, 462, 471, 491-92, 499; third, 310, 317, 330-38, 389-90, 396-402, 404-05, 460, 461, 470-71, 497-98

GRIFFITH, HARRIET LOUISE, 538

GUMBLICK, HELEN R., 549

HARAP, HENRY, 450

HEALTH AND SAFETY, improving instruction in, 603-06

HERRON, JOHN S., 603

HOME ECONOMICS, developing appreciation and taste thru, 379-80

HORSMAN, RALPH D., 465

HOWARD, ETHEL K., 355

HUDSON, JESS S., 228

HUFFORD, G. N., 375

INDIVIDUAL GUIDANCE. *See* Measurement and guidance

INTEGRATION OF LEARNING, by adapting instruction in basic skills to child's level of maturity, 542-48; for gifted children, 523-31; in small rural schools, 608-13; in various subjects with handwork as a center, 315-21; in various subjects with social studies as a center, 258-62; initiating a program for, 263-65; thru a continuing-teacher plan, 583-90; thru a public address radio system, 434-37; thru a school newspaper, 368-72; thru basic reorganization of the curriculum, 245-47, 266-70; thru cooperative assemblies, 591-95; thru large units of work, 252-53, 307-14, 330-38, 339-45, 346-54, 362-64, 383-87, 608-13; thru marionette shows, 388-95; thru production of an original play, 396-402; thru study of current social problems, 355-61; thru the school auditorium, 256-57; thru the school library, 256, 438-43; thru use of community resources, 449-505.
See also Activity units

JOHNSON, ANNIE, 494

JONES, ANNA B., 458

JONES, RALPH B., 251

JUMP, RAYMOND, 258

KIBBE, DELIA E., 322

LANGUAGE ARTS, direct teaching of, 253-54; teacher participation in developing a program of, 279-82; using marionettes, 391-92, 394-95; writing a play, 400-01.

activ.

462,
363,
first,
8-69,
7-79;
396-
gher,
7-19;
495;
cond,
4-05,
enth,
462,
2-13,
462,
0-38,
0-71,

true-

ation

ment

g in-
level
ren,
3-13;
as a
with
8-62;
ru a
ru a
8-37;
thru
lum,
as-
of
9-45,
thru
duc-
thru
6-61;
thru
thru
505.

54;
g a
ttes,
0-01.

See also Reading, and Remedial reading program

LEARNING, aims and purposes of, 267;
futility of mastery concept in, 542-43;
newer concept of, 543-45. *See also* Inte-
gration of learning

LEARNED, ROY E., 577

LEWIN, LILLIE, 514

LIBRARY. *See* School library

LIND, NELLIE V., 229

LIFE, CATHERINE, 472

LITERATURE. *See* English, Language arts,
and Reading

MACKINTOSH, HELEN K., 368

MALADJUSTED CHILDREN, classroom fur-
nishings for, 539; curriculum for, 532-
37, 538-41; mental hygiene applied to,
541; reading difficulties of, 520, 563-64;
visits to parents to investigate causes
of maladjustments, 538-39. *See also*
Measurement and guidance

MANUAL TRAINING, and related subjects for
retarded pupils, 534-35; developing ap-
preciations thru, 379-80

MATERIALS AND EQUIPMENT, availability of
materials for study of controversial
issues, 356-57; for auditorium, 256-57;
for staging a play, 397-400; for vacation
schools, 501-02; in functionally or-
ganized program, 268-69. *See also* Visual
and auditory aids, School library, Activ-
ity units, and Projects

MATURATION, adapting instruction in basic
skills to child's level of maturity, 542-
48; as a factor in learning, 543-44;
growth of whole child, 585-86

MCCARTHY, CATHERINE M., 330

MEASUREMENT AND GUIDANCE, conducting
interviews, 510; discovering pupil needs
and interests, 507-13; in reading pro-
gram, 549-58, 559-67; making case
studies, 511-13; making observations,
508-09; of attitudes, 360-61; of gifted
children, 523-31; of maladjusted chil-
dren, 538-41; of retarded children, 532-
37; using objective tests, 510-11, 514-22;
using questionnaires, 509-10. *See also*
Evaluation

MEMBERSHIP LIST, Department of Ele-
mentary School Principals, 634-700

METHODS OF TEACHING, in French, 297-99;
unit teaching combined with direct sub-
ject teaching, 251-57; unit teaching in
content subjects, 362-64. *See also* Activ-
ity units, Projects, and specific subject
headings

MILLARD, C. V., 542

MORLEY, CHRISTINE C., 438

MORTIMER, FLORENCE C., 406

MUSIC, direct teaching of, 254-55; devel-
oping appreciation and taste for, 376-78,
403-05, 406-09; selecting, for an original
play, 400

NATURE STUDY. *See* Science

NEALL, ELISA ANN, 388

NEWELL, ELIZABETH THOMPSON, 489

NORRIS, FORBES H., 278

NOYES, ELEANOR, 346

O'CONNOR, HELEN CLAIRE, 339

OPPORTUNITY CLASSES. *See* Gifted children

O'REILLY, E. P., 596

ORGANIZATION OF SCHOOLS AND CLASSES,
ability grouping of pupils, 244-45, 550-
51; 577-82; advantages of, in small
rural schools, 607-08; classification of
pupils in functionally organized pro-
gram, 269; companion-class plan, 597-
602; continuing-teacher plan, 583-90;
cycle plan for teaching special subjects,
614-16; departmental, 591-95; flexible
time schedule, 269-70; for gifted pupils,
523-31; for retarded pupils, 532-37;
grouping pupils according to reading
ability, 550-51, 577-82; platoon system,
251-57, 598-602, 603-06

ORGANIZATIONS OF PRINCIPALS, local, 624-
27; sectional, 628-32; state, 632-33

OUTCOMES OF INSTRUCTION. *See* Evalua-
tion

PATZ, GUSTAV, 403

PERKINS, HUGH V., 307

PERRIN, NELLIE HATON, 396

PHYSICAL EDUCATION, as part of direct
teaching program, 256; as part of pro-
gram to develop appreciations, 378-79;
for retarded pupils, 533-34; fourth-grade
unit on games, 498; play and recreation
in vacation schools, 504. *See also*
Health and safety

PINKSTON, EVA G., 229

POTTER, GLADYS L., 607

PROJECTS, building a play center, 384-86;
building and operating a post office,
334-35; camera club, 428-33; classroom
museums, 423-24; constructing relief
map, 347-54; cooperative assemblies,
591-95; for gifted pupils, 527-28, 529;
for retarded pupils, 534-35; in small
rural schools, 610-12; in unit on Boy
Scouts, 343-44; making and using mar-
ionettes, 388-95; producing an original
play, 396-402; publishing a school news-
paper, 368-72; stamp club, 336; toy
lending library, 444-47. *See also* Activity
units, and Community resources

PUBLIC RELATIONS, attitude of public to-
ward study of controversial issues, 355-
56; in curriculum enrichment, 276-77,
489-93, 494-99; photographs as an aid
in, 426-27; school demonstration day,
320; in vacation schools, 504. *See also*
Community resources

READING, as basis for grouping pupils,
577-82; developing readiness for, 322-29;
illustrative procedures in, 552-57; in
integrated program, 261; individualiz-
ing, in primary grades, 549-58; mate-
rials for maladjusted children, 539;
providing books in rural schools, 618-21;
recreational, 380-81, 503; remedial, 520,
559-67; vitalizing, for first-grade chil-
dren, 322-29. *See also* Remedial reading
program, and School library

RECORDS AND INFORMATION, Department of
Elementary School Principals, 623-700

REED, PAUL C., 414

REFERENCES, SELECTED, 249, 303, 373, 410,
448, 505, 573, 622

REMEDIAL READING PROGRAM, as means of
enrichment, 559-67; follow-up proced-
ures, 565-66; selection of poor readers,
520, 559-60; techniques, 560-61; visual

- defects and their correction, 561-64. *See also* Reading, and School library
- RESULTS OF INSTRUCTION. *See* Evaluation
- RETARDED PUPILS, experimental curriculum for, 532-37; readjustment of, 516-21. *See also* Maladjusted pupils, and Measurement and guidance
- RHODES, MAUDE A., 230
- RICKARD, GARRETT E., 591
- ROBERTS, BERTHA E., 523
- ROBERTSON, DALE, 481
- ROBERTSON, JOHN W., 559
- ROBINSON, ROY E., 583
- ROGERS, J. L., 568
- ROGERS, WILLIAM C., 532
- SAFETY EDUCATION. *See* Health and safety
- SCHOOL LIBRARY, book auto in rural areas, 618-21; equipment and use of, 438-43; in platoon system, 256; periods, 441-42; personnel, 438; textbooks and professional, for teachers, 276; toy lending, 444-47; used in developing appreciations, 380-81. *See also* Reading
- SCHOOL ORGANIZATION. *See* Organization of schools and classes
- SCIENCE, cultivating appreciations thru, 379; developing programs in, 282-84, 285-88; diagram of program in, 275; direct teaching of, 255-56; nature study in vacation schools, 502; visiting an observatory, 471
- SKILLS. *See* Basic skills
- SOCIAL STUDIES, as basis for curriculum reorganization, 246-47, 266-70; as center for integration of subjects and activities, 258-62, 263-65, 591-95; as part of program to develop appreciations, 380; diagram of program in, for all grades, 274; excursions to vitalize geography, 478-80; for gifted children, 525-28; for retarded pupils, 535-37; in small rural schools, 608-12; safety instruction as a phase of, 603-06; study of current social problems, 355-61; units of work in, 252-53, 308-11, 312-13, 316-18, 325-28, 330-38, 339-45, 346-54, 363-64, 396-402. *See also* Community resources, and Excursions and field trips
- STRETCH, LORENA B., 507
- SUTTON, RACHEL S., 500
- TESTING. *See* Evaluation, and Measurement and guidance
- TOOL SUBJECTS. *See* Basic skills
- TOPPING, ELIZABETH R., 618
- TRIPS. *See* Excursions and field trips
- UNITS OF WORK. *See* Activity units, Integration of learning, and Projects
- VISUAL AND AUDITORY AIDS, acquiring and appraising visual materials, 417-18; classroom museums, 423-24; developing visual aids program at low cost, 420-24; excursions as, 422-23; film slides used in teachers meetings, 427; free commercial materials, 424; magazine pictures, 420-22; phonograph used to develop music appreciation, 404, 407-08; photographs made by children, 422, 428-33; photographs made by teacher, 425-28; pictures as an aid in school appraisal, 427-28; producing, in the school, 418-19; providing mechanical equipment, 416-17; public address system, 435-36; radio used to develop music appreciation, 403-05; slides made by pupils, 423; toy-lending library, 444-47; types and purposes of, 414-16; utilizing available materials, 418. *See also* Community resources
- WEIN, DOROTHEA M., 285
- WEINBERGER, DAVID, 444
- WILLCOCKSON, MARY, 266
- WILLIAMS, CLAUDE L., 315
- WRIGHT, THEODORE R., 420
- YEARBOOKS, Department of Elementary School Principals, (inside back cover)
- YODER, ELIZABETH M., 478
- ZIEGFELD, EDWIN, 289

6-402.
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17-18;
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20-24;
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NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

**ENRICHING THE
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ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL CHILD**

**EIGHTEENTH
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