

Meeting Special Needs
of the
Individual Child

NINETEENTH YEARBOOK

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PREFACE

EQUALITY OF EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITY has long been a major ideal of the American people. Only recently, however, have educators generally begun to understand the true implications of this ideal. Increasing knowledge of the variety and magnitude of individual differences among children is making it clear that real equality of opportunity does not mean providing the same school program for all children. Rather, such equality means providing programs which are equally suited to the varied characteristics and needs of different children. This yearbook deals with the problems of discovering and meeting the special needs of each individual child.

There are, of course, many important needs which children have in common. The general objectives of education should be the same for all children. But the extent to which these objectives can be attained and the best means of attaining them will depend in part upon the capacities, interests, past experiences, out-of-school environment, physical condition, and personality adjustment of the individual child. In stressing methods of discovering and meeting the special needs of individual children, the yearbook does not ignore the common needs of all children; it merely focuses attention on the necessity of meeting common needs in accordance with the varied characteristics of individuals.

In meeting the special needs of a particular child, the school must ever be concerned with the child as a whole. It cannot effectively adapt its program to one aspect of a pupil's status, such as mental ability, without carefully considering his other characteristics. Since each child is an integrated unit, his various needs must be studied and met in relation to one another.

The Editorial Committee is especially indebted to all persons who submitted manuscripts for this volume. It is grateful also to Dr. Richard R. Foster and his assistants in the Research Division of the National Education Association, who helped with the planning, editing, and typing. The Division of Publications checked the manuscript, read proof, assisted with charts and photographs, and supervised the printing. The Committee's work was facilitated in many ways by Miss Eva G. Pinkston, executive secretary of the Department, and by her competent clerical staff.

With the publication of this book Miss Cecelia Galvin completes her three years of service on the Committee and the chairmanship passes to Mr. Jess S. Hudson. The new member is Dr. Walter Jacob, Jr., of Jersey City, New Jersey.

THE EDITORIAL COMMITTEE

THE PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE

THAT EACH CHILD is an individual personality, significantly different from any other child as to needs, capacities, desires, and interests, is not new either to educational literature or to general lay understanding. To this statement none would take exception but most of us have been doing far too little about such differences in the schools. The chief reason has been not that we were indifferent to the problem, but that we lacked the knowledge, the time, or the facilities necessary to treat each child as an individual. This yearbook cannot provide us with additional time or more adequate facilities. It can, however, increase our understanding of pupil differences and of practical procedures for meeting them. Our first tasks are to discover the special needs of individual children and to determine suitable methods of ministering to those needs. Only as we succeed here can we make effective use of the time and the facilities at our disposal.

This volume is especially timely in that it is being presented to the educational profession at a time when, in a war-torn and unbalanced world, it seems almost as if human values have been completely forgotten and the individual human personality has become the pawn of mechanized force. May this publication serve to redirect our attention to the worth and importance of the individual child.

It should not be assumed that authoritative answers are available for all the questions discussed in this book. Much remains to be discovered about children and their individual needs. Moreover, plans and procedures suitable in certain schools or communities may not be altogether feasible elsewhere. Administrators and teachers should carefully consider the practices described here in the light of their own local situations and then use only those practices which, with modifications, seem to offer the maximum of pupil growth.

Readers of the yearbook will make their own evaluations of it as its principles and philosophy are applied to the education of real children. Broad in scope and presenting a variety of actual school experiences, the book should have great suggestive value. I predict for it a deserved popularity among all types of workers in elementary education.

The Department is deeply grateful to the editors and authors of this volume, to the Research Division of the National Education Association, to our own Department headquarters staff, and to all who have, in any way, contributed to this publication. All these have done their work well. We take great pleasure in commending this yearbook to the educational profession.

IRVIN A. WILSON, *President*
Department of Elementary School Principals

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CHAPTER I

THE CHALLENGE OF THE INDIVIDUAL CHILD

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ALTHO INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES and educational adaptations to them have received widespread study and thought only within relatively recent years, the existence of such differences in mental abilities has long been known. They were recognized in the educational theories of Plato and Aristotle, as well as in the doctrines and practices of most educational theorists and pioneers since. Until about fifty years ago, however, the views of practical and theoretical educators were based almost entirely upon casual observation. In fact, the most important and illuminating work in this field has been done in the last twenty-five years, approximately—that is, since the advent of adequately reliable and valid tests of mental abilities.

In this period our knowledge of human variability in the higher, more complex processes (those measured by tests of mental abilities) has grown in range, detail, and validity, in spite of the fact that definitions and theories of intelligence differ, and notwithstanding certain limitations inherent in the tests being used.¹ Still, other things being equal, the best available standardized tests now provide the most reliable method of determining mental ability.

At present our knowledge of individual differences is not restricted to that complex of mental functions known as intelligence. Tests of intelligence have been followed by tests of special aptitudes (e.g., mechanical, musical, scientific), of school achievement (e.g., reading, arithmetic, history), of personality (e.g., extroversion-introversion, neurotic tendencies, moral judgment), of attitudes and opinions (e.g., religious, political, war), and of dominant interests (chiefly vocational). Each of these instruments has revealed a wide range of variation in the degree to which the measured trait is possessed by individuals composing an unselected sampling of the population.

Some of the tests have been further specialized according to the various purposes they are intended to serve. An achievement test, for example, may be concerned primarily with ascertaining a pupil's level of attainment in a particular subject of study; or it may be concerned

¹ See, for example: Freeman, Frank N. *Mental Tests*. Revised edition. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1939. Chapters 9, 10, and 11.

primarily with diagnosing a pupil's particular difficulties in a given subject (such as the processes and special number combinations in arithmetic); or it may be designed to predict the quality of a pupil's achievement in a certain subject (such as a foreign language or mathematics).² The more highly specialized tests have not only assisted in the practical solution of pupils' learning problems but also have added to the valuable fund of knowledge about individual differences by permitting an analysis of the parts that make up the whole. Furthermore, they have facilitated the study of variations *within* the individual, as well as variations *among* individuals.

Probably the chief conclusion to be drawn from the numerous investigations of individual differences of all sorts is that every individual, considered as an integrated whole, is unique. This conclusion, altho widely accepted today, is too seldom reflected in the organization and procedure of the schools.

THE NATURE AND EXTENT OF HUMAN VARIABILITY

It is obviously impossible to represent a given person in his entirety by means of a single index. There is no single psychological test or measure which will reveal the facets of an individual's personality, his ability in arithmetic, language, general intelligence, etc. What any given test does is to measure an *aspect* or *segment* of the individual. The aspect measured may be relatively simple, as in the case of reaction times, or relatively complex, as in the case of intelligence. Thus, curves of distribution which portray human variability represent selected traits rather than the distribution of total personalities.

There is no doubt about the existence of wide individual differences in mental abilities, in the mastery of school subjects, in the nonintellectual aspects of personality, and in physical traits. Numerous curves of distribution have been published showing such variation with respect to many psychological functions, as well as for a variety of physical and anthropometric measures. All these experimentally determined curves approximate more or less closely the well-known normal probability curve, and it is now the orthodox doctrine that human traits are so distributed. The fact that in any given investigation the actual curve is more or less irregular is attributed to errors of measurement and to an incomplete sampling of cases.

The so-called normal probability curve reveals a continuous and symmetrical distribution, that is, one in which there is a single mode about which the cases cluster and the frequencies of cases diminish as the distance from the mode (or average) increases. Thus, the system-

² This last type may also be regarded as an aptitude test.

atic study of individual differences has shown that, contrary to popular misconception, people do not fall into distinct types as far as psychological and physical traits are concerned. Individuals cannot be classified as "visual-minded" or "auditory-minded," as "mechanical-minded" or "language-minded," musical or unmusical, artistic or unartistic, athletic or unathletic, intelligent or unintelligent, of good disposition or bad disposition. It is equally unsound to attempt to divide the population into introverts and extroverts, the subjective and objective, the practical and theoretical, or the ascendant and submissive. Human beings can no more be classified as members of one or another of these types than they can as giants or dwarfs, geniuses or idiots. There are, of course, individuals at both extremes in all traits. But when the population in general is studied, there is found a continuous gradation from one extreme to the other, with a concentration of individuals about a central point (the average) and with the frequency of occurrence decreasing as the deviation from the central tendency increases.

If it were true that a group is divisible into clearly defined types or classes, statistical distributions of the measurements of a particular trait should reveal a bimodal or multimodal curve, that is, a curve having more than one point at or near which a large portion of the population will group themselves, with significant gaps between these points. In other words, there should be a mode for each alleged type. Such multimodal distributions have not been found for unselected groups.

It is conceivable that under special conditions of growth and education rather well-defined groups might be created, altho even then there could be overlapping of groups. For example, there probably would be a bimodal curve of physical measurements if half the children were undernourished from birth or very early infancy, whereas the other half were nourished under ideal conditions. The same would probably be true in respect to attitudes if half the children were educated in the traditions of a culture diametrically opposed to the traditions of the other half. Similarly, a bimodal curve would probably result if, in linguistic ability (or any other), half were educated in an environment designed to foster and conserve that ability, whereas the other half matured in an environment barren of the necessary educational influences. *Under present conditions*, however, the nature and extent of individual differences in a particular trait or ability, or complex thereof, are best represented by the unimodal curve.

The educational implications of the distribution of human abilities, tho readily discerned, are very significant. First, since the general population is not divisible into two or three ready-made classes in any

psychological traits that have been investigated, there are no fixed categories which the school can employ for the purpose of differentiating instruction. Second, the range of abilities is such as to make imperative differentiated educational procedures, whether by means of acceleration or enrichment, or both; whether by homogeneous classes or by groupings and individualized instruction within a single more or less heterogeneous class. Finally, because individuals do not fall readily into one type or another, each having its own exclusive characteristics, the importance of the individual rather than of his class is emphasized.

VARIATIONS WITHIN THE INDIVIDUAL

Not only do individuals differ from one another, but they *may* also vary within themselves. That is, a person's abilities may not be uniform. This, as well as other considerations, has given rise to an interest in mental organization. We should have to go too far afield if we attempted to describe even briefly the current theories of the nature of intelligence—their similarities, differences, and implications.³ It must suffice to say that regardless of the particular theory to which one subscribes, evidence shows there is a high degree of correspondence among abilities in the usual variety of school subjects, altho here, as always in matters of human psychology, there are exceptions. Not only do school and test data support this view of general correlation, but the view appears to be consistent with the most widely accepted theory of brain function.

Correlated abilities—The fact that complex mental processes, such as those required in school subjects, are significantly correlated with one another (altho there are several exceptions to be noted later and altho the correlation is in no case perfect) means that abilities within persons in general do not occur in a haphazard fashion, whatever the underlying causes may be. Instead, there is a tendency for the individual to approximate the same level of ability in most mental activities, particularly those required in the usual school and college curriculum. That is to say, other things being equal, in most individuals we may expect a marked degree of consistency of performance in various mental activities, with the exceptions to be noted. It often happens, however, that other things are not equal, thus accounting in part for the absence of perfect consistency. Interests vary; environmental forces differ; purposes of learning and behavior differ; different feelings and emotions permeate and affect favorably or unfavorably

³ See, for example: Spearman, Charles E. *The Abilities of Man*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1927. 415 p. ¶ Thorndike, Edward L., and others. *The Measurement of Intelligence*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927. 616 p. ¶ Thomson, Godfrey H. *The Factorial Analysis of Human Abilities*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1939. 326 p.

one's performance in this or that activity. These varying factors account for irregularities of performance level in some individuals, such irregularities being of different degrees of significance or seriousness.

Until an individual has been studied, it cannot be said that he is or is not irregular in respect to this or that ability. If discrepancies exist, their degree can be known only thru study of the individual. Hence, it is desirable—in fact, essential—to have a “picture” of each child or adult if his individuality is to be recognized and educated. A complete psychological portrait would include developmental details of character, temperament, interests, environmental forces—and perhaps a medical history—as well as details of intellectual development and equipment. Manifestations of intelligence do not occur in isolation from one's other psychological traits.

It is not true that generally if a person is weak in one field or subject, nature will compensate by making him strong in another. The fact that some individuals are more or less irregular in their abilities does not mean that their abilities are at opposite poles, or even that their abilities are on opposite sides of the average.

Special abilities—There are, nevertheless, two or three kinds of abilities that can be regarded as special; that is, they show little or no association with other abilities. Such abilities are found particularly in music and the graphic arts, and possibly in mechanical activities. Their designation as special abilities rests upon the fact that they show a negligible or low correlation with measures of general intelligence and that they require fortunate combinations of a number of specific mental factors which, within the individual, vary among themselves and are independent of general ability. Experiment has established that in some of the more stereotyped and routine aspects of talent in the graphic arts an intellectually dull child may at times surpass a bright one, and that such abilities may occur in any degree at almost any intellectual level. Likewise, in music neither the sensory nor the motor aspects are associated at all closely with intellectual ability.

It is essential, however, if a person's achievements are to surpass the more mechanical aspects—such as mere graphic reproduction or technically competent musical performance—that the specific factors of each ability be complemented by general intelligence of an appropriate level. Caricature, creativeness, interpretation, inventiveness, and symbolism in graphic art and music demand intellectual ability, as they do in other forms of thought such as language and number.

Since musical and artistic talents are not closely related to other abilities, it is often assumed that they are “natural gifts,” that they

appear very early in the lives of children who possess them, and that nothing much can be done about them one way or the other. This notion should be critically examined in the light of the history of instruction in these fields. In the schools of the United States drawing and music—in fact all the fine arts—were long regarded as superfluities. By some educators and parents they are still thought of as fads and trivialities.⁴ Instruction in these subjects is extremely meager in many schools, especially in comparison with the amount of time and effort expended upon the development of language and number mastery. These facts might account in large measure for the failure of children in general to progress in art and music as they do in fields commonly thought of as “intellectual.” We know, furthermore, that great artists do not “just grow.” All biographies of great musicians, for example, show a history of intensive, prolonged, and arduous musical labors, beginning in early childhood and continuing thruout their active careers.

If drawing were taught like language, as a means of expression, and if it were as much a part of daily life, then speed, accuracy, and grace of graphic expression might be no less common than they are in verbal expression. This is not to say that eminent or equally good artists can be made of all persons thru education, any more than can eminent or equally good authors, scientists, or scholars be made of all persons. The point is that all degrees of ability in any field can probably be improved to some extent by suitable training.

Some psychologists maintain that mechanical aptitude is also a special ability, for, they say, it does not follow that a person who is efficient in thinking with signs and symbols will be equally efficient in mechanical or manual activities. According to this view, the usual tests of intelligence are inadequate for one whose proficiency is greatest with concrete and practical materials. This viewpoint may be endorsed without necessarily subscribing to the assumed corollary that mechanical ability is a special innate trait, independent of what is ordinarily meant by the term “intelligence.” In view of the known facts, we may well question the correctness of regarding mechanical aptitude as altogether a special ability. Let us examine these facts.

Coefficients of correlation between intelligence test scores and those of mechanical aptitude are low—in the neighborhood of $+ .30$.⁵ Many

⁴ When the WPA promoted projects in the fine arts (painting, sculpturing, play production, dancing, and music) critics, in derision, labeled them “boondoggling.”

⁵ The coefficient of correlation is a mathematical measure of relationship between two series of factors. The lowest possible correlation is 0.00 and the highest possible is 1.00. Correlations can be either *positive* or *negative*. A positive correlation indicates a tendency for the factors to increase or decrease together; a negative correlation indicates a tendency for one factor to increase as the other decreases.

older dull or mentally retarded individuals do appreciably better on concrete or manual performance tests than on verbal tests of mental ability. In contrast, intellectually gifted young children, relative to their other abilities, often get low ratings on tests of manual or mechanical skill. These findings indicate that motor and manual skills do not necessarily keep pace with intellectual development, and vice versa. It must be noted, however, that such skills require varying degrees of sensory and motor development and coordination, and that neither sensory development nor motor development has any appreciable relationship with mental abilities. Since sensory and physical development act as limiting factors in mechanical performance, and since they are not closely related to mental growth, it is not surprising that an intellectually gifted child should appear to have relatively little mechanical aptitude, or that older dull and mentally retarded individuals should manifest a degree of manual skill incommensurate with their mental levels.

In addition, the character of our educative process makes it doubtful whether mechanical aptitude may be regarded as a special innate ability. The education of the mass of children deals primarily with verbal and numerical materials, while the manual and mechanical activities are reduced to a minimum, if not altogether absent. The interests of most children are directed away from the development of mechanical aptitude by the very nature of their educational environment. This is especially true of intellectually gifted boys and girls. Thus, taking all factors into account, and barring sensory and motor defects, it appears that mechanical aptitude or lack of it is not entirely a matter of innate special ability or disability, but is due rather to a combination of the individual's general intelligence, his sensory and motor development, and the forces of his education, both formal and informal.

In arithmetic and language (reading, writing, and spelling), instances of more or less serious disability are occasionally found which are attributable neither to lack of intelligence nor to special innate mental disability. They are due, rather, to poorly formed habits or faulty mechanics, to physical and sensory defects, to neurological anomalies resulting in alexia, to poor or inadequate instruction, to lack of motivation, to complicating emotions, or to other factors of a non-intellectual sort.

Thus disabilities occurring in language and arithmetic do not signify that these forms of mental activity are independent of and unassociated with other abilities. Children at or above average intelligence ordinarily learn reading, spelling, writing, and arithmetic

without requiring a special kind of instruction, unless they happen to be handicapped by one or more atypical conditions such as those mentioned above. The small percent of normally intelligent or superior children who are thus handicapped will require special and intensive training. It is probable also that those who are not under handicaps of a nonintellectual sort would learn language and arithmetic even more effectively than they do if they too received instruction better adapted to their individual needs.

The question of mental organization—Within the last few years the theory of "mental factors" or "primary" mental abilities has received increasing attention. As a result, some psychologists have stated that the term "intelligence" should be discarded and that we should henceforth talk only of primary mental abilities, such as Thurstone's number facility, word fluency, visualization of space, memory (for words, names, and numbers), perceptual speed, verbal reasoning, and induction. Those taking this position urge also that each of these abilities should be tested separately.

Complete acceptance of the doctrine of primary mental abilities and rejection of the concept of general intelligence are at present premature at best; for the entire subject of factor analysis and primary mental abilities is in its early and tentative stages. In fact, the existence of a variety of primary factors has not yet been demonstrated by the development of tests which represent them in pure form. Furthermore, different factor analysts find different primary abilities, altho all list some abilities in common. It is possible that the so-called primary abilities are actually specialized forms created out of a primary *general ability* by common experiences and education. At least, the seven primary abilities listed above are strongly suggestive of those fostered and developed in our society and its schools.

Intellectual ability, especially of the kind required in the school, is at present best manifested in the more complex rather than in the simple mental operations, in novel situations rather than in stereotyped behavior, in the ability to abstract and to generalize rather than in the manipulation of the particular and the concrete. This conception has been incorporated in the psychological tests that have proved most valid as measures of general ability or intelligence.

However, regardless of the theoretical position one assumes with respect to mental organization, wise clinicians and educators do not take as their sole guides the general indexes provided by an intelligence test (mental age and intelligence quotient). It has been pointed out that altho general correspondence between various abilities in the same individuals is quite marked, the correlation is by no means per-

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fect. Since this indicates some differences between abilities, some serious and others not, and since we cannot know beforehand in which individuals the inconsistencies will appear, the fundamental importance of the individual child as the unit of study and of education is once more apparent, regardless of whether inconsistencies are of a primary or secondary order.⁶

The systematic study of the nature and extent of individual differences has, up to the present, been largely cross-sectional in character, employing one variable at a time. According to this method, a representative group of individuals is measured with respect to a given trait, such as intelligence, height, strength, or reading rate. The data are then ordered and analyzed, and the relative rank of an individual is determined by his position in the group. This type of study has been and still is very valuable, but it must be recognized that a single measure does not portray an individual. Nor is a *series* of such measures taken at a given time altogether satisfactory; for altho such a series provides a psychological "profile," it does not show the dynamic interaction of the individual's various traits; it does not give the "organismic" picture that is so essential. No trait exists in isolation within an individual; every trait is a dependent part in a larger whole that acts as a unit, and it is this whole which gives every person his uniqueness. To portray this uniqueness, more recent investigations have been employing the *longitudinal* method, in which the *same* individual is measured over a span of years in respect to each of a variety of traits. Thus, each individual's tempo and peculiarities of growth are portrayed. After this is done, it is essential to organize all the facts regarding a given individual into a "case" and to attempt an interpretation of them in order best to understand how that person came to be what he is. In short, the cross-sectional normative study can be used to discover resemblances and differences among individuals, while the organized individual pattern, or case, can be used to explore and appraise more fully the individuality of each person. The extent to which these two purposes are fulfilled will depend upon the sympathetic cooperation of teacher, supervisor, and administrator.

CAUSES OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

The fact that individuals differ in respect to mental abilities is unchallenged. But there is disagreement regarding the underlying causes of these differences. Fundamentally, the question reduces itself to the perennial one of heredity and environment, or as Galton so

⁶The reader who desires to acquaint himself at first hand with "factors" and "primary" abilities should read: Thomson, Godfrey H., *op. cit.* Thurstone, Louis L. *Primary Mental Abilities*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933. 121 p.

aptly called it, nature and nurture. These are the *basic* causes contributing to individual differences. The other factors ordinarily studied in relation to human variability, such as "race," nationality, sex, physique, and age, are really secondary in character. Altho these are readily seen to be particularized aspects of nature and nurture, they are nevertheless sufficiently important to warrant independent consideration.

Insight into the nature-nurture problem is especially desirable since it is important to know what mental equipment a child starts with, how far environmental forces—including schooling—may be expected to add to his equipment, whether a favorable environment can create or increase capacity, or whether environment can only supply the individual with materials to work on. It is doubtful whether biology and psychology can even now give unequivocal answers to these questions. Evidence, however, is extensive and thoro enough to free the problem from mere bias and anecdote, and converging lines of evidence offer some very plausible conclusions.

Genetic theory—The science of genetics has provided insight into the biological basis of human variability. According to accepted genetic theory, each parent contributes to the new individual one set of genes, and the two sets unite to make a double set containing elements necessary for the formation of the characteristics of the newly conceived individual. The germ cell of each parent contains many thousands of genes; *there are diversities among the sets within each parent*; and in the newly fertilized ovum the substances of both parents are united to form new combinations. It is therefore extremely improbable that any two individuals, even within the same family, will be developed from identical gene combinations (excepting identical multiple-birth children who develop from the division of a single fertilized ovum). To state it differently, the germ cells within each parent do not all carry identical trait potentialities; moreover, they carry potentialities which do not necessarily appear in the parent himself or herself. To the foregoing add the fact that the biological inheritance of each child is biparental, and the probability of identity or near-identity of genetic elements in siblings is seen to be so remote as to be completely negligible.

Another significant point is that a trait is not simply the product of a single gene. For example, to produce eye color in the fruit fly it has been found that at least fifty genes interact. This being true of a relatively simple trait, what must be the complexity of gene interaction in producing the highly complex physical correlates of those functions we call intelligence! Complexity and extensiveness of gene inter-

action provide one reason for the absence of complete correspondence of different abilities within an individual, as well as for the lesser correspondence of the same abilities among members of the same immediate family.

Genetic theory emphasizes the individual. It makes clear the fact that a large degree of variation may occur among children of the same parents, and between parents and offspring, so far as genetic constitution is concerned. An individual, then, cannot look forward with certainty to having the same mental level as his parents, whether that level be high or low. Neither have his older siblings necessarily defined his status for him. In general, the new individual will *tend to approach* the levels of other members of his family, as shown by the significant positive correlations between the abilities of persons in the same families. Yet there are marked exceptions, as when a gifted or a very inferior child appears in a family where none such have appeared before.

The role of inheritance—In the latter half of the nineteenth century Francis Galton, and then others, studied the frequency of occurrence of eminent persons within the same family, with a view to discovering the probable importance of inheritance. Galton and his followers interpreted their results as showing the primary and perhaps exclusive influence of inheritance in creating eminent men and women. Later studies, however, beginning notably with those of Cattell early in the twentieth century, yielded some telling evidence of the significance of nurture in the attainment of eminence. Consequently, today the two sets of forces need not be regarded as independent or as mutually exclusive.

With the advent of mental tests, the role of inheritance was widely investigated thru the study of trait resemblances within the same family. Here the argument was that the existence of greater trait resemblances between members of a family than between unrelated persons must be due to inheritance solely. But similarity of environmental conditions within a family was ignored in reaching this conclusion.

It is relevant to point out the findings in a study of foster children,⁷ namely, that siblings reared in foster homes that were markedly different in quality showed significantly less resemblance in mental abilities than siblings reared together in the homes of their parents. There was a marked degree of correspondence between the foster child's

⁷ Freeman, Frank N.; Holzinger, Karl J.; and Mitchell, Blythe C. "The Influence of Environment on the Intelligence, School Achievement, and Conduct of Foster Children." *Nature and Nurture*. Twenty-Seventh Yearbook, Part I, National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1928. Chapter 9, p. 103-217.

mental development and the quality of his foster home. At the same time, there was much more than a chance degree of similarity between the mental levels of foster children and of own children reared in the same home. This study justifies the conclusion that the decrease in similarity of siblings reared in different foster homes is influenced by the age at which they were separated, the length of time they were separated, and the differences in quality of the several foster homes.

The possibility of influencing mental growth thru nurture is admitted even by some writers of the hereditarian viewpoint. For example, Burks states:

The maximal contribution of the best home environment to intelligence is apparently about 20 IQ points, or less, and almost surely lies between 10 and 30 points. Conversely, the least cultured, least stimulating kind of American home environment may depress the IQ as much as 20 IQ points. But situations as extreme as either of these probably occur only once or twice in a thousand times in American communities.⁸

Possibilities of the IQ being influenced 20 or 30 points one way or another are of great importance. It remains to be seen, however, what the actual limits of influence and the actual frequencies may be. As yet, no experiment with optimal environments provided practically from birth have been carried out. What would happen, for example, if children of impoverished miners, share-croppers, and the like were placed in excellent surroundings very early in life? No one is in a position to answer this question now.

The study of twins has yielded important evidence regarding the role of inheritance as well as that of environment. The usual coefficient of correlation found for traits of ordinary siblings is about $+.50$, whereas the coefficient for fraternal twins is about $+.75$. Yet since fraternal twins, like ordinary siblings, have developed from two independently fertilized ova, their genetic constitutions need not be any more similar than those of ordinary siblings. This being the case, the greater trait similarity of fraternal twins must be ascribed to the closer correspondence or constancy of the environments in which twins are reared, as compared with ordinary brothers and sisters. Thus, the study of fraternal twins reveals the importance of developmental conditions operating in conjunction with genetic constitution.

Identical twins show a still higher degree of trait resemblance than do fraternal twins, the coefficient of correlation being in the vicinity of $+.90$. Examinations of identical twins reared apart, however, have shown varying degrees of difference among such twins in respect to

⁸ Burks, Barbara S. "The Relative Influence of Nature and Nurture Upon Mental Development." *Nature and Nurture*. Twenty-Seventh Yearbook, Part I, National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1928. p. 309.

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mental abilities and emotional, temperamental, and physical traits. Here, as in the case of foster children reared apart, it appears that differences between identical twins depend upon two considerations: (1) the age at which the twins were separated, and (2) the number of years they were separated. Differences are not only a matter of the amount of time spent apart, but also of the *developmental period* during which the separation took place.

The outstanding conclusion from the study of identical twins reared apart is that each pair offers a distinct problem which must be studied with respect to the particular factors involved. It appears, nevertheless, that in an explanation of individuality the extreme hereditarian notion must be abandoned, since appreciable trait differences reported for these identical twins, as well as other evidence, demonstrate that human nature is susceptible to environmental influences. The fact that individuality in contemporary communities is not simply a matter of hereditary determination makes the problem of the educator the more perplexing and challenging.

The role of environment—An early method of investigating the effects of nurture was to evaluate the environmental conditions of men and women of distinguished achievement. In the first such investigation in the United States, Cattell studied the birthplaces and residences of a thousand leading scientists.⁹ Striking inequalities were found in the production of scientists in different sections of the country. The study showed a close relationship between the environmental quality of geographic areas and the frequencies with which scientists were produced in those areas. Cattell considered these inequalities "to be a forcible argument against the view . . . that scientific performance is almost exclusively due to heredity." In 1915 and 1933 he published additional data¹⁰ bearing out the conclusions reached in the earlier study. Thus, while admitting the importance of the genetic basis of an individual's capacities, Cattell attributed to environmental factors a major role in creating individual differences as they are manifested in performance.

Another method used in studying the influences of environmental factors is to compare the intellectual status of children coming from various occupational and social groups. Data from such investigations are not unequivocal, for it is difficult to distinguish between conditions that are merely concomitant and those that are related thru cause and effect. If conditions are of the latter sort, it is still difficult to discover

⁹ Cattell, J. McKeen. "A Statistical Study of American Men of Science." *Science* 24: 732-42; 1906.

¹⁰ "Families of American Men of Science." *Popular Science Monthly* 86: 504-15; 1915. [Cattell, J. McKeen, and Cattell, Jaques, editors. *American Men of Science*. Fifth edition. New York: Science Press, 1933. p. 1261.]

which is cause and which is effect. However, the results of many and varied studies, each supplementing the others, help to clarify the nature of the relationships observed.

A unique and significant study was made of the intelligence of a group of canal-boat children.¹¹ Such children lead an unusual life, being cut off during most of the year from schools and ordinary social intercourse, except for the very limited contacts supplied by their own families. Many adults of the canal-boat population are unable to read or write, and their "intellectual life" is of the most meager kind. Thus, the children spend their plastic and developmental years in an environment of social isolation and intellectual barrenness.

The average IQ of the canal-boat children was 69.6; that is, according to the conventional classification, it was on the margin between the mentally defective and borderline groups. But the remarkable fact revealed was that *the intelligence quotients of children within the same family decreased as age increased*. The correlation coefficient between IQ's and life age was $-.75$, indicating a high inverse relationship. The age group from four to six had an average IQ of 90, whereas the group from twelve to twenty-two years of age had an average of 60. These data indicate that the *immediate* consequences of the restricted and impoverished canal-boat environment were much less serious in the case of the younger children. Apparently performance on tests in the earlier years does not suffer from restricted social and intellectual surroundings to the same extent as in later years. The social and intellectual needs of young children are fewer and simpler; they are therefore more likely to find sufficient an environment which, as they grow older, is inadequate because it suffers from a paucity of social and mental stimulation and nurture. Thus, in this illuminating study we have evidence that the extent and form of mental development are dependent in part upon factors in the individual's environment during his developmental years.

Research has shown also that the higher the vocational ratings of parents, the higher are the average mental ratings of their children. This finding has often been interpreted as reflecting only the force of inheritance, for it has been argued that in the long run persons of superior mental ability will find their way to the higher and preferred vocations, whereas people of inferior ability will in general gravitate toward the lower and humbler occupations. According to this view, it is only natural that children whose parents are on the higher occupational levels should surpass in mental capacity those whose parents are in the lower occupations. Such reasoning overlooks the fact that a

¹¹ Gordon, Hugh. *Mental and Scholastic Tests among Retarded Children*. Educational Pamphlet No. 44. London: Board of Education, 1923.

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child's intellectual, physical, and social environments are determined to a significant extent by the parent's occupation. Thus, the relationship between children's mentalities and the occupational levels of their parents may well be due in part to the influence of environment.

In studies of the kind just mentioned, there has been a tendency to overemphasize the differences in group averages and to underemphasize the great overlapping of groups. The fact is that many children of vocationally superior parents fall below the average level of children of vocationally inferior parents, while many of the latter children surpass the average of the former. These facts can be explained by (1) genetic theory, (2) increasingly widespread knowledge of prenatal, infant, and child care, (3) the greater availability of agencies for child welfare, and (4) especially the character of education in the United States, which contributes to an equalization of intellectual environments, altho free public education has by no means achieved a complete equalization.

In this connection, a study of 508 pupils has shown that more than three-fourths of the children who are above average in intelligence come from the less favored economic levels; that is, their parents are in occupations lower in rank than professions and executive positions in bigger business and industry.¹² On the other hand, the highest occupational group contributes much more than its *proportionate* share to the ranks of superior children. In the latter fact there is evidence of the genetic factor, but unless environmental factors also were operating, one would hardly expect to find three-fourths of all superior children coming from parents who, in general, are not of superior mental ability. In any event, our present knowledge of the extent and causes of individual differences in mental abilities offers no justification for differentiating educational opportunities on the basis of a child's social or economic origin and status.

Several studies indicate that nursery school attendance may permanently affect mental ability.¹³ This conclusion is based upon tests given the same children over a period of years, showing that nursery school attendance was related to increases in IQ. The results of these investigations do not contradict the prevailing view that under ordinary conditions—that is, under environments as they are and as held reasonably constant during the period of development—children show little change in intelligence. The results do suggest, however, that this

¹² Stoke, Stuart M. *Occupational Groups and Child Development*. Harvard Monographs in Education, No. 8. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1927. 92 p. Essentially the same results were found by Lawrence, Evelyn M. *An Investigation Into the Relation Between Intelligence and Inheritance*. British Journal of Psychology Monograph Supplements, No. 16. London: Cambridge University Press, 1931. 80 p.

¹³ Wellman, Beth L. "Growth in Intelligence under Differing School Environments." *Journal of Experimental Education* 3: 59-83; December 1934.

customary constancy may not be an inherent characteristic of the organism, but may be attributable in a measure to conditions of nurture under which children have developed. In other words, these studies indicate the possibility, tho not necessarily the fact, of flexibility of mental growth during early childhood.

In the light of the investigations of nature and nurture sketched above, the importance of genetic constitution (inheritance) in the formation of individuality cannot be questioned. At the same time, these studies indicate the importance of environmental influences in individual development. Nature and nurture, therefore, may no longer be set against each other, for each is conceivable only as one factor, or set of factors, in a total situation. Human traits cannot be ascribed wholly to hereditary factors or wholly to environmental, but are the results of the dynamic interrelationship of the growing organism and its milieu, extending thru time. That is, whatever traits an individual possesses are the product of genetic equipment and the conditions of growth in the environment from the moment the ovum is fertilized. Moreover, according to this view, a person's environment does not simply inhibit, warp, or permit the development of a part of his original nature. Instead, genetic constitution and environment interact in a single developmental process.

Enlightened educational practice, therefore, will seek to furnish every individual with conditions as nearly optimal as possible, not because such conditions will directly change the inherited capacities or potentialities of the individual, but because ordinarily in no other way can it be known to what extent his constitution is capable of developing. The earlier the optimal conditions are provided, the more closely the individual may approach the limitations imposed by nature. If, on the contrary, the extreme hereditarian viewpoint were adopted, it would imply that the chief or sole function of the educative process is the imparting of information and the formation of specific habits. In that event, education as growth, as development, and as the formation of individualities would be a fiction. Fortunately, the practices of the schools recognize, at least implicitly, the integral character of heredity and environment in the developmental process.

Race and nationality—Much nonsense has been expressed concerning racial and national differences in intelligence, the burden of the argument being that some groups are *by nature* intellectually superior to others. The fact is that there are at present no "pure" races, particularly in the United States and Europe. Anthropologists agree that at one time there were distinctive primeval races but that such groups have lost their definiteness thru intermixture.¹⁴ In any event, there are

¹⁴ See, for example: Boas, Franz. *Anthropology and Modern Life*. New revised edition. New York: W. W. Norton and Co., 1932. 255 p.

no demonstrable innate intellectual differences to be found at present between so-called racial groups, e.g., Alpine, Nordic, Mediterranean. What differences do exist may be attributed to cultural variations and discrepancies—environmental influences in the broadest sense.¹⁵ The most important point is that *within* every racial and national group there are wide variations in mentality, personality, and physique. Therefore, educational differentiation cannot rest upon racial or national membership but must become an individual matter.

This doctrine applies to the North American Indian and the American Negro as well as to other races. Psychological measurements have shown these two groups to be inferior to the white population in manifested intellectual abilities, but disparities in social, educational, economic, cultural, and health factors are so marked as to invalidate any conclusions at present with respect to inferiority of their *innate* potentialities. It remains for the future to demonstrate whether or not North American Indians and Negroes are by their genetic natures inferior to whites. What present data do show is that under existing conditions of environmental inequality they have, as groups, failed to reach the levels attained by contemporary whites. Nevertheless, mental tests reveal that at least 25 percent of Negro school children reach or surpass the average performance of white children.

Some writers have labored to show that altho "pure" races are not to be found, there are within political units rather well-defined groups which, with time, have advanced toward uniformity of language, mental traits, and physical characteristics. And, they maintain, some of these "national-racial" groups are by inheritance intellectually superior to others. The notion of Nordic superiority is a case in point. To support their argument, the proponents of this view cite the fact that mental tests of the foreign-born in the United States show in general that immigrants from Nordic countries rank higher than those from Alpine or Mediterranean countries. Bagley, however, has presented a compelling counter-argument showing that there is a high correspondence between immigrants' mental ratings and the educational and cultural status of their native countries.¹⁶ Indeed, in the light of more recent data some of the earlier advocates of the doctrine of national-racial superiority have appreciably modified their own views.

In this country one study (among others) revealed no appreciable differences in average intelligence ratings when about 2600 school children were divided into "racial" groups on the basis of physical criteria commonly used for such a classification. On the other hand, when the

¹⁵ For a survey of materials on various aspects of the problem of race differences, see Klineberg, Otto. *Race Differences*. New York: Harper and Bros., 1935. 367 p.

¹⁶ Bagley, William C. *Determinism in Education*. Baltimore: Warwick and York. 1925. 194 p.

several *nationalities* included in each racial group were considered, differences in mental level were found. These results indicate that mental abilities, as measured, are influenced not by membership in one or another of the racial groups, but rather by differences in the environments of national groups—social, cultural, economic, and educational.

Perhaps the most convincing investigation in this field was made in Europe.¹⁷ Children were tested in Paris, Hamburg, and Rome, and in rural communities of France, Germany, and Italy. The results show that differences in mental ability are appreciable when the children are grouped according to environment—city or rural—but not when the grouping is made according to racial membership as inferred from the physical characteristics (such as shape of head, color of hair, color of eyes, and complexion) held by some to be typical of the several races. This study thus provides further evidence that differences in mentality are due in part to environmental conditions, but not to racial membership.

The educational implications are clear. Since there is considerable overlapping of groups in respect to mental capacity, and since differences within any group are vastly greater and more significant than those now existing between national and racial classifications, educational guidance must be concerned primarily with each individual rather than with the group to which he belongs. Superior, average, and inferior mentalities have been found and will continue to occur in all groups, and the educational program should be adjusted to them wherever they occur.

Sex membership—As in the case of race and nationality, there is no evidence that innate differences in mental abilities exist between the sexes. On tests of general intelligence boys and girls as groups do equally well. Some minor group differences are found during childhood, such as the superior language ability of girls, the superior arithmetical ability of boys, and the superior mechanical and manual abilities of boys. In regard to mechanical and manual abilities, it is probable that physical differences between the sexes are important. An explanation of the slight differences in language and arithmetic is not readily available, but it would not be difficult to find some cultural influences to account for the differences, at least in part. It is well known that from the cradle up, distinctions in toys and play activities and equipment are made between boy and girl.

If sex membership is a significant factor in the determination of individual differences, it derives its significance from cultural influences

¹⁷ Klineberg, Otto. *A Study of Psychological Differences between Racial and National Groups in Europe*. New York: Archives of Psychology, 1931. 58 p.

and from the social distinctions made between the sexes, which in turn are based partly on physical and biological differences. Excluding the effects of cultural, physical, and biological differences, girls show the same range, variation, consistency, and inconsistency of abilities, interests, and purposes as do boys. Educationally, this can have only one implication: The schools are not justified in using sex membership as a basis of educational differentiation, except as such a procedure is indicated or made to seem desirable by the mores, culture, and economy of the society in which the individual is being educated.

Physique and bodily health—Two questions are involved here: (1) Does mental development take place at the expense of physical development? (2) Is there any relation between physique and intellect? The answer to the first is undoubtedly in the negative. In respect to the second, it is true that superior children as a group are somewhat accelerated in physical development, whereas mentally retarded children as a group are somewhat inferior physically. In general, however, the relationship between physical and mental development is so very slight as to preclude the possibility of estimating an individual's intelligence from a knowledge of his physique.

This fact has led some people to the unwarranted assumption that a child's physical and disease history has no bearing upon his mental status, except perhaps in a relatively few cases such as those of encephalitis, a disease known to affect mental status or behavior, or both. But studies upon which this unfounded assumption is based have been made with children who were relatively well advanced in their mental development. No one knows definitely the effect of adverse hygienic and health conditions in infancy and early childhood. There is, however, some evidence indicating that such conditions may have serious consequences. For example, seriously malnourished children have shown improvement in mental status after a three-year period of proper feeding which was begun at about two years of age. In animal learning experiments, diets seriously deficient in essential vitamins have had a deleterious effect upon mental development. Conditions producing serious oxygen deprivation (where there is interference with the functioning of the organs supplying oxygen to the brain tissues) have been followed by brain cell deterioration, the higher human cerebral structures being the more vulnerable.

In contrast with the foregoing types of experiments, practically all available studies of health and mental development deal with school children suffering from malnutrition (after the age of six or seven), defective teeth, diseased tonsils, adenoids, simple goiter, hookworm, etc. The conclusion that such defects have little or no effect upon mental

development is not valid for *all* children because, as already stated, the subjects were already well along in their development. One is not justified, therefore, in maintaining that individual differences in mental status are unaffected by factors of health beginning at birth or before. At least it is clear that if diseases and unwholesome conditions are reduced to a minimum, adverse effects upon mental development also will be at a minimum. The social and educational significance of this statement is too apparent to need explanation here, particularly in view of prevailing inequalities in prenatal care, diet, medical care, and hygienic conditions in home and community.

Chronological age—For educational purposes it is important to know whether or not an individual maintains his relative mental status within a group for the duration of his life. If he does not, educational prognosis and prediction are not possible. Fortunately the answer, if accidental and other complicating factors are eliminated, is in the affirmative, since mental growth is neither capricious nor haphazard. There are exceptions, however, and to understand them we must discover and take account of extraordinary factors, whether these have been accidental or planned.

Psychological changes that appear with increasing age are not merely quantitative, not merely accretions. As a child matures, he manifests qualitative changes in his responses and general behavior—new skills, interests, purposes, and insights; changed attitudes; richer and more highly differentiated perceptions. These are the emergents resulting from growing capacities and accumulated experiences which come with age and education. It is an educational truism, therefore, that the curriculum must be adjusted to meet these differences by means of new materials and methods which, psychologically speaking, are functionally significant for the learner.

A caution here regarding chronological age is desirable, tho probably not essential in addressing educators. Life age itself is an altogether inappropriate criterion for judging the status of any given child; for, as is well known, children of the same age vary widely in respect to every trait. Our concern is with changes taking place with age in the *same individual*.

SUMMARY OF EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

By the time children reach the first grade, differences in abilities are already marked. Whatever the reasons for these diversities, the school should deal with them by means of differentiated instruction and guidance so far as necessary and feasible.

Because abilities in school subjects are well correlated, a pupil, other things being equal, should not vary widely and capriciously in achieve-

ment in the several subjects, altho uniformity need not be expected. At the same time there are some whose abilities and performances are rather irregular, due to genetic or physical factors, forces of interest or emotion, habits, or environmental background. Ideally, it is the school's responsibility not only to find each child's general intellectual level, but also to discover his special aptitudes or weaknesses, if he has any, and to discern any nonintellectual factors which may be affecting his behavior and personality (such as problems of conduct, neuroses, psychoses, speech defects, sensory defects, and other physical disabilities). This may be accomplished thru careful observations by teachers, educational tests (achievement, diagnostic, prognostic), special clinical examinations, or any combination of these.

Adequate provision for individual differences requires some modification in the general program of studies for certain children in both elementary and secondary schools, altho interests and abilities are more differentiated at the secondary level. In any event, since there are marked differences in aptitude within the same subject or field of study, it is necessary to provide means of instruction which will meet pupils' special needs as to rate of progress and as to extensivity and intensity of study within each field. Ability grouping is a first step that makes it easier to initiate instruction that will meet these individual needs. Where such groupings have been wisely made, and where both subject-matter and methods of instruction have been adapted to pupils' needs, the psychological and educational advantages have been impressive enough to commend the practice to a large majority of educators who have had experience with it. Whatever the details of the particular scheme may be, differentiated instruction should attempt to provide for diversities of ability, interest, purpose, and other complicating factors of individuality. The alternative, mass instruction, fails to foster and conserve superior abilities and special talent, just as it fails to develop the limited capacities of inferior children.

Altho it is a major task of the school to discern and cultivate superior and creative minds and to bring the inferior to their maximum level of effectiveness, it is nevertheless true that the many individuals compassed within the "average" group also present their own idiosyncrasies. In a literal sense everyone is exceptional; for altho classifications are possible with respect to a *given aspect* of individuality and altho there is a concentration of cases about the central tendency in a given trait, it is the integration of numerous and varied characteristics that gives a person his individuality. The psychological fallacy of mass instruction is therefore apparent, even for so-called normal children.

The principle is here advanced that *the extent and form of mental*

*development are dependent in part upon conditions of the individual's environments during his developmental period, and in particular during the years of infancy and early childhood. There is an optimal period for the nurture and exercise of genetic potentialities; unfavorable or impoverished environments during that period will retard or restrict mental development. This doctrine denies that mental development is a mere unfolding process or that mentality will develop in a vacuum. It denies also that environmental forces may only help or hinder the process of development. On the contrary, it states that conditions of nurture are themselves an integral part of the process of development.*¹⁸ If this doctrine were not true, it would be necessary to discard the idea that education is more than the absorption of information and the fixing of habits. On the contrary, however, educators are psychologically and biologically justified when they speak of education as growth, as the development of individuality, and as enabling the individual to approach the limitations imposed by nature.

What are the specific implications of this concept of mental abilities? It means (1) that an individual's possibilities of development cannot be known or realized unless optimal conditions of growth are provided from birth, or even before; (2) that social and economic factors, and all they imply with respect to environmental forces, are as important in the determination of ability differences as are genetic factors; (3) that much potential talent is lost for want of proper physical and psychological nurture; and (4) that public education in a democracy that seeks to develop and foster all its human resources will have to contemplate providing pre-kindergarten education for all as a means of both physical and psychological development. The concept also has an implication for adult education, namely, that parents must receive sound training in regard to the pre- and post-natal care, diet, and mental nurture of children.

It is not enough to urge that talented boys and girls, of whatever economic or social strata, should have opportunity for higher education. That, it seems, is to begin at the wrong end, important tho that end is. It is fully as important—and probably more so—that all children have an opportunity for optimal nurture and full growth in their earliest months and years when nurture is most vital.

¹⁸ The principle here advanced in no way supports a current misconception of the intelligence quotient and mental development, or a current misinterpretation of some of the experimental results cited. At present there is a small number of persons on the periphery of the science of mental testing who are broadcasting the unfounded notion that results of psychological tests (principally the mental age and intelligence quotient) are not at all valid indexes of present intellectual capacity or of future intellectual competence. Such an uninformed notion can arise only from inadequate knowledge of the experiments dealing with changes in mental capacities under improved environments, or from ignorance of numerous data concerned with the constancy of intellectual level under ordinary conditions, or from lack of experience with actual mental testing, or from any combination of these.

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CHAPTER II

STUDYING THE CHILD

EDITORIAL COMMENT

ADAPTATION OF THE SCHOOL PROGRAM to individual differences requires the collection, recording, and interpretation of important facts about each child. All aspects of the child's development must be considered—his general ability, special capacities and interests, physical health and maturity, social maturity and adjustment, mental health, and educational achievement. Information is needed also concerning his past experiences and his present environment. Only as all these types of information are continuously studied and utilized in relation to one another can the education of the whole child proceed most effectively.

Pertinent facts about each child are to be obtained in various ways. Standardized and informal tests of capacity and achievement, health inspections, physical and medical examinations, tests of attitudes and interests, behavior rating scales, controlled observation of the child at work and at play, and conferences with the child and his associates are among the most valuable methods of appraisal. In some schools a large amount of special assistance is available for making such appraisals. In other schools the principals and teachers must do most of the work involved.

The most complete collection of information will contribute little unless pupil records and reports are carefully planned and skilfully used. There should be a complete, cumulative, and permanent record for each child, and these records should be so arranged and administered as to be accessible and intelligible to teachers. Reports to parents should encourage parental cooperation in child guidance.

In this chapter five specialists discuss methods of child study and the significance of data thus obtained. McCloy reviews methods of measuring physical status. Segel lists and describes instruments for discovering the child's general intelligence, school achievement, special capacities, and interests. Strang explains the nature of environmental influences, tells how these may be studied, and mentions social agencies which can assist the school in this field. Olson deals with the child's total personality, stressing principles of behavior, the teacher's plan of guidance, and methods of studying and treating behavior problems. Streitzi decries the frequent misuse of tests and offers suggestions for the improvement of pupil records and reports.

Additional help on the problems of pupil appraisal will be found in the references listed on page 302.—*Editorial Committee.*

THE CHILD'S PHYSICAL CHARACTERISTICS

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IN THE DEAR DEAD DAYS beyond recall (we hope), it was assumed that in physical status all children were potentially equal, that all could and should be equally healthy, and that all should weigh what the age-height-weight tables said they should. We either set as the standard an ideal child that scarcely existed, or assumed that the average child was the most desirable one. With such assumptions, the task of the school physician, nurse, teacher, or school administrator in appraising the physical status of pupils appeared relatively simple. Recent studies, however, have shown the fallaciousness of these notions. We now know that a large proportion of children cannot reach an ideal status because of limitations in their inherited equipment. On the other hand, the average status in most public schools is probably not so high as it should be. In any event it is unreasonable to apply the same standard to all children. We must study the physical characteristics of each individual child in order to help him achieve his optimum physical development and to adapt his educational program to his physical condition and level of development at any particular time.

TYPES OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES IN PHYSICAL QUALIFICATIONS

Rate of maturation—One important way in which children differ is in their relative physical maturation. We are accustomed to measuring maturation in terms of chronological age on the assumption that a fourteen-year-old child is, of necessity, more mature than an eleven-year-old child. Chronological age, however, is an untrustworthy index. Some children mature much more rapidly than the average of all children, while others mature much more slowly. Thus, from the standpoint of anatomical and functional development, one child at eleven may be "older" than another child at fourteen. This type of difference is reflected in the wide range of ages at which children reach the period of puberty, but may be much more accurately studied by means of X-rays of the hands and wrists.

Rate of growth—Another variable factor is the speed with which individuals develop in size. If the growth curves of children from birth to maturity are plotted on the same cross-section paper, it will frequently be seen that individuals who were of approximately the same size at birth and who have grown to the same size at maturity

differed greatly during childhood. An individual may grow very rapidly and attain almost full size by the age of fourteen or fifteen, and then grow very slowly after that. Another may grow at a moderate rate thruout the whole period and, while much smaller than the first child at the age of twelve or fourteen, catch up to him by the age of eighteen or twenty. Still another may develop very slowly until the onset of puberty and then show a tremendous increase in rate of growth. Hence, we find individual differences both in rates of growth and in growth patterns.

It should be noted that growth in size is not the same thing as maturation or aging of the body and its tissues, discussed in the preceding section. The development of the viscera and the general resistance to excessive fatigue are much more closely associated with the maturing of the body than with its size. The difference can perhaps be better visualized if one calls to mind certain very small but mature and well-functioning adults in contrast to the much larger but childish and physiologically immature pre-adolescents whom one has known.

Glandular functioning—The next type of individual difference involves the child's glandular equipment. This is too complex a problem to be discussed at length here, but it is one with which every teacher should be reasonably familiar. References are given below to concise sources of information on the subject.¹ Suffice it to say that children of the same chronological age may differ in size, build, and sexual maturation because of differences in the amount of the hormones present in the blood from the pituitary gland, the thyroid gland, the adrenals, and the sex glands. Differences in the degree of energy, as contrasted with a feeling of chronic fatigue, may result from over-secretion or deficiency in the secretion of the cortex of the adrenal glands. The secretion of the thyroid may produce a nervous, irritable, energetic child or a dull, lethargic one. These are but two examples of a large number of such individual variations, all of which must be taken into consideration.

Quality of tissues—Another set of individual differences is found in the quality of the bodily tissues. To use an analogy, we may purchase shoes for two dollars a pair or for ten dollars a pair. If we get our money's worth in each case, the ten-dollar shoes, unless subjected to undue abuse, will greatly outwear the two-dollar shoes. Similarly, some children inherit two-dollar organs, metaphorically speaking, and some inherit ten-dollar organs. One who inherits a two-dollar heart

¹Hoskins, Roy G. *The Tides of Life: The Endocrine Glands in Bodily Adjustment*. New York: W. W. Norton and Co., 1933. 352 p. McCloy, Charles H. *Appraising Physical Status: Methods and Norms*. University of Iowa Studies in Child Welfare, Vol. 15, No. 2. Iowa City, Iowa: University of Iowa, 1938. Chapter 8.

that wears out at the age of twenty will die of old age at twenty just as surely as the individual with a ten-dollar heart will die of old age at ninety-five. The same is true with respect to other important organs—the kidneys, lungs, blood vessels, etc. Moreover, an individual with an inferior set of organs is apt to be less resistant to disease than the more normal person, as well as less resistant to the strains of fatigue and the general work of the day.

This type of individual difference in quality is extremely hard to discover, and in the usual rather hurried school medical examination it is seldom if ever detected. This difficulty is due not to any lack of competence of the examining physician, but to the fact that medical science has not yet adequately developed this phase of physical evaluation; and even if it had, the five minutes or less usually given to the school examination would be wholly inadequate to supply such knowledge.

Resistance to disease—The next type of individual difference is almost a corollary of the one just mentioned. Differences in resistance to disease, however, depend upon more than the quality of tissues; they are due partly to differences in blood chemistry. Some children are more highly endowed with the antibodies which combat the various types of disease than are others. Some children, for example, contract almost every children's disease that is current at the time; others are never ill. In many cases something can be done about such deficiencies. It is now possible to increase artificially the immunity to diphtheria, scarlet fever, smallpox, and typhoid fever, and in many places this is being done systematically.

Muscular strength—A number of studies have shown that within normal limitations the degree of muscular strength, which varies widely in individuals, is positively related to the general physical condition of the child. This relationship is partly due to the fact that the development of muscular strength is associated with a good program of physical activity, which in itself is valuable in stimulating the various visceral systems to normal development.

Adequate muscular strength is necessary in order to prevent undue fatigue. To illustrate this, let us assume that we are each wearing under our clothing a girdle that weighs from thirty to fifty pounds, and that we wear it from early morning until late at night. Obviously, we shall become greatly fatigued relatively early in the day. The individual whose muscular strength is as low in relation to his own weight as our muscular strength would be in relation to our weight plus this thirty to fifty pounds, becomes fatigued and worn in the same way. This result is partly a matter of the relative efficiency of the

muscles, for a muscle is more efficient in doing its work under a normal or light load than under a heavy load. It is also partly a matter of bodily *resistance* to fatigue, which in turn is affected by the quality of tissues and organs as stated above.

The special senses—Variations in vision follow the usual trend of individual differences and distribute themselves roughly according to the normal curve. Frequencies vary from the majority with approximately normal vision to smaller and smaller numbers as the eye becomes near-sighted or far-sighted. It should be remembered that the moderately far-sighted eye frequently appears normal in the ordinary Snellen-type test.

The distribution of individual differences in hearing is more difficult to assess. The published studies on this subject have been concerned largely with detecting the diminution of hearing acuity. The distribution of cases on the subnormal side resembles the lower half of a normal probability curve. Most of the tests, however, were made under conditions which precluded the measurement of hearing on the desirable or more acute side of the normal with as great a degree of accuracy as was achieved in the measurement of hearing defects. Hence, the published data seem to indicate that hearing is normal or slightly sharper than normal in a large majority of cases and then falls off gradually on the dull side. In any event, it is important for the teacher to be on the lookout for pupils whose vision or hearing is deficient, because nearly every classroom contains some such pupils.

Body build—Children vary with respect to body build in at least two ways. First, they vary from the slender to the stocky, just as horses vary from the slender race horse to the stocky Percheron. The majority are about average in build, and as the departures from the average become more marked in either direction, the children exhibiting them become fewer. These variations in body build make the usual age-height-weight standards of doubtful value. A child of slender build, even tho fatter than the average for those of his own build, may be considered underweight by those standards, while a child of stocky build who is thin or almost emaciated for his build may seem quite normal when judged according to the average for all children of his own age and height.

Structural pattern—A second type of difference in body build is found in the structural pattern. The recent studies of posture have indicated that there are wide innate or hereditary differences in bony structure. For example, the heads of some children are so hafted to the spine as to place more of the weight of the head in front of the joint between head and neck than is true of the average child. This

increases the leverage of gravity and with it the likelihood of habitually poor posture.

The spinal curves of some persons are almost obliterated in the lower back and resemble the curve of a bow from the neck to the hips, much after the fashion of the spinal structure of the higher apes. In others, the three curves of the spine characteristic of the human animal may be somewhat exaggerated but still be normal for those individuals.

We find also that the normal range in the degree of torque or twist of the bones of the thighs and legs is so large as to alter greatly the way in which the foot points when placed on the ground. The normal range for the whole limb is as much as one hundred degrees, altho the average person toes out only about seven degrees from the midline. This is as true of African natives who have never worn shoes as it is of Americans.

Some individuals are born with a foot structure which is less removed from the anthropoid foot, and which is therefore normally flatter as to the arch and shorter as to the length of the tarsal or ankle bones than is the average human foot. In others the arch is higher than average, with a longer set of tarsal bones and a much greater angle of the heel bone as shown by X-rays.

Apparently any of these variations of skeletal structure involving the head, spine, legs, or feet may be normal for the individual and may function quite adequately, or they may be subject to strains and malformations. The chief problem that faces anyone studying the physical status of children is to appraise and treat each child according to *his own norm* as far as present knowledge permits, and not try to force him into the Procrustean bed of an alleged standard for all individuals. Children exhibiting individual differences of these types cannot be treated or judged alike.

MEASUREMENT AND INTERPRETATION OF PHYSICAL STATUS

When we consider the individual differences listed above, it is obvious that the measurement of physical status presents a difficult problem. This is particularly true in the public schools, where usually the number of hours of professional service available per child is entirely inadequate. A medical examination that averages three minutes in length cannot produce the same results that might be obtained from an examination lasting thirty minutes. It is important, therefore, that all agencies that may contribute to an understanding of the child's physical characteristics and needs be brought into play.

The medical examination—The medical examination attempts to discover defects. In this discussion we shall be concerned with the *school*

medical examination—not with the type of examination that is possible where laboratory tests and X-rays may be freely used. In the public school this usually means a physical diagnosis with very little equipment other than a stethoscope and instruments for examining the acuity of vision and hearing. In such an examination the physician looks for *positive signs of disease*, and when such signs are found they are recorded. Even tho no positive signs of disease appear, there may be wide differences in physical status; that is, the quality or functional effectiveness of the tissues may vary greatly. Without the aid of the more effective laboratory procedures the examining physician can contribute little more than an educated guess to the solution of this problem. This educated guess may be no better than that of the mother, the teacher, or the nurse. It is important to recognize this limitation of the typical school medical examination, altho the usefulness of such an examination must not be minimized. Medical examinations should be conducted in the schools at least every other year, with a minimum of ten or fifteen minutes spent per pupil. Where this is not feasible the school system should not delude itself into believing that it is meeting its responsibility by providing an inadequate examination.

In many communities where the schools cannot afford to employ school physicians, the child is sent to his family physician and is required to bring to school a statement about his health from that physician. This procedure has the disadvantage of requiring payment from the family to the physician—a payment that may be very difficult for many poor families—but has the advantage of bringing the child into contact with the family physician at once and insuring a much better follow-up. Usually, however, the tests of eyes, ears, and teeth should be carried on in the schools.

In recent years many standardized methods have been provided for increasing the efficacy of the school medical examination as a means of motivating effective action on the part of the parent. Such methods should be adopted more widely in order that the results of the examination may be of the greatest usefulness to the child.²

Examination of vision—The child's vision is usually tested by means of the Snellen charts. These charts contain letters of various sizes and are usually placed at a distance of twenty feet from the examinee. Generally the results are recorded simply as twenty divided by the distance at which the smallest letters read should be visible. For example, if the smallest letters the child can read at a distance of twenty feet are those that he should be able to read at a distance of

² See: McCloy, Charles H. *Tests and Measurements in Health and Physical Education*. New York: F. S. Crofts and Co., 1939. Chapter 19.

sixty feet, the vision is recorded as 20/60. This method of examination has two drawbacks: (1) cases of moderate far-sightedness, which may cause persistent nervous strain, may still be recorded as normal because of the child's accommodation; and (2) very mild cases of astigmatism may be overlooked, particularly in the slightly far-sighted child. Under schoolroom conditions these drawbacks may be partially overcome by two devices. Much of the astigmatism may be detected by having the child look at the clock charts in which all the lines are equally black, or at adaptations of these charts. If certain lines appear blacker than others, the child is probably astigmatic.

Where vision is less than 20/20, or where astigmatism is apparently present, the child's parents should be advised to consult an oculist. Where the vision is apparently normal, however, the following procedure is recommended: First, place a lens of the power of $+0.75$ diopters in front of the eye. If the child sees as well or better, he is far-sighted. If he does not see as well, have him look thru a lens of -0.75 diopters. If he sees better with this lens, he is probably near-sighted. If he has 20/20 vision and this is made worse by a $+0.75$ diopter lens, he probably has normal vision.

These tests may be made by the school nurse or by any competent classroom teacher. The eyes should be tested separately, with a card held over the eye not being tested and with the chart hung in a good light.

A much more convenient and more effective method of examining the eyes is available thru the use of the Keystone Telebinocular.³ This method is an application of the principle of the stereoscope to eye examination. It gives more information, and more accurate information, about the individual than do the tests which utilize the Snellen charts. The apparatus is relatively expensive but is recommended for schools that can afford it.

Examination of hearing—The most satisfactory method of testing auditory acuity is with the 4-A audiometer. This is an instrument designed to test a large number of children at one time. One such instrument may be passed around among different schools from day to day and thus serve a very large number of children. Any intelligent person may be trained to administer these tests, altho they should not be given by anyone not so trained.

In case an audiometer is not available, the tuning fork test, the acuometer, the watch-ticking test, or the whispering test, in that order,

³ Obtainable from the Keystone View Co., Meadville, Pennsylvania.

may be substituted with decreasing satisfaction. The methods of administering them may be obtained from manuals devoted to this subject.⁴

Examination of the teeth—The teeth are one important potential source of physical disability and should be examined in the schools by competent examiners. In the larger schools these examiners may be dental hygienists, but school nurses may be taught how to make such an examination quite satisfactorily. In small communities unable to afford a school dental examiner, the county dental assistant will frequently undertake the task of examining the children without charge.

Anthropometric measurements—As indicated earlier, the zone between the detectable medical defect and the normal condition is difficult to explore. There are now available, however, certain standards of body measurement which aid in bridging this gap. The methods involved may seem somewhat complex at first, but they are no more so than the methods of preventing reading disability or of diagnosing difficulties in learning arithmetic. These methods of evaluation are divided into several types, each of which is discussed briefly below.

1. *Determination of weight in relation to body build*—As stated above, the ordinary age-height-weight standards are inadequate. To take their place, standards have been prepared which represent rather accurately the normal weight for an individual of a given build. Of the newer standards, those of the American Child Health Association,⁵ those of Pryor and Stolz,⁶ and those of the Iowa Child Welfare Research Station⁷ seem the most valuable. The first two of these are subject to certain errors because of a failure to correct for variations in the child's degree of fatness. The third set of standards assesses normal weight from the sex, age, height, chest girth, width of hips, and width of the left knee. The chest girth and the width of the hips are corrected for varying degrees of fatness. According to the standards proposed, a variation of 4 percent under or 8 percent over the average weight is not looked upon as abnormal, but anything more than 6 percent under or 10 percent over the average should be referred to the physician. For children, of course, the accurate determination of underweight is more important than that of overweight.

2. *Measurement of fat*—A child may be overweight because of an excessive development of the musculature and still be lacking in a normal amount of body fat. Fat may be measured by the fat calipers

⁴ For example: McCloy, Charles H. *Tests and Measurements in Health and Physical Education*. New York: F. S. Crofts and Co., 1939. p. 226-28.

⁵ American Child Health Association. *Nutritional Status Indices: Methods of Obtaining Measures of Musculature, Subcutaneous Tissue, and Weight, With Allowance for Skeletal Build*. New York: the Association, 1935.

⁶ Pryor, Helen B. *Width-Weight Tables*. Stanford University, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1936. 15 p.

⁷ McCloy, Charles H. *Appraising Physical Status: Methods and Norms*. University of Iowa Studies in Child Welfare, Vol. 15, No. 2. Iowa City, Iowa: University of Iowa, 1938. 260 p.

originally devised by the American Child Health Association, and a combination of measurements taken in four places will indicate quite adequately the total amount of subcutaneous fat on the body.⁸

3. *Measurement of limb girth*—Among the most valuable of the simpler measurements of physical status are those of the upper arm, forearm, thigh, and calf. Such measures are compared with norms which have been established from chest girth and elbow width for the arms, and from chest girth and knee width for the legs. The girth of the upper arm alone is almost as valuable as all four measures combined, except in the rather unusual cases of excessive muscular development of the arms. For simplicity, speed, and effectiveness in relation to the time required, the girth of the upper arm would probably be the best single measurement to take.

4. *Measurement of breathing capacity*—A person's breathing capacity is the total amount of air that can be expelled from the lungs after a full inhalation. It does not correlate significantly with the other measurements but adds something very definite to the estimation of physical status. At present, adequate standards are available only for ages from twelve up,⁹ but for each of these ages the norms are computed with reference to sex, height, and weight. Breathing capacity should be measured yearly because the actual capacity at any given time is not so important as changes in relative capacity. Thus, an individual whose breathing capacity was 10 percent above the average last year but is only at the average this year has experienced an alarmingly rapid decrease, and even tho he is now normal as far as the standard is concerned, he should be checked up by a physician. In addition, any child whose breathing capacity is 10 percent below normal should be under suspicion, while one 15 percent below the norm should be carefully examined to discover the cause.

5. *Measurement of bodily strength*—The total relative strength of the body has been found recently to have a rather high correlation with the results of medical examinations. Relative strength is expressed in terms of a quotient usually called the *physical fitness index*, which is simply the total strength of the individual divided by the average strength of a large number of individuals of the same sex, age, and weight. The major hindrance to more widespread testing of strength is that the necessary apparatus costs about \$85. This apparatus may serve several thousand pupils, however. Standards are available for

⁸ The coefficient of correlation between such a combination of measurements and the total amount of fat is +.95.

⁹ See: Kelly, Helen G. *A Study of Individual Differences in Breathing Capacity in Relation to Some Physical Characteristics*. University of Iowa Studies in Child Welfare, Vol. 7, No. 5. Iowa City, Iowa: University of Iowa, 1933. 59 p.

both sexes from the age of ten up.¹⁰ If tests of strength are made, the measurement of limb girths may well be omitted.

Measurements of the type discussed above may be made relatively rapidly. A desirable program of anthropometric measurements, including those for underweight and overweight, under- and over-fatness, limb girths, and breathing capacity, can be carried on by a trained teacher or nurse with three or four student assistants at the rate of about fifteen pupils an hour. Strength tests may be conducted at the rate of about twenty an hour. These anthropometric and strength tests are frequently given by the teacher of physical education and the school nurse, and may well occupy the first few hours in physical education classes. For example, where gymnasium classes have forty pupils each and meet three times a week, the anthropometric measurements can be completed in one or two weeks and the strength tests in the next week or two. The necessary computations will probably occupy the evenings of another week in addition to the evenings of the weeks when the examinations are given. Most of the standards are readily available in tables, and the divisions may be made on a slide rule.

Appraisal of posture—As noted in an earlier section, the examination for posture of the body and feet is not as simple as it was once thought to be. Where appropriately trained teachers are available—usually teachers of physical education—such measurements may be made by them. Where such experts are not available, adequate directions for measuring posture should be consulted.¹¹ In general, the important thing in standing posture is that the child stand erect, with the head, trunk, hips, and legs aligned one above the other and balanced easily. However, since a low hip or a short leg is frequently found, all children should be examined for lateral curvatures as well as for the ordinary proper standing posture. If no teacher in the school is competent to make the examination, it should be made by a physician, preferably an orthopedist.

In examining the foot, the teacher should bear in mind that normally the foot in walking points almost straight ahead, and that the line of the heel and the tendon above the heel is vertical when viewed from behind. The most common defect is a lowering of the inside of the foot with a resulting knock-ankled effect. This is called a "pronation" of the foot and should be treated at once. Treatment and correction are usually

¹⁰ See: McCloy, Charles H. *Tests and Measurements in Health and Physical Education*. New York: F. S. Crofts and Co., 1939. Chapter 4. ¶ Rogers, Frederick R. *Physical Capacity Tests*. New York: A. S. Barnes and Co., 1931. 50 p.

¹¹ See: McCloy, Charles H. *Tests and Measurements in Health and Physical Education*. New York: F. S. Crofts and Co., 1939. Chapter 21. ¶ Howland, Ivalciare S. *The Teaching of Body Mechanics in Elementary and Secondary Schools*. New York: A. S. Barnes and Co., 1936. 203 p.

not difficult. If there is doubt, the best rule is to consult a competent orthopedic physician.

The examination for posture is not a procedure to be used once a year and then forgotten. It should be repeated frequently, primarily as a motivator. Methods for doing this in the schools have been available for many years.¹²

Detection of other difficulties—Occasionally other defects are present and usually their symptoms are readily detected by the observant classroom teacher. For example, the dull, lethargic pupil or the nervous, excitable, fidgety pupil is frequently one who deviates from the metabolic rate. Such individuals should be brought to the attention of the family physician. Their condition is generally caused by a departure from the normal of certain glands of internal secretion—a situation usually beyond the ability of the teacher to diagnose. Teachers who become interested in such problems, however, may well call suspicious cases to the attention of the parents.

There are occasional children who depart so far from the normal for their ages as to be quite conspicuous. If adequate facilities are available, the hands and wrists of these children may be X-rayed and their maturational ages read from the X-rays. This may usually be done rather adequately by any physician who is familiar with the appropriate standards.

Adequacy and significance of physical measures—In the use of all the methods suggested above, there may be various degrees of completeness. The anthropometric measurements will frequently screen out rather rapidly the cases most in need of medical attention. In many school systems, medical examinations are made gradually thruout the year from September to June. Under such an arrangement many of the children most in need of attention may not be discovered until late in the school year. Where the anthropometric and strength tests are utilized by teachers or nurses, however, children who are markedly subnormal physically may readily be called to the attention of the examining physicians early in the year.

In any case, whether medical and anthropometric examinations are superficial or thoro, the results will not be important unless adequately followed up. One study in a large metropolitan center¹³ revealed that a very expensive medical examining scheme was resulting in the correction of only 2 percent of the defects found. Such a situation involves a great waste of money and time as well as of child health.

¹² See: McCloy, Charles H. *Tests and Measurements in Health and Physical Education*. New York: F. S. Crofts and Co., 1939. p. 258-63.

¹³ American Child Health Association, Research Division. *Physical Defects: The Pathway to Correction*. New York: the Association, 1934. 171 p.

In the process of appraisal, some children will be found whose physical characteristics are markedly inconsistent. For example, a child may be very heavily built below the waist and lightly built above it. Such an individual may be found to be overweight, while fat and arm girth may be under the norm. Hence, none of the specific medical or anthropometric tests should be applied slavishly. An examiner should never examine and measure a child objectively without looking at him and evaluating him in the light of common sense and experience as well.

It must be remembered also that the health of some children fluctuates from day to day. Children occasionally become ill and need attention. Hence, in addition to the yearly examinations of physical status, there should be a quick inspection every morning in each classroom. The teacher should be taught to recognize the usual signs of probable disease and to send such children to the proper officer, such as the school nurse, the school physician, or the principal. The teacher can readily learn to note departures from the normal for the individual child; she does not need to attempt a diagnosis.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS FOR THE SCHOOLS

It must be admitted that the available methods for assessing physical status are far ahead of the training of the typical teacher for this function. It is suggested, therefore, that we need first a larger number of teachers especially trained in the administration of anthropometric and strength measurements. Probably most of these will be teachers of physical education or home economics, altho regular classroom teachers also need a background in this field. Adequately trained school nurses can be of great assistance to teachers, but too often they are not available.

It is suggested further that special training be provided for school physicians, first to acquaint them with the standards for children in reasonably good health (since the average practicing physician sees sick children chiefly), and second to acquaint them with the content and usefulness of the anthropometric and strength measurements. In actual practice these tests should precede the medical examination, and the physician should have records of the former at hand when conducting his medical examination.

The best results with any of these devices will accrue only when the teachers using them are experienced in their administration. A little knowledge is sometimes dangerous; hence, interpretations based on any method of assessing the physical status should be cautiously made. Defects that are marked by positive signs of disease, functional defects such as lack of strength, and nutritional defects such as underweight

or lack of fat need different kinds of treatment. An underweight individual who has more than the usual amount of fat but who is greatly deficient in muscular development needs a more strenuous program of physical activity rather than more food. An individual with a low breathing capacity but no medical defects should have different treatment from that given to a person under suspicion of incipient tuberculosis.

The schools need not only to apply measures of physical status but also to do something about the results. Hence, the programs of detection and of remedying defects must be integrated, and adequate administrative facilities must be provided for doing this. The problems in a small rural school will be different from those in a large metropolitan system. The personnel will be different but the principles will be the same. It is hoped that in the near future our skills for such a task will catch up with our methods.

In closing, it may be helpful to list some of the agencies from which additional information may be obtained concerning methods or source materials of value in the appraisal of physical status:

National Tuberculosis Association
American Heart Association
National Society for the Prevention of Blindness
National Committee for Mental Hygiene
American Social Hygiene Association
American Public Health Association
National Organization for Public Health Nursing.

All of the above are located at 50 West 50th Street, New York City.
American Society for the Control of Cancer, 350 Madison Avenue, New York City
American Society for the Hard of Hearing, 1537 35th Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.
Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, 1 Madison Avenue, New York City
Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education of the National Education Association and the American Medical Association (Charles C. Wilson, M.D., Chairman), Board of Education, Hartford, Connecticut
American School Health Association, 3335 Main Street, Buffalo, New York
American Student Health Association, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota
American Medical Association, 535 North Dearborn Street, Chicago, Illinois.

THE CHILD'S CAPACITIES, INTERESTS, AND ACHIEVEMENTS

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MUCH HAS BEEN WRITTEN about the adjustment of the curriculum to the varying capacities of children. As yet, however, practice lags behind the progressive thought of the day. Altho this is partly due to the natural inertia of human beings, it is also due to the fact that the methods of analyzing pupils' abilities and interests are still imperfect, and to the fact that not enough is known about adapting the school curriculum to discoverable abilities and interests. It is the purpose of this article to clarify the present status of the methods of analyzing elementary pupils' capacities, achievements, and interests. Later chapters of the yearbook are concerned with the adjustment of the curriculum to the differences found.

WHAT IS INDIVIDUAL ANALYSIS?

There are two main aspects of the analysis of pupil traits which need to be understood: (1) the essential nature of pupil analysis, and (2) the instrumentation of the process. A term which many people seem to think covers the analysis of the individual is "individual differences." This is a psychological term having a specific meaning, namely, the differences in score or rating between one individual and others in a particular trait. For example, if a class is given a reading test the pupils will ordinarily distribute themselves widely as to score values. The difference in score between any two pupils is called an "individual difference." These are the differences with which the testing programs of our schools have been most concerned. Many pages and large quantities of data are devoted to such differences in the educational psychologies of the day. By persisting in the idea that the analysis of a pupil should be concerned chiefly with how he differs from his fellow pupils, we are impeding our efforts to improve pupil adjustment.

In order to see what kind of analysis is needed, let us turn to the practical situation in which the counselor finds himself. What does he want to know about a pupil? He wants to know the strength of each of the pupil's traits as compared with his other traits. The most important single factor in counseling is a knowledge of those traits in which the individual is strong or weak *relatively*. For example, a certain pupil may be rather poor in all elementary-school subjects, but he is better in arithmetic and mechanical intelligence (or interest)

than in the other fields. Knowledge of the fact that the pupil is low in almost every line—that the “individual difference” analysis shows him to be poorer than other pupils in various traits—is of limited value to the teacher or counselor. But if the counselor also knows that the pupil is better in arithmetic and mechanical intelligence than in other lines, he has a more adequate basis for judging what that pupil's future educational program should be, provided the evident superiority persists over a relatively long period of time. The emphasis for adjustment should be upon an appraisal of the individual's traits one against the other, rather than upon a comparison of his traits with those possessed by his fellows. Both types of information are needed, but in the writer's judgment the major emphasis should be placed upon differences within the individual.¹

What are the effects of these different conceptions of pupil analysis upon the type of testing which is carried on in the schools? Under the “individual difference” type of analysis the tendency is to test as many pupils as possible with the same test or tests. Numerous treatises on individual differences confirm this statement; the mass distribution of scores on individual tests serves as the basis for discussion of the topic. In “individual analysis”² the picture is entirely changed. Emphasis is taken away from mass data on individual tests and placed upon the individual himself. Since a knowledge of the differences within the individual is desired, it is important that a large number of his traits be measured. The unit to be educated is the individual, not the group.

In making an individual analysis the following principles are important:

1. *A large number of measurements should be used.* Some of the traits in which a pupil has particular strengths or weaknesses may be overlooked if only a few measurements are used. Theoretically, there is hardly any limit to the number of measures which should be applied to the pupil. Practically, those should be used which show the greatest promise of giving valid information about the pupil. The measures should be of as great a variety as possible.

2. *The measures used should be applied to the pupil over a period of time.* A series of measures of a trait gives a more accurate picture than a single measure. If a pupil is measured several times over a period of years the accuracy of the total appraisal increases because the chance errors of any one measure are thereby revealed.

3. *A cumulative record of the results should be maintained.* If the two practices outlined above are necessary in any good pupil analysis, it follows that a cumulative record is required for the large number of trait scores that are obtained for each pupil.

¹ While some readers may not agree that one type of information is more important than the other, there can be no doubt that a combination of the two types is more valuable than either one alone. See Chapter I for a general discussion of both types of differences.—*Editorial Committee.*

² This type of analysis has sometimes been called “differential diagnosis,” but the name is not important as long as the process itself is recognized as the important step in analyzing the individual.

HOW MAY CAPACITIES, ACHIEVEMENTS, AND INTERESTS BE MEASURED?

In many areas standardized tests for determining strengths and weaknesses are available. The validity of such measures is presumably given in the test literature. Other indications of ability and achievement are the products of schoolwork, such as written compositions, works of art, and the like. If a product itself cannot be preserved in the record folder, some objective description of it should be recorded. Altho no accurate statement of the validity of such evidence can be given, any weakness in the use of actual pupil products or descriptions of such products for appraisal purposes usually lies not in the objective evidence itself, but in the ability of teachers and counselors to evaluate such evidence.

A brief review of selected measures or types of evidence to be gathered is given below for those areas which seem to the writer to have promise for pupil analysis. As far as the measures cover the various levels of ability in the elementary school, they should ideally be applied at intervals thruout the child's school career in order to make the analysis more accurate.

Intelligence—Most tests of general intelligence are useful in differentiating pupils' verbal ability as contrasted with other types of ability. That is, intelligence tests generally are designed to test the knowledge and use of words and the ability to reason from the basis of verbal descriptions. Another type of intelligence test is the performance test, in which the solutions of the problems presented are not dependent upon verbalization. Intelligence tests are valuable therefore in discovering both the academic or verbal ability of the child and his ability to solve problems which do not involve language.

In a few cases the makers of intelligence tests have attempted to isolate various "unitary" mental traits. In such tests the subdivisions have usually been made on a common-sense basis. These tests are not very well developed as yet, but it seems reasonable to suppose that they will become of great service when the prognostic values of the different traits are known more definitely. So far as the writer knows, the only test attempting to differentiate such "unitary" abilities on the elementary-school level is the *California Test of Mental Maturity*. This test attempts to isolate such traits as (1) memory, (2) manipulation of areas, (3) reasoning, and (4) vocabulary.

The following tests of intelligence are among those which may be used to advantage at the elementary-school level:

California Test of Mental Maturity. (Group test)
Pre-primary Series for Kindergarten-Grade I.
Primary Series for Grades I-III.

Elementary Series for Grades IV-VIII.

California Test Bureau, 3636 Beverly Boulevard, Los Angeles, California.

Detroit Intelligence Tests. (Group test)

Primary Test for Grades II-IV.

Alpha Test for Grades V-IX.

Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Illinois.

Kuhlmann-Anderson Intelligence Tests. (Group test)

Separate tests for first half of Grade I, second half of Grade I, Grade II, Grade III, Grade IV, Grade V, Grade VI, and one test for Grades VII-VIII.

Educational Test Bureau, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

Otis Quick-Scoring Mental Ability Tests. (Group test)

Alpha Test for Grades I-IV (non-verbal).

Beta Test for Grades IV-IX.

World Book Co., Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York.

Revised Stanford-Binet Scales. (Individual test)

Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, Massachusetts.

Cornell-Coxe Performance Ability Scale. (Individual test)

Examination Manual.

World Book Co., Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York.

Test Material.

Ellen Wilson, 1013 North Madison Street, Rome, New York.

Achievement in regular school subjects—One of the most important areas for pupil analysis is that of achievement in the regular work of the school. In some schools it may be difficult to separate "regular" subjects from other activities. However, it makes no difference, as far as measurement for the purpose of pupil adjustment is concerned, what type of curriculum organization is followed. Pupils in all types of elementary schools should gain in information, skills, and ability to reason. Measures of knowledge, skills, and reasoning ability in various fields are indicative of strengths and weaknesses which are important for guidance. A number of test batteries have been evolved in which measures of the several subjects thought to be fundamental in elementary education have been standardized on the same group of children, the group having been nationally selected in some cases.³ Such a battery makes it possible to compare the standings of a pupil in two or more abilities more accurately than in the case of tests which have been standardized independently. Among the standard batteries in the elementary-school field are the following:

Metropolitan Achievement Tests: Revised. Several forms.

Primary I Battery for Grade I. Includes word and phrase recognition, word meaning, and numbers.

Primary II Battery for Grades II-III. Includes reading completion, paragraph reading, vocabulary, arithmetic fundamentals and problems, language, and spelling.

Intermediate Battery for Grades IV-VI and Advanced Battery for Grades VII-VIII. Includes reading, vocabulary, arithmetic fundamentals, arithmetic prob-

³ For a discussion of the difficulties in the use of norms in adjustment work, see: Ruch, Giles M., and Segel, David. *Minimum Essentials of the Individual Inventory in Guidance*. U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Office of Education, Vocational Division, Bulletin No. 202. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1940. 83 p.

lems, English (three parts), literature, history and civics, geography, and spelling.

World Book Co., Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York.

Modern School Achievement Tests. One form.

For Grades IV-VIII. Includes reading (three aspects), arithmetic computation, arithmetic reasoning, spelling, health knowledge, language usage, social studies (two aspects), and elementary science.

Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

New Stanford Achievement Test. Several forms.

Primary Examination for Grades II-III. Includes paragraph meaning, word meaning, arithmetic computation, arithmetic reasoning, and spelling.

Advanced Examination for Grades IV-IX. Includes paragraph meaning, word meaning, arithmetic computation, arithmetic reasoning, spelling, language usage, literature, history and civics, geography, and physiology and hygiene.

World Book Co., Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York.

Progressive Achievement Tests. Several forms.

Primary Battery for Grades I-III. Elementary Battery for Grades IV-VI.

Intermediate Battery for Grades VII-IX. Includes reading vocabulary, reading comprehension, arithmetic reasoning, arithmetic fundamentals, and language.

California Test Bureau, 3636 Beverly Boulevard, Los Angeles, California.

Public School Achievement Tests. Several forms.

Battery A for Grades III-VIII. Includes reading, arithmetic computation, arithmetic reasoning, language usage, and spelling.

Battery B for Grades VI-VIII. Includes grammar, history, and geography.

Battery C for Grades IV-VIII. Includes nature study and health.

Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Illinois.

Unit Scales of Attainment. Several forms.

Primary Battery for Grades I-III. For Grade III includes vocabulary, reading comprehension, problem solving, arithmetic fundamentals, and spelling.

Complete Battery for Grades IV-VIII. Includes reading, arithmetic, spelling, English, literature, history, geography, and elementary science.

Educational Test Bureau, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

Capacity or accomplishment in special fields—In the main, the appraisal of special abilities in the elementary school will be made by means of actual pupil accomplishments in these fields. In most schools the pupils have a chance to exercise their artistic abilities in various subjects, especially the social studies, and in extracurriculum periods thru such activities as making notebooks, building exhibits or models, painting or drawing pictures, acting in plays, making stage sets, reading poetry aloud, singing or playing musical instruments in groups and individually, and constructing furniture or other objects which are useful in the school or home.

Some of this evidence of the artistic and manipulative ability of the child can be preserved in the school. Descriptions of some of the activities and the products thereof can be written by the teacher or counselor and preserved in the cumulative record. If marks are given in extracurriculum activities, these also will indicate potential abilities in such activities.

Accomplishment along these special lines is significantly indicative

of capacity and ability because in many cases the pupils enter the activities of their own accord. Furthermore, superior accomplishment in these activities is certainly not demanded as it might be from bright children in the more formalized classes such as reading and arithmetic. In other words, accomplishment in these areas is likely to be the result of a voluntary or intrinsic drive on the part of the pupil. Under such conditions the measures become very valuable, especially for adjustment purposes.

There are not many standardized objective tests for some of these special abilities. In general, the school must create the opportunity for pupils to develop their talents and then use the resulting performances as evidence of ability. The following tests are among those available:

Art

Tests in Fundamental Abilities of Visual Art. One form.

For Grades III-XII.

California Test Bureau, 3636 Beverly Boulevard, Los Angeles, California.

McAdory Art Test. One form.

For Grades III thru college.

Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

Music

Drake Musical Memory Test. Two forms.

Age eight to adult.

Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Illinois.

Kwalwasser-Dykema Music Tests. One form.

Middle elementary grades to adult. A series of five double-faced phonograph records is used to measure the following elements of musical ability: tonal memory, quality discrimination, intensity discrimination, tone discrimination, rhythm discrimination, pitch discrimination, melodic taste, pitch imagery, and rhythm imagery.

Psychological Corporation, 522 Fifth Avenue, New York City.

Seashore Measures of Musical Talent. One form.

Middle elementary grades to adult. A series of six double-faced phonograph records is used to measure sense of pitch, sense of intensity, sense of time, sense of consonance, tonal memory, and sense of rhythm.

C. H. Stoelting Co., 424 North Homan Avenue, Chicago, Illinois.

Manual Dexterity and Mechanical Ability

Detroit Mechanical Aptitudes Examination. May be used in the seventh and eighth grades. Separate examinations for boys and girls.

Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Illinois.

MacQuarrie Test for Mechanical Ability. May be used in the seventh and eighth grades.

Psychological Corporation, 522 Fifth Avenue, New York City.

Minnesota Paper Form Board Test. For Grades V-VIII. Measures ability to visualize spatial patterns in two dimensions.

Psychological Corporation, 522 Fifth Avenue, New York City.

O'Rourke's Mechanical Aptitude Test: Junior Grade. May be used in the seventh and eighth grades.

Psychological Corporation, 522 Fifth Avenue, New York City.

Interests—The appraisal of children's interests presents a more difficult problem than does the measurement of ability or achievement. Pupils of the elementary-school level often have not had a chance to develop special interests because of their lack of actual experience in or knowledge of various activities. However, as the pupil passes through the grades the possibility of such development increases. Since interest and achievement are closely related, interests may be used as an indicator of possible achievement or capacity in those areas where direct evidence is lacking. For example, in many schools the child might not have a chance to develop his abilities in mechanical lines, but he may be working at home with tools and machines or he may read about mechanical appliances. In such a case the pupil develops an interest. Lacking a good mechanical aptitude test at the elementary-school level, one might bring this interest to light by using an interest questionnaire. However, too much faith should not be put in interest analyses at this school level because changes in the interests of young children can easily occur. Among the questionnaires which can be used in making such analyses are the following:

Interest Analysis Blank. For Grades IV-VI.

Association Press, New York City.

Specific Interest Inventories.

One for boys 10-16 years.

One for girls 10-16 years.

Psychological Corporation, 522 Fifth Avenue, New York City.

A Verbal-Manual Interest Questionnaire. For junior high-school pupils.

J. E. Davies, Adams State Teachers College, Alamosa, Colorado.

Interest Questionnaire for High-School Students. (Boys) For eighth- and ninth-grade boys.

Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

CONCLUSION

Altho we probably have only scratched the surface in developing methods of analyzing pupils' potentialities and accomplishments, the procedures now available represent a considerable advance from older methods of pupil diagnosis and adjustment. Some of these procedures are more economical than others. For example, the use of achievement test batteries and general mental tests is, in general, very valuable for the amount of time and money involved. On the other hand, to observe pupils' reactions in the school, gather evidence here and there outside the school, and interpret these data in anecdotal records is difficult under present crowded conditions in our schools. However, it will be recog-

nized more and more that an accurate diagnosis of pupils' traits is as important a process for the schools as what is ordinarily thought of as instruction. Actually, diagnosis and instruction are complementary parts of the instructional process. Altho there probably always will be counselors to aid in serious behavior cases and in the use of new procedures for studying children, the primary process of pupil adjustment will fall to the teacher's lot.

In order to carry on this adjustment our instruments of diagnosis should, as far as possible, be standardized so that we may be able to interpret correctly the individual scores on such instruments in relation to the group. The writer believes, however, that the comparison of a pupil's potentialities or achievements in several different fields is just as important as a knowledge of his standing in his group on any single trait or composite of traits. This differential type of individual analysis has been neglected in current treatises on the adjustment of children.

EDUCATION as a reconstruction of experience ought to be founded upon an insight into the individual's capacities, interests, and habits. In order that these powers may be correctly interpreted, a knowledge of social conditions is necessary. Specifically speaking, this definition of education means that continuous scientific study of pupil development is essential in order to provide new insight into the psychological aspects of education. New tests and instruments of measurement will make it possible for teachers to gain these new insights. Education, as defined above, means, in addition, that the teacher must utilize findings in the social and natural sciences so that meaningful units of work may be built around present-day problems and activities.—Wrightstone, J. Wayne, *Appraisal of Newer Elementary School Practices*, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938, p. 221. (Quoted by permission of the publishers.)

THE CHILD'S ENVIRONMENTAL BACKGROUND

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PRINCIPALS AND TEACHERS daily recognize the influence exerted on children's behavior by cultural, social, and economic factors. "You give it to her hard," a father told the visiting teacher who had come to discuss his daughter, whom he was trying to force to conform to his old-world standards of propriety. In this case conflict had arisen between the culture of the home and the standards of classmates. In another situation a mother, lacking the social training common in the other children's homes, caused her daughter acute embarrassment by coming to school and talking loudly to the teacher in front of the class. In a third situation a boy in danger of developing tuberculosis was living on a diet consisting largely of tea and bread. Until money could be obtained to buy him adequate food, the education supplied by the school was futile. Many other instances could be cited to illustrate the influence of environmental factors on growing boys and girls.

THE NATURE OF ENVIRONMENTAL INFLUENCES

Cultural trends—Some of these factors, such as technological changes, specialization, urbanization, increasing governmental regulation and control, inequality in distribution of wealth and income, a variety of services for children and for the nation's health, and participation in recreation and the fine arts, permeate society as a whole; they are characteristics of culture in the United States. In part, these widespread modifications of the culture are reflected in the schools. A child who has recently moved from a rural to an urban community, or has changed his residence for financial reasons, or has remained in a residential district that has been invaded by an industrial development, has grave problems of maintaining his status in the new group. Social stratification is represented in many schools by coteries of children of employers and employees, children whose families are on relief and those whose families are in affluent circumstances, and children living on different sides of "the tracks." The speech and language as well as the clothing of children are outward and visible signs of cultural influences.

Children today are profoundly influenced by the radio and cinema and by forms of propaganda which frequently counteract school in-

struction. Adult unemployment has exerted influences of a nature and extent as yet unexplored. A study of the 1486 inhabitants of a village near Vienna who had been unemployed for approximately three years showed great deterioration of health and resistance to disease.¹ Wants and interests had markedly diminished. Even the children's Christmas wishes were frequently expressed in the subjunctive: "If I *could* wish, I *would* like" Thus social forces impinge upon the elementary-school child.

Specific social influences—Other social forces less closely related to major cultural trends likewise exert an influence on children. Pressures are brought to bear upon a child by parents and siblings. Excessive pressure of the school upon the child may result in his withdrawing or in his attempting to gain success in undesirable ways. It is a strain for a younger child to keep up physically and mentally with children who have longer spans of attention and greater endurance and mental alertness. On the other hand, the child who continually plays with less mature children is acquiring habits that may prevent him from establishing his status in his own age group. Culture conflict means a "struggle for status" and is a necessary result of change in the culture situation in which the individual is placed.

None of the factors just mentioned operate singly. They tug at the individual from all sides. Each social group to which he belongs competes for his loyalty and is not consistent in its demands from day to day. A father may encourage his son to fight in self-defense; the mother may favor pacifism at any price; and the school may punish boys who fight. In such an unstable moral world the child is often at a loss as to how to regulate his conduct.

Psychological complexity of environmental factors—A fact frequently overlooked is that the same external circumstances are not perceived in the same way by different children. Individuals vary considerably in their sensitivity to environment.² Similar situations bring out different behavior, depending upon the nature of the child, the meaning of the situation to him, and his momentary condition. Social facts such as dependence upon an adult or friendship with another child usually acquire more psychological significance as the child grows older. Economic deprivation is usually felt most keenly when the adolescent tries to establish his status in his group. The older child may be more keenly aware than the younger child of conflicts between two different cultures impinging upon him. In one mood a child is ready

¹ Bartlett, Frederic C., and others, editors. *The Study of Society: Methods and Problems*. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trubner and Co., 1939. p. 4-5.

² Lewin, Kurt. *A Dynamic Theory of Personality*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1935. p. 7.

to cooperate, while in another mood the same proposal may be rejected by him. The external environment is obviously not identical with the psychological environment of a particular individual.

Accordingly, the various cultural, social, and economic factors must be studied with reference to the total situation, and not in isolation. They must also be studied with reference to their effect on and their meaning for the child, and not merely as objective facts. Knowledge of the bare, poorly heated, overcrowded tenement in which a child lives is not so important as an understanding of the way he feels about his living conditions. Likewise, the number of persons in the family is of far less significance than the friendliness or unfriendliness of the other members toward the child. The real problem in the study of children is to obtain psychologically critical facts, for it is these facts that determine the direction of a child's behavior. Such facts are difficult to obtain because the child himself may not be aware of a particular influence or relationship, and because they cannot be studied apart from the situations in which they operate.

METHODS OF STUDY

Appraising physical aspects of the social framework—The obvious features of the social framework within which a child develops may readily be ascertained by observation, conversation with pupils and parents, and judiciously formulated and tactfully presented questionnaires. The general appearance of the child—his clothing, grooming, cleanliness, and manners—are not unimportant indications of his cultural, social, and economic status. A tour thru the school district permits observation of such indications as "linen on the line" and "the short and simple flannels of the poor." One teacher, as soon as she had received the list of names and addresses of pupils in her new class, spent an afternoon locating their homes and noting the kinds of housing, opportunities for recreation, education, and worship, and pool-rooms, dance halls, saloons, and other subversive influences in the neighborhood. The teacher, school nurse, visiting teacher, district nurse, and relief worker who have opportunities to visit the children's homes can readily obtain information about overcrowding, unsanitary conditions, ugliness, and physical discomforts to which the children are subjected.

Altho appraisal by a home visitor is the more reliable method, questionnaires adroitly presented to children above the fifth grade have been found to elicit fairly accurate information about such objective features of the environment as the number of rooms in the home, the possession of a telephone, radio, bathroom, home library,

auto, and other necessities and conveniences. The Sims scale³ for rating the living quarters is a standardized questionnaire which has proved valuable as a measure of socio-economic level. "Its validity today, however, is somewhat influenced by changes that have occurred in the social significance of the items since the scale was validated. Thus, to have a telephone or a bathroom does not have the same social significance today that it did ten or twenty years ago."⁴

Instead of such direct questions as "How many rooms do you have in your home" the *Burdick Apperception Test*⁵ makes the following type of inquiry: "Name all the rooms in a house or apartment large enough for five people." Thus, from children in Grades V to VIII some of the more intangible qualities relating to home background may be obtained.

Studying specific social and emotional factors—The physical aspects of the social framework are not so important for the understanding of children as are the attitudes and emotional relationships existing within the home and the school. The teacher of the kindergarten or first grade is particularly fortunate in having many contacts with parents and with older brothers and sisters who bring little children to school. Time should be provided for the teacher to make the most of these contacts. Three important items of information—the church affiliation, educational level, and occupational status of both parents—may be easily obtained. The father's occupation is perhaps the best single index of socio-economic background because the size of his income has considerable bearing on the degree of economic security, the social relations, and the educational, recreational, and vocational opportunities available to the child.

By observing the parent and child together, the teacher may obtain evidence of overprotection, indulgence, rigid and severe discipline, excessive affection, lack of affection, overambition for the child, or underestimation of his ability. Conversation with parents and children either alone or together will serve to confirm or correct impressions obtained by observation. In home visits likewise the teacher or nurse may gather valuable information about the child's relationships with his parents and siblings, the parents' relationships with each other, and their ideals and objectives. The importance of such information is stated by Allport as follows:

Since personality is largely a matter of the interception and modification of social conventions, customs, and codes, it is instructive to know to what cultural

³ Sims, Verner M. *Sims Score Card for Socio-Economic Status*. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1927.

⁴ Strang, Ruth. *An Introduction to Child Study*. Revised edition. New York: Macmillan Co., 1938, p. 405.

⁵ Developed in connection with the Character Education Inquiry and published by the Association Press, New York City.

stimuli and models the individual is exposed in the course of his development. Knowledge of this social frame is essential to a full appreciation of his personality. Much of his nature will be found to be essentially a reflection of prevailing standards; but even his departures from these standards presume knowledge regarding them on the part of the investigator. For this reason it is always well to specify the racial, religious, and occupational groups to which a person belongs, as well as all other significant affiliations and memberships. . . . These models the individual may or may not adopt.⁶

The child's social relations in school may be studied by observing him in his associations with classmates and by asking children such questions as, "Whom would you like most to sit next to? With whom do you like to do things when you are just fooling around or when you play games? Tell me the children you like the best." Hardy⁷ found that among children of the same socio-economic level as the majority of their classmates, those who were popular with classmates tended to be superior in physical appearance, athletic ability, freedom from physical defects, and nutritional status. Moreover, such children were not likely to be troublesome in the classroom.

A child's diary of his daily activities will usually supply the teacher with a wealth of detail about social and economic factors. One child's schedule reflected a carefully regulated, child-centered home in which the only home duty performed by the child during a week was cleaning out her bureau drawers on Saturday morning. Trips to museums, concerts, and music lessons offered special cultural opportunities. Another child spent most of her leisure time feeding the pet lamb, doing farm chores for her father, and helping her mother with housework and the preparation of meals. Such information about the way children spend their time is invaluable to the teacher.

The teacher may obtain additional information about children's home backgrounds from the letters which they and their parents write. Some teachers ask children to write personal letters to them as part of the work in written English. Other teachers gain insight into the culture of the child's family from a careful study of their correspondence with parents concerning absence or other matters. The manner of writing, the attitude of the writer, his language, and his concepts are indications of cultural status.

Obtaining the child's interpretation of environmental influences—The meaning of environmental influences to the child is still more difficult to discover. Fortunately, however, the teacher may obtain extremely valuable information of this kind in the course of her daily living and thinking with children. Before school, at recess, during the lunch hour,

⁶ Allport, Gordon W. *Personality, A Psychological Interpretation*. New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1937, p. 371-72.

⁷ Hardy, Martha C. "Social Recognition at the Elementary School Age." *Journal of Social Psychology* 8: 365-84; August 1937.

and after school, children will individually confide in the sympathetic teacher. One child will perhaps reflect the anxiety over continued unemployment in his family and his parents' futile efforts to make ends meet. Such a child may reveal to the teacher his feeling that he is an additional burden. He may even attempt to run away from a home in which he feels there are "too many." Another child may accept his family's being on relief as a matter of course, while still another may show both by words and action that he expects to use government relief as a substitute for honest labor. He says, in effect, "Why should I bother to prepare for any vocation? The government will support me."

Not only in individual conversations, but also thruout the school day, the observing teacher will acquire knowledge of children's attitudes toward their home conditions. In an oral English period a third-grade teacher encouraged the children to relate incidents of interest to them. Many of these "stories" were about their home life and their friends. One child, for example, related an incident which revealed vindictiveness, suspicion, and antisocial attitudes on the part of the parents. Another child told the story of his birthday surprise, which gave unequivocal evidence of the happy family relationships in his home. In the children's written work as well as in their oral discussions the teacher may obtain an understanding of each child's world as he sees it.

Autobiographies ranging from a series of brief statements on family membership, school history, recreation, vocational experiences, and interests to a freely written story of one's life give the teacher pertinent information about each pupil's idea of the factors which have influenced his development. Discussions of characters in books sometimes take a personal turn and lead to a consideration of the problems of individual pupils or problems common to many in the group. Written compositions and other creative work of pupils frequently supply significant leads.

The case-study method—If the child feels a need for help—that is, if he is in some kind of a fix or is worried and perplexed—he is likely to be frank and thoughtful in his cooperation with the teacher or the case worker. The latter, in turn, tries to enter into the psychological environment of the child and makes observations, gives tests, and holds interviews within this field. According to Allport,

... this method is ... the most comprehensive of all, and lies closest to the initial starting point of common sense. It provides a framework within which the psychologist can place all his observations gathered by other methods; it is his final affirmation of the individuality and uniqueness of every personality. It is a completely synthetic method, the only one that is spacious enough to embrace

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all assembled facts. Unskillfully used, it becomes a meaningless chronology, or a confusion of fact and fiction, or guess-work and misinterpretation. Properly used, it is the most revealing method of all.⁸

The method of the casual breakdown—This method of investigation, as described by Plant,⁹ involves case study but with a much more definitely sociological approach. The term "casual breakdown" is used to describe a short and dramatic dislocation of an individual's usual relationships within any given social institution or social pattern. The problems revealed under special stress exist below the surface in ordinary life, waiting for sufficient emotional impetus to lift them into the field of awareness. These problems, when revealed, are studied with reference to the particular setting in which they occur, and are interpreted in the light of pressures in the immediate environment. Thus, truancy is studied in relation to school adjustment, while stealing is studied in relation to school adjustment and also in relation to home and neighborhood conditions. All the findings in regard to the individual are fitted into certain sociological constellations. It is this greater emphasis on the environmental influences incorporated in individual behavior that distinguishes the method of the casual breakdown from the individual-centered case study.

From this brief description of the method, it is obvious that the individual must be studied as close to his usual environment as possible and at a time when his relations with that environment are shown in high relief. These conditions are often provided in the classroom, but unfortunately the typical teacher is not specifically trained to make such a study and her attention is divided among thirty or forty children. In a nontechnical way, however, the teacher employs this method every time she observes a child's unusual behavior and seeks to discover its meaning in the total school situation, including her own relationships with the child.

Recording essential information—Much of the knowledge obtained about the cultural, social, and economic factors influencing children in a particular situation will be put to immediate use for the good of the child without being recorded. In our better schools, however, the old-fashioned register with its meager information as to home address, birthplace, nationality, and occupation of parent is no longer considered adequate. Its place has been taken by a cumulative record card or folder for each child, designed to carry a number of especially significant items in addition to those just mentioned.¹⁰ Such a cumula-

⁸ Allport, Gordon W., *op. cit.*, p. 390.

⁹ Plant, James S. *Personality and the Cultural Pattern*. New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1937. 432 p.

¹⁰ For example, see: Strang, Ruth. *Every Teacher's Record*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1936. 48 p. Also *The Role of the Teacher in Personnel Work*. Revised and enlarged edition. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935. p. 319-20.

tive record is valuable in several ways. If each child's folder is studied periodically, the teacher can interpret and summarize the information and thus see more clearly what further experiences, knowledge, and counsel the school can profitably offer the child. When special difficulties and problems arise, the cumulative record helps to give perspective on the present situation and to prevent the most recent or most striking behavior from usurping the teacher's or principal's attention. It may also stimulate the teacher to study the situations which pupils are facing and to note precisely the ways in which they are meeting these situations.

AGENCIES ASSISTING THE SCHOOL

Social agencies such as Red Cross clinics, child guidance clinics, and health clinics can materially assist the school in discovering and resolving culture conflicts. Their services are intended primarily for the individual child, but hardly less important is the in-service education which they are capable of giving to teachers and principals. Representatives of the school may attend the staff conferences held by these agencies and may suggest adjustments within the school after listening to the evidence presented by other specialists.

A child clinic is in a position to make cogent criticisms of the school, because to the clinic come many problems which the school has created. Among these are pupils who have been promoted by age rather than by achievement, only to bump up against inflexible standards of achievement later in their educational careers; pupils whose culture conflicts have been aggravated rather than resolved by the school; and pupils whose teachers have evoked the worst rather than the best aspects of their natures.

Group work agencies such as the Boy and Girl Scouts, Camp Fire organizations, churches and Sunday schools, Y.W.C.A., Y.M.C.A., and settlement houses make an even more important contribution than do child guidance clinics to this aspect of child development because they offer avenues for social adjustment. Thru clubs and special-interest groups children may learn to get along with others, plan and carry out their ideas, become tolerant of others, develop special talents, build permanent interests, and satisfy their need for adventure, success, and affection. For example, the group worker of a local settlement house may be of the same nationality as several boys with whom the school has been unable to cope. Understanding intimately their culture, this worker may be able to help these boys by arranging suitable activities and by interpreting them to the school and the school to them. Group work agencies have expressed their desire to

cooperate more closely with the school and thus to supplement its social program.

CONCLUSION

The value of studying cultural, social, and economic factors in relation to child development is twofold. First, such study helps us to understand the culture of our people, for the real content and organization of a society can be determined only thru observation of its members. Second, a knowledge of the effects of specific home and school conditions upon the personalities and conduct of growing children supplies the best basis for curriculum revision and for reorganization of methods of instruction and school control. Only on such a basis can a new education be developed which will effectually attack the social evils of "ignorance, neglect, prejudice, ill health, boredom, neuroses, psychoses, delinquencies, and crimes."¹¹

¹¹ Stoddard, George D. "Child Development—A New Approach to Education." *School and Society* 49: 33-38; January 14, 1939.

WHOEVER would guide a child wisely must understand not only the nature of that child, but the setting in which he lives. Wise teachers and principals realize that the school is not the only important environmental influence in personality growth. Much has already happened to the child when he first enters school. Having entered, he seldom spends more than five or six hours a day in the classroom. In school or out, his life is a continuous stream of experiences which inevitably affect his health and his behavior. People like or dislike him; praise, ignore, or punish him; inspire fear or confidence in him; and set him good or bad examples of conduct. No guidance worker can afford to ignore these forces. No program of personality education can succeed unless it deals with the whole child in his total environment.—Editorial Comment in *Personality Adjustment of the Elementary-School Child*, Fifteenth Yearbook, Department of Elementary School Principals, 1936, p. 293.

THE CHILD'S PERSONALITY

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PERSONALITY is an inclusive term which emphasizes the growth and behavior of the child as a whole. For convenience in discussion we sometimes classify characteristics into physical, mental, social, and emotional traits. Actually, however, each attribute is interwoven more or less closely with all others and cannot be properly interpreted apart from the total complex. It thus happens that one must understand the total person to understand how children achieve and behave. The personality of the individual child is intimately connected with his developing structures and functions and the relationships between them. Since the personality is the *whole child in action*, a teacher should be sensitive to all possible influences when she studies or guides a child and should look to all areas for the evaluation of child growth. The emphasis in the following discussion will be on those qualities usually described as social and emotional in character, since other articles in this chapter are devoted to physical and mental growth.

Principles of behavior—A few guiding principles may assist in understanding the many specific children and situations which teachers encounter. First, the personality of each individual child has a past, a present, and a future. To a very considerable extent the child carries his past with him, applies it to the present, and projects it into the future with such modifications as occur in living. Personality, then, tends toward continuity. This continuity implies more than passive reaction to environment; it is a dynamic system which creates and makes for selective awareness of the environment. The stability of personality results in a large amount of resistance to displacement by temporary environmental variations.

Personality develops in a cultural field of forces. The family and other associates are powerful in shaping personality from an early age. The teacher is one of society's instruments for manipulating the cultural field. In her important task as a specialist in interpersonal relations, she commonly utilizes some of the findings of modern social and individual psychology.

When the goal-seeking activities of the child are frustrated, one sees the phenomenon of a child attacking and becoming aggressive toward the frustrating circumstances (teacher, other children, parent, task, etc.), turning in upon himself (escape thru shutting off stimulation), or going out of the field of forces playing upon him (truancy, etc.). The

child may utilize other types of adaptive behavior in striving for externally motivated goals which he cannot attain because of their difficulty or his incapacity. Cheating in connection with examinations and marking systems is a classic classroom illustration.

In rigid (authoritatively imposed) as compared to flexible social situations, one may see evidences of social strain in the formation of competing subgroups, the creation of scapegoats, and the appearance of individual aggression. The roots of the social behavior of a child in school can sometimes be understood best by a study of his position in the social pattern of the community.

Evidences of social conflict are usually readily discovered because of their overt character. The emotional or feeling side is less readily understood because such direct responses as occur are internal. A useful practical concept is that every evidence of social strain carries with it something approaching a "mirror image" in the feelings of the child. Of even greater importance for the teacher is the pleasant feeling-tone accompanying successful social experience and progress toward a goal.

The teacher's viewpoint and general plan—The role of the teacher in human relations may be thought of in terms of major strategy and minor tactics. Major strategy is concerned with ultimate objectives, general policy, and fundamental procedures, while minor tactics consist in the execution of immediate individual adjustments and details. If the major strategy is seriously at fault, problems multiply too rapidly to be handled by minor tactics. Under major strategy would be included the plan of frankly recognizing the impossibility of a fixed curriculum and minimum essentials and accepting the contributions of modern science in regard to individual differences. By such recognition, the fundamental frustration suffered by an immature child faced with an impossible task may to some extent be avoided, and the stimulus to aggressive behavior, attack, withdrawal, or escape may thus be removed. The same point of view also relieves the teacher of a major source of frustration, namely, that of being held professionally accountable for the impossible instructional task of wiping out individual differences. The elimination of school marks and their attendant frustration for child and parent, together with the substitution of a philosophy of growth and a conference on progress, corrects some of the evils created by poor planning. On the other hand, if the teacher assumes attitudes of condemnation, scolding, preaching, threatening, being shocked, making sentimental appeals, and instilling fear, she should first study herself rather than the children.

The solution of social and emotional difficulties in school may well

be viewed as an interesting professional opportunity rather than as a frustration in the attainment of intellectual goals. Even elementary attention to attitude and speech yields large returns in teacher effectiveness in human relations. For example, the superiority of constructive, positive, and approving methods over destructive, negative, and disapproving methods in speaking to children is clearly demonstrable.

Studying specific problems—Assuming that her general planning and attitude are satisfactory, there will still be a sufficient number of problems to challenge the teacher. Problems requiring help or solution are frequently revealed in conflict situations; that is, there is some discrepancy between the way a child behaves and the way his parent, teacher, or associates wish him to behave. The old-fashioned category "discipline" usually ranks first as an area of problems that both new and experienced teachers encounter in the conduct of their professional duties. As scientific study has revealed the deep-seated nature of conflict behavior, teachers have become increasingly aware that problems are seldom solved by authoritarian techniques. Conflict situations arise when the child violates, in some degree, existing social mores in his choice of language, in the relationship he establishes with other children or materials, or in his sex behavior. More subtle types of behavior may escape notice, even tho they are important in the development of personality, because they appear to have no large social significance for the child's associates. Shy, fearful, and withdrawn children may be easy to live with even tho they are not happy living with themselves. Conflicts also arise in the discrepancy between a child's educational achievement and what the parent expects him to achieve. The parent who lacks information or understanding of the roots of achievement in personality may all too readily blame the curriculum, the teacher, the method of teaching, or the child himself.

Since the need for understanding social and emotional problems ordinarily arises in connection with particular children, a case-study approach is usually the most fruitful one for the teacher to adopt. The case approach may be highly informal with a minimum of record keeping, or it may involve comprehensive records and staff consideration in the determination of recommendations. The first step in studying a problem is to be sure that it has been correctly described and properly understood in its various ramifications. The study may not need to go beyond this stage, for it is apparent that time and the normal course of experience are of fundamental value in many instances. If a mother complains that a child is not learning to read as well as he should, it is important to know, first, whether sub-

jective appraisals and objective records actually show any deficiency in terms of his total growth, and second, whether the anxiety of the parent is due primarily to the child's low achievement or whether it is a secondary irritation reflecting some other conflict in home relationships. After the situation has been accurately described, corrective attention may be applied. If a child keeps kicking, pinching, or hitting other children in school, the problem is not primarily to control the kicking by force, but rather to understand what the child is attempting to achieve thru this behavior.

The most obvious technic for the teacher is observation of the conditions under which the particular types of behavior occur, together with interviews to elicit the type of data not amenable to direct observation. If the teacher is in a school which keeps comprehensive, cumulative records, her task is somewhat simplified. If the school does not have records and is unable to supply these on a clinical basis on request, much can still be done. It is probably unfortunate that recourse to nonavailable specialists and records has been urged so strongly at times, because teachers have often been made to feel powerless to take steps by themselves. However, while the teacher may regularly make excursions into fields where she is not an expert, her major field is the supplying of conditions conducive to growth, learning, and the achievement of desirable human relations. The enlargement of her functions also tends to give her some responsibility and competence in the area of parent education and problems of the home and community.

As indicated above, a basic technic in personal relations is the informal "talk contact" or more extensive interview. When a problem requires solution and is well defined in terms of the overt record, the teacher may talk with the child, secure his point of view, his feelings, and his analysis of the problem. Parent conferences also permit the sharing of experience, a discussion of alterable factors, and agreement on a course of action. The initiation of such an interview will be considerably simplified for the teacher if the school has adopted the parent-teacher conference as the chief method of reporting progress to the home. Establishment of rapport is facilitated when the interview is part of a recurring policy. The teacher and parents also have the tonic of successful experience and relationship when contacts are not solely on a grievance basis.

It should be noted that the process of solving a problem has already begun as soon as the teacher contacts the persons concerned. The relief of tension accomplished in this manner may in itself permit the problem to be viewed in the proper perspective.

Giving suitable guidance—Let us assume that the teacher has a fairly adequate conception of a particular behavior problem. How should she proceed to give the proper type of guidance? Since behavior is both personally and socially determined, the teacher may advise that something in the environment be altered or that steps be taken to change the child. Possibly both can be modified to advantage. It is a truism in all guidance work that the more subtle environmental modifications and reeducation technics should accompany and follow attempts to put the child in the best possible physical condition. Since the child functions as a whole, every addition to his total competence makes for added hopefulness with respect to his general behavior. Wherever resources permit, there should be remedial work on physical defects. If they are available, the teacher will naturally use special psychological, psychiatric, or social services. In the absence of special services, the teacher should be ready to do all those things which her common sense and special training justify. A teacher should not hesitate to give her best assistance in matters of food, rest, and hygienic practices when such help will be an advance over what the child would otherwise receive.

In spite of the spectacular accounts of personality change sometimes encountered, the teacher should be content with small gains. Fortunately, the growth of a child is not quickly and easily disturbed by spasmodic efforts in his behalf. It is accomplished by nurturing circumstances over long periods of time. It will be the rule rather than the exception for a problem temporarily solved to recur in the same or a different form. Some of the child's personality characteristics will remain with him thruout his life; others will have a more transient existence.

A teacher will usually have an advantage in the human relations of the classroom if she can develop a fairly consistent philosophy concerning her function and role in the group. Observation gives support to the statement that children seek the types of nurture needed to further their growth processes. The frustration of these seeking tendencies is a frequent source of behavior problems. One of the most certain ways of encouraging goal-directed behavior in school settings is to allow children of appropriate ages to participate in the determination of the experiences they are to have. Ensuing programs reflect the richness and variety of human personality and allow for the nurture of individual aptitude in a framework which provides a common core of social responsibility.

THE USE OF TESTS, REPORTS, AND RECORDS

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A FEW WEEKS AGO the writer overheard a child of seven or eight years of age say to her small companion on the way home from school, "No kids *like* school." Since there are some schools that children like to attend, such a remark reflects unfavorably upon any school whose pupils are uninterested in its program. Why is it that many children who start to school eagerly and with great joy and enthusiasm soon find their questioning spirit becoming dulled, their interest lagging, and their attitudes growing apathetic or rebellious? One reason is that school life often has little or no relation to those aspects of life outside the school which the child knows and has found of value. Abstract subjectmatter, rigid daily programs, formal and inflexible assignments, and curriculum requirements far removed from the normal interests and capacities of individual children have done much to make school a deadly place, where only those who have great perseverance or who are dominated by family pressure are able to achieve some semblance of learning.

The stress placed upon the more routine intellectual aspects of school life to the exclusion or neglect of spontaneous enjoyment, experimentation, and investigation robs the child of many worthwhile educational experiences. Furthermore, disregard of the emotional and affective phases of experience, which are so important in child growth and development, often leads to maladjustments that prevent successful school achievement. It is the obligation of every teacher and principal not only to understand these interferences with school success, but to make possible the development and continuance of such deep and abiding interests that life in school and out of school will continue to be rich and meaningful for all children.

In many schools the needs and interests of the individual child have been generally disregarded in order that the group may reach the "norm" for a particular grade on standardized tests of achievement, or meet the subjectmatter requirements for "passing" to a higher grade each year. This constant emphasis on group achievement at the expense of individual contribution and responsibility is one of the most important causes of the present widespread lack of interest and accomplishment in schoolwork. It is urgent, therefore, that workers in elementary education give more attention to studying and understanding each child as an individual. Some of the available means of carrying on such a study—tests, reports, and records—are discussed here.

Tests—Valuable as standard tests are in revealing various academic and intellectual deficiencies, they are not infallible when it comes to a complete diagnosis of the pupils' ills. Some children are capable of making high scores on such tests but seem unable or unwilling to undertake the work of the school. Yet many school people accept test scores as sufficient indication of a pupil's ability in school. So widespread has been this acceptance that even the layman looks for a test score as evidence that an individual is able to undertake a certain line of work. Anyone familiar with the testing movement knows that ability to make a score on a test is not proof that the individual possesses judgment or even common sense. Schools have erred seriously in placing so much weight upon test results without a corresponding analysis of the test, the pupil, the school situation, and the whole hereditary and environmental background.

Excessive emphasis upon test results is felt by all children in schools where the attention is constantly focused on making high marks, getting ahead, standing at the top of the class, passing to the next grade, and the like. Pressure of this kind, plus the constant urge for speed in carrying out some bit of learning, has done much to make children dislike school. It has frequently produced extreme nervousness and fear in undertaking simple tasks, and in some cases has apparently caused a disintegration of personality. Children need an atmosphere of calm and quiet in which to learn, an atmosphere devoid of haste, pressure, and feelings of failure if a task is not completed within certain time limits. The field of reading has been one of the worst offenders in placing emphasis upon speed at the expense of other factors.

Many schools have been more concerned with pupil achievement than with understanding the pupil and the reasons for his apparent success or failure. Little attention is paid to the child's emotional reactions, with the result that many cases of so-called reading failure are due not to inability to read but to emotional blockings. The writer has had occasion to study a number of children who seemed unable to read. Careful diagnosis revealed that often the mere mention of reading brought forth such evidence of distress on the part of the child that other tactics had to be used. One child with a high IQ and good family background was firmly convinced that he could not read because of the teasings of an older brother whom he adored. Another child about to enter upon reading suddenly began to stutter and to show other definite signs of disturbance both mental and physical. These two cases and many others have seemed to show a lack of learning ability when in reality the causes were much deeper and involved the whole organism.

Overemphasis upon memorization at the expense of deep, creative

thinking is another unfortunate result of accepting test results as final and absolute. In a majority of schools there is little opportunity to think and create. It seems so much more important for classes to meet on schedule, for groups to move when the bell rings, for certain stints to be accomplished by each pupil each day, that there is no opportunity for children to investigate, experiment, and create without hurry.

Reports—As has been pointed out, test results do not always show the exact status of the individual's learning or the causes underlying the numerical ratings assigned him. In like manner, the commonly accepted school report does not tell much about the pupil, his abilities, successes, failures, whether or not he gets along well with others, whether he has definite personality difficulties, and the like. A report stating that the pupil made *A*, *B*, or *C* in certain subjects, or that his work is satisfactory or unsatisfactory, or that he receives a plus or minus for each subject tells practically nothing about his learning ability or the personality traits which later will contribute to or subtract from his success in life.

The usual type of report has three major deficiencies. First, there is no agreement among teachers as to the standard of excellence to be used. What is *A*, *E*, *S*, or *95 percent*? When we make out a pupil's report do we compare his work with that of other members of the class in order to get his rating, or do we compare the pupil's work with the commonly accepted standards determined by so-called experts in the field, or do we compare the pupil's work at this particular date with the work previously done by him? Second, there is no way of interpreting or giving full value to a pupil's marks. For example, one child may achieve the mark of *A* only by putting forth every possible effort, while another child who also receives an *A* may have the advantage of an alert, keen mind or a special aptitude for memorizing. No especially praiseworthy attitudes contribute to the latter's achievement, while only the best attitudes are responsible for the success of the former.

Third, the ordinary report tells nothing about the behavior patterns that accompany the academic learning. Some of the most brilliant students are poorly adjusted emotionally, and some of the slowest students are social problems. The "bad boy" who has failed in preceding grades due to misconduct and who later achieves higher marks because of better adjustment should have more recognition than the letter or the percent indicates. On the other hand, if a brilliant child is a disrupting influence, his high achievement record should be accompanied by an analysis of his poor adjustment to the group.

A considerable improvement over the typical report card is the per-

sonal letter or personal interview which enables parents, teachers, and administrators to work together for the child's greatest good. Such contacts, in the writer's judgment, should not be made at any stated time but should occur when the occasion demands. Reports, then, would not always go to the homes at stated intervals, nor would the parents of all children in the grade necessarily receive letters at the same time. In the kindergarten and first grade a letter might be sent early in October giving the teacher's estimate of the child's adjustment and suggesting ways of helping the child to make a better adjustment at school and at home. In late April or early May another letter might be sent to the parent indicating any improvement in the child's abilities since the fall letter and suggesting a conference between parent and teacher in order to plan for the child's summer experience.

Letters from the second to the sixth grade inclusive might be sent three times a year, and from the seventh and eighth grades four times a year. In all cases the letters should reach the parents long before the term closes in the spring in order that suitable provisions may be made for summer study, camp, travel, or rest. Competitive school marks have no place in these personal reports, and parents, teachers, and children soon come to appreciate the fact that no such marks are given.

A few simple suggestions for the use of the personal letter and interview follow:

1. The school community should be thoroly acquainted with the purpose of the personal letter and interview in order that unwholesome competition and comparison may be avoided.
2. The letter is indeed *personal* and contains the school's professional diagnosis of the pupil. Therefore, its contents must be regarded as strictly confidential.
3. The teacher and the administrator must know *why* the child is not giving evidence of normal growth.
4. The child's achievements should be compared with his previous efforts and not with those of his classmates or older brothers and sisters.
5. Mention should be made of the child's growth—social, physical, and academic.
6. Parental help and cooperation should be solicited.
7. The letter should begin with some encouraging comment and close with some concrete suggestions for further growth and development.

This type of report indicates the growth of the individual as well as his relationship to the group. It emphasizes the pupil's social, civic, and emotional progress as well as his academic growth. Cooperation in the interest of the pupil is sought. The working for grades is reduced or eliminated, and yet ability differences are recognized. Furthermore, such a report tends to discourage the development of inferiority complexes together with resulting behavior problems.

A few letters sent to parents of children at different grade levels are reproduced here to show the extent and variety of such reports.

Four-year-old kindergarten group

At this time the . . . school is sending the first letter to parents for this year. It is our wish that thru these letters we may give you a word picture of your child as we see him (her) at school. We then hope that it will be possible thru the cooperation of home and school to work out a program that will provide for the greatest possible development of the child as an individual and also in his (her) relation to the group. May we ask, too, that you regard this communication as confidential?

Mary has adjusted nicely to the group. We have been most interested in noting the way she has grown from a most dependent child to an independent, self-assured little girl. She plays nicely with the other children, and has expanded her choice of playmates to include the whole group of children rather than just one child. Mary is willing to accept the ideas of other children and offers good suggestions which the children use in their play. She plays actively, but rarely becomes boisterous or over-stimulated. Her motor coordination is good and she climbs, runs, and walks with seeming poise and assurance.

Mary is interested in the variety of materials in the school environment, using the paints, blocks, crayons, and other creative materials with growing skill. She seems to love music and sings, marches, and skips with great satisfaction.

We would say that, in general, Mary is a very sociable little girl, and we shall be interested to watch and guide her future development.

Sixth grade

Tom has been doing very satisfactory work this term. His class preparation has been consistently and conscientiously done. He enjoys his classmates and they appreciate his natural, courteous ways.

At the beginning his arithmetic was done slowly; now he works with more assurance, is more independent, and understands the principles involved. In his social studies, his naturally quiet ways keep him from participating unless called upon. But he is always alert and shows by his written work that he has been absorbing all that is being discussed. His record in social studies is a very good one.

His success in his written composition in English is lessened by his poor spelling. He ought to put more effort into overcoming this difficulty. His style and expression are improving; he has no special difficulties in grammar. He still reads less than the majority of his class. Maybe additional reading would help toward improvement in spelling, as he would be seeing and recognizing correct forms as he reads.

Tom has shown considerable improvement over last year in industrial arts, fine arts, and work in the gymnasium.

Seventh-grade social studies and English

John continues to do excellent and outstanding work in English and social studies. Encourage him, however, to do more extensive reading along fictional lines. He needs the richer and wider experiences that good literature can give him. His natural interest in factual and scientific reading is pronounced and commendable, yet I fear that the more literary phases of his English study will be neglected unless we can awaken a keener and livelier interest in those other fields of narration and romance.

John continues to do good work in social studies. His interest is keen and his contributions are often outstanding. He works with better understanding and prepares his work with greater care. There seems also to be less tension in his work. Real interest and enthusiasm often direct his activities and he seems more free from strain and nervousness. I sincerely hope that this naturalness continues, for a freed personality progresses much faster and has a greater chance to grow.

Records—In our better schools the day is past when class records were merely filed in the principal's or superintendent's office and the

pupil's cumulative record showed only that he had spent time in certain grades and had received certain marks while there. Most schools, however, could learn much from a study of the records kept in a good nursery school. Records should include all available material about each child and should be kept in an individual folder. Not only evidence of academic pursuits but behavior manifestations, the ability to get along with other children, habits regarded as desirable or undesirable, outbursts or evenness of temper, and special likes and dislikes should be carefully noted and the dates of their occurrence carefully recorded. By such means the child's growth may be easily detected.

School records may vary from a copy of the cursory little note sent to parents, to the elaborate records which some of the experimental schools maintain for study and research. Certainly the more information we have about the child, the more successful we are likely to be in providing for his growth and development. Those concerned with the educational progress of children from entrance to nursery school thru the entire elementary-school period are concerned with health and physical development, intellectual development, personality development, and esthetic development. With these major headings the records may be very simple or as extensive as the school facilities permit.

Teachers should help in developing the types of records which the school believes to be desirable. In this way they become sensitive to the values of keeping such records as well as more analytical of pupils' personalities and academic needs. One of the best ways of developing a good esprit de corps in a school faculty is to work cooperatively upon a common problem such as records and reports.

The following is an abbreviated list of items which are generally found on the newer types of school records and which will help to guide the teacher in analyzing and diagnosing each child in her group:

1. *Health and physical development*: reports of the school doctor or the family physician; description of routine health habits such as responsibility for health, habits of cleanliness, and awareness of common precautionary measures; motor coordination with an account of the child's participation in various physical activities such as games, rhythms, and the like; general physical appearance with mention of any outstanding characteristics

2. *Intellectual development*: reports of any intelligence tests given, intellectual habits and attitudes, ability to solve problems, independence and quickness in seeing relationships and differences, background of information, ability to profit from experience, and ability to interpret data; language development, including interest in learning and using new words, size of vocabulary, ability to express thoughts clearly, ability to talk before the group, and speech difficulties

3. *Personality development and social behavior*: reports concerning the presence or absence of emotional strain; attitudes toward others, willingness to participate in activities, interest in securing the cooperation of others, dependence upon social approval, and dependence on adults in various situations; objective attitude toward self; ability to accept failure or encouragement; personal qualities, including sense of humor, dependability, and wholesome outlook on life.

4. *Esthetic development*: reports of interest, ability, and achievement in music, literature, and the graphic and plastic arts.

Another type of record is somewhat like a diary, giving a running account of all that concerns the child. The recording of such an account follows no formal procedure but enables the recorder to include any bit of information which he or she thinks valuable in understanding a particular child. Sometimes a very minor matter gives the clue to some disturbance or explains why a certain child behaves as he does.

Records to be of real value must serve both the school and the parent. They should not be too elaborate but they should contain all pertinent data so as to give as true a picture of the child as it is possible to secure.

Conclusion—The writer believes that low interest and achievement in schools today are due largely to the fact that we depend almost entirely upon words for the teaching of essential facts and relationships. Failure is to be expected when mere words, inadequately backed by experience, are repeated without a real knowledge of their implications. Verbally acquired concepts cannot serve as an effective basis in forming attitudes and clarifying ideas. Too frequently words used daily in the classroom have such obscure meanings that even the pupils use them in conversation they feel insecure because real understanding is absent. This in itself causes tension which may result in lack of interest and dislike of school as a whole. A closer integration of school subjects and activities would provide the superior social and intellectual adjustment of the individual whose efforts are significant to his group and whose self-respect is heightened by the satisfactions of true learning.

It is obvious that elementary schools, generally speaking, must change. School administrators as well as teachers will have to recognize more fully the basic needs of the human organism before real interest and real achievement will be possible. First, the concept of mental hygiene should permeate the school. At present, many adults transfer their own fears and frustrations to the children. Often some minor misbehavior is treated as a moral issue. Children are humiliated, blamed, or punished because of some accident or minor occurrence that the adult does not want repeated. Second, children need the feeling of being adequate members of the group, and the school must provide for appropriate social recognition. Third, there must be opportunity for all to succeed. Not only must the dull child find more satisfaction and success, but the brilliant child must be challenged by more difficult situations. This requires some change in subjectmatter content, but not so much as it demands a decided change in method. When elementary schools generally begin to function in the lives of individual boys and girls, many current educational and social problems will disappear.

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CHAPTER III

COMPREHENSIVE PROGRAMS OF INDIVIDUAL GUIDANCE

EDITORIAL COMMENT

AS EMPHASIZED in the preceding chapter, the school should be concerned with all aspects of the child's development and with all factors affecting his development. An adequate program of pupil guidance, therefore, must include all types of contacts and procedures which contribute to desirable pupil growth and to a better adjustment between the child and his environment. Such a program will utilize the technics of child study discussed in the preceding chapter. It will also undertake to give each child the experiences he needs at each stage of his development.

A guidance program so conceived is not limited to the classroom. Neither is it a group of special services carried on in addition to the regular work of the school. Rather, it is the total program of the school so organized and administered that the needs and progress of the individual pupil are given primary consideration. According to this concept, all members of the school staff must have a part in pupil guidance. Specialists in child health and child psychology are needed, but they can accomplish little without the enthusiastic and intelligent participation of teachers or without careful planning and direction by school administrators. In each school the responsibility for guidance should be centered in the principal so that the various aspects of the program may be properly coordinated.

While individual guidance of some kind is provided in most schools, comprehensive and well-organized guidance programs are relatively rare. This chapter describes such programs in four different communities. In the first article Kavin presents a broad philosophy of guidance and shows how this philosophy is applied in a suburban community of the Middlewest. Fike describes a similar program in a suburban community of the East. Bresnahan outlines the guidance activities in a large city system, stressing the contribution of a central school department of investigation and measurement in facilitating pupil adjustment. In the closing article Perry tells how individual guidance in a system of rural schools promotes physical health, improves personality adjustment, increases scholastic interest and achievement, and fosters special talents.

For further discussion of pupil guidance programs the reader should see the references listed on page 332.—*Editorial Committee.*



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THE GUIDANCE PROGRAM IN A SUBURBAN COMMUNITY
OF THE MIDDLEWEST

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PROBABLY the most crucial field of guidance for the majority of American children lies in the elementary school. This has been little recognized in the past, so that guidance as an organized movement has developed first at the secondary and college levels. There is, however, a rapidly growing recognition of the fact that successful guidance at the secondary-school level must be superimposed upon more fundamental guidance or adjustment programs which reach children in their earlier and more formative years. There is also a recognition that the greatest number of children can be reached during the so-called primary years, since more of them are attending school at that level than in either preschool or later periods. Furthermore, preventive adjustment measures taken during these early years of childhood constitute guidance of a more significant type than do attempts to remedy serious problem situations which have been allowed to develop. Thus it is becoming evident that the logical place to begin organized guidance is the point at which the child enters school—for most children the kindergarten-primary level. The results of research studies indicate that individual differences in the development and "readiness" of children at first-grade entrance are sufficient to require individualization of the school program and to provide a basis for an organized, cumulative guidance program.

While elementary schools have perhaps progressed farther than secondary schools in recognizing and studying individual differences and in meeting the needs of individual children in the classroom, definitely organized programs of guidance at the elementary-school level are still rare. The programs which have been established represent promising beginnings. They have avoided, for the most part, a mistake which weakened many of the early guidance programs at the high-school level, namely, a tendency to establish guidance as a highly specialized and separate department with only a slight relationship to the general school program and activities. Guidance as it is developing in progressive elementary schools is regarded as an integral part of the whole educational program. Workers especially trained for guidance are available as resource specialists, but the classroom teacher is recognized as the key person in the program. Educators are realizing that the mental hygiene of the school will be as good or as bad as the mental health of its teachers, and that only a well-adjusted teacher can help

pupils to develop well-adjusted personalities. The specific function of the guidance program is *the satisfactory mutual adjustment of the school and the individual child*. While specialists have an important contribution to make to this process, its success rests ultimately upon the shoulders of each individual classroom teacher.

Five years ago a guidance program of the type just indicated was organized in the public schools of Glencoe, Illinois. Glencoe is a suburban community north of Chicago with a socio-economic status much above the average. Its school system comprises three elementary schools enrolling approximately 900 children. The guidance program in these schools places its major emphasis at the kindergarten-primary level and attempts the study and adjustment of every child from the day he enters the kindergarten or the first grade. The program has two major aspects: (1) the infusion of guidance, based on mental hygiene principles, into the total school program, and (2) the specific guidance and adjustment of individual pupils. Each of these aspects will be considered in this article.

INFUSING GUIDANCE INTO THE TOTAL SCHOOL PROGRAM

Guidance, as conceived in the Glencoe schools, includes any kind of planned experience or contact with a child for the purpose of leading his development in certain directions. However, it implies personal help that is designed to assist the individual in finding his own direction. It tries to help him discover his own needs, desires, and capacities, and to aid him in deciding what he wants to do and how best to accomplish his purposes. Guidance implies volition in the individual guided; it involves direction but not compulsion. In the guidance of even a very young child we assume some capacity for self-understanding and self-direction on his part; we assume that his powers of self-understanding and self-direction will increase, with wise guidance, as he grows older. From the kindergarten thru the eighth grade our guidance program is organized to help the individual make choices and adjustments for himself.

In this sense all education may be considered guidance. Certainly no important aspect of education can be completely separated from guidance so conceived. In Glencoe we strive for a functional integration of guidance and the curriculum. The needs, interests, and abilities of children, as ascertained by teachers and guidance specialists cooperatively, form the basis upon which meaningful and purposeful learning experiences for children are planned. Thus the *curriculum* evolves. Individual differences in the needs, interests, and abilities of children, as revealed thru participation in the group enterprises of the school,

indicate the nature and amount of guidance needed by individual pupils at various stages of their development. This process determines the *guidance services* of the school.

The curriculum in the Glencoe schools may be defined as *those planned experiences of pupils which effect significant changes in personality and behavior and over which the school exercises major direction or control*. The total environment in which pupils live is recognized as the source of significant learning experiences. The school, therefore, tries to relate the experiences which it provides to those thru which the child is learning at home and in the larger community. Vital contacts between parents and schools are made continuously, and the schools participate in a community council, organized for cooperative community planning and action, in which all community agencies and interest groups are represented.

Thus, guidance is not just a separate service or a department staffed with specialists to whom a child is referred when he presents difficulties. It is concerned with the whole structure and total functioning of the school. It has to do with curriculum, staff morale, teacher load, atmosphere of classes, tensions of pupils and teachers, physical arrangements, and all the other phases of the school program. It is also concerned with the home situations of children.

Obviously, teachers and parents play vital roles in such a guidance program. What, then, is the role of a guidance counselor? How does the "specialist" function in a program where guidance is so broadly conceived? How are his services integrated with the whole school program? In Glencoe the guidance staff consists of a part-time psychologist who serves two days a week as director of the program, an assistant psychologist whose chief functions are to give individual and group tests and to observe children, a reading counselor, and a part-time secretary in charge of individual cumulative records. The primary responsibilities of this staff are as follows:

1. To plan and supervise the gathering of such facts as are essential to the understanding and guidance of each individual child in the school system—facts about his home and family background, developmental history, physical health, capacities, needs, interests, and achievements
2. To make such facts available to teachers and then to help teachers use the facts in solving their own problems in the guidance of children, rather than to relieve teachers of these problems
3. To assume direct responsibilities in the guidance of a child only when the principal and teachers have been unable to solve the child's problems
4. To carry on a continuous program of teacher-parent education in the fields of mental hygiene and guidance or adjustment technics
5. To analyze systematically the facts gathered and the results obtained in the adjustment of pupils, so that the mutual adjustment of school to pupil and of pupil to school may be a continuously evolving process.

GUIDANCE AND ADJUSTMENT OF INDIVIDUAL PUPILS

In guidance we seek not only the immediate school adjustment of the child, but also his ultimate development as a well-adjusted member of society. The needs of the individual child must be met and his capacities developed. To do this we must discover needs and capacities; we must ascertain the individual differences which exist among our pupils. The methods and technics available for these purposes are still far from satisfactory. Those included in the Glencoe program are used with full recognition of their limitations, in the hope that better instruments of measurement and evaluation may constantly evolve.

Gathering and recording essential information—A comprehensive system for recording the individual differences found among pupils has been developed jointly by the teaching and guidance staffs as an essential aspect of the guidance program. A cumulative, permanent, individual record folder for each pupil is the basic unit of the record system. This folder is augmented by several types of special records. The chief sources of data for these records are discussed in the following paragraphs.

1. *Parent-teacher interviews*—Shortly after the child enters school, an interview takes place between the parent and the teacher. The outlines for these interviews were developed by the teachers in cooperation with the guidance staff. Thru this contact the teacher learns and records significant facts about the child's home background and family relationships, his developmental history, his preschool interests and experiences, the problems that he has presented at home, and what his parents hope he may gain from his school experiences. A supplementary interview between parent and teacher takes place at the third-grade level.

Such an interview at the beginning of the child's school life is very valuable in establishing a friendly relation between the school and the home in the interests of the child. It gives the teacher a background for understanding the child and helping him to make his first important adjustments to the school. Ordinarily, if a child develops problems which baffle the school and the parent has to be "sent for," the latter is at once on the defensive and all concerned "get off to a bad start." When a friendly contact between teacher and parent has been routinely made before there are any particular signs of difficulty, tension is much less likely to arise in those cases in which the teacher must make a further approach to the parent because specific problems have arisen in the child's school progress or adjustment. In addition, periodic analyses of the data gathered thru parent-teacher interviews give the school considerable insight into the home backgrounds, parental attitudes,

family situations, and other characteristics of the community as a whole which may be significant for the school program.

2. *Teacher ratings of pupil behavior and personality*—While the child is still in the kindergarten, records of his behavior and personality are begun. Using a series of specially developed scales,¹ the teachers rate all pupils twice a year (in the autumn and again in the spring) in regard to intellectual characteristics, work and study habits, emotional adjustment, social adjustment, and scholastic achievement. Anecdotal or descriptive records of behavior and personality reactions supplement these formal ratings. The ratings comprise a cumulative individual record, two new reports being added each year.

While such ratings are highly subjective, reflecting the attitude of the teacher as well as the reactions of the pupil, the cumulative record of teachers' ratings over a period of years furnishes a valuable indication of whether or not a maladjusted pupil is improving in his school adjustments. At present, especially under the limiting conditions of most school situations, rating scales cannot have the reliability and validity essential for truly scientific measurement of a child's personality and behavior. Nevertheless, these scales have practical values which justify their use in combination with other school procedures and devices. They are especially valuable in helping teachers to observe and understand their pupils, and in selecting those pupils who appear to deviate seriously from their groups and who should be given special study thru more objective methods of examination and appraisal.

3. *Reports to parents*—The pupil records are further augmented by copies of the reports sent to parents three or four times a year. In these reports the teacher indicates the child's progress in terms of growth as an individual personality, growth as a member of the group, and growth in fundamental knowledge and skills. In pursuance of our guidance philosophy, children often are encouraged to evaluate their own behavior and school progress as a part of these reports.

4. *Other sources*—Into the records also go the results of periodic health examinations, intelligence and achievement tests, diagnostic and other special tests. In the individual cases which are especially studied by the guidance staff, much additional material of the case-study type is filed.

The testing program—The major testing program of the Glencoe schools is under the general direction of the guidance staff. First-grade readiness tests are given to the incoming first-grade children; group intelligence tests are generally given to all pupils during the first grade and again during the third grade; and standardized achievement tests

¹ Freeman, Frank N., and Kavin, Ethel. *Teachers' Rating Scales for Pupil Adjustment*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1937. 14 p.

are given at least once a year in grades above the second. Individual intelligence tests and individual diagnostic examinations are given to pupils who present problems, especially to those who appear to have difficulties in learning.

Thru inspection of the chronological age, mental age, intelligence quotient, and readiness test scores of each pupil in the first grade, it is possible to detect any obvious unevenness of development and thus identify those children whose adjustment to the first grade needs careful watching. Marked individual differences in these factors are found in all first-grade classes, even in such a suburban community as Glencoe, where most of the children come from so-called privileged homes. Such differences exist at school entrance and appear to increase with age and experience. When ascertained at the first-grade level, they may be used as one basis for individualizing the school program and adjusting it to each child's needs and capacities. Standardized tests, however, have genuine limitations which should always be recognized and considered in any guidance program.

Guidance services for children with special needs—As teachers gain greater knowledge of mental hygiene principles, they become increasingly able to help their pupils to good adjustment. The usual data gathered in each child's cumulative record are available to the teacher to help her understand the child. However, there are always some boys and girls whose problems the principal and teachers find themselves unable to handle. Such cases are referred to the guidance staff for special services. Special record forms have been developed for this purpose.

Individual studies are made of these children, the scope and intensity of the study depending upon the seriousness and complexity of the case. The guidance staff consults the school physician and nurse, or the family's private physician, in regard to the child's physical condition and needs. In occasional cases of severe personality difficulties, families are advised to consult a psychiatrist for more specialized and intensive help with the child's problems.

The type of help given by the guidance staff is varied. Children in need of special study and treatment are given tests and examinations of various sorts and are carefully observed in classrooms and in various school activities. Conferences are held with their fathers and mothers, and there may be a series of interviews with the child himself. In each case, effort is directed to discovery of the underlying causes of the maladjusted behavior. Detailed records of these case studies are kept in a confidential file in the guidance office, but summarized reports and recommendations designed to lead to better personal and social

adjustment of the child are made to principals and teachers. Suggestions are also given to the parents and sometimes to the pupil himself. In many instances some modification of the child's school program, made possible by a flexible curriculum, provides effective therapy.

Not all personality deviations in children should be subjects for study and treatment. In each case the school asks, "Is the deviation an undesirable one?" If it will handicap the child in his adjustment, in getting satisfaction out of life, or in making his contribution to society, the school seeks to modify the disability, provided it can be partially or completely overcome. Otherwise, individual differences are accepted and efforts are made to adjust the educational process to them. It is obvious that in a democracy functional differences have positive values. The task of education is to discover how varying capacities may ultimately be developed and mobilized for the purpose of satisfying common human needs, and how individual differences can be used to nourish and enrich group experience.

Remedial help for the individual child—For children whose learning problems are not being met satisfactorily in the regular classroom, individual programs of remedial help are furnished. When teachers recommend special help in reading, whether in a remedial group or thru a private tutor, they fill out and send to the guidance office a referral blank designed for this purpose. As soon as the reading counselor receives a referral blank, she consults the cumulative guidance records for all the data gathered regarding the pupil. With his whole school history in mind, the reading counselor begins to observe the child. If his reading difficulties appear to be complicated by emotional and social adjustment problems, a guidance counselor also studies and observes the case.

Diagnostic and remedial procedures follow. In most cases we find it possible to work out solutions for the reading problems of our pupils within the school organization. Often, however, treatment involves case work beyond purely remedial procedures; that is, it includes methods for overcoming emotional problems and for improving social adjustment. Sometimes both home conditions and school conditions are greatly modified in the light of our knowledge of the child after careful study. We strive always to see specific reading difficulties against a background of broader personality and behavior patterns and to treat them accordingly.

MAJOR GOALS OF THE GUIDANCE PROGRAM

In setting up a guidance program a school must formulate ultimate and comprehensive goals as well as more immediate and specific ob-

jectives. The school has an obligation to help every child develop his highest potentialities. This obligation is not limited to the development of such fundamental skills as reading, writing, number calculation, and the like, or to the acquisition of such significant facts and knowledge as have long been regarded a function of the school program. While the school cannot assume responsibility for all aspects of a child's growth, progressive educators recognize that wholesome personality development of children is one of the school's most important objectives. The school shares this responsibility with the home and with other community agencies.

In Glencoe we believe that the foundations of good adjustment for any individual include the following:

1. Physical health
2. The ability to face reality
3. The ability to use intelligence in solving problems
4. Feelings of security (a sense of "belonging")
5. Feelings of adequacy (not feeling "inferior")
6. The integration of discipline and freedom in one's life pattern
7. The ability to understand and cooperate with one's fellows
8. An understanding of one's physical and social environment
9. The establishment of goals in life
10. Abilities for self-expression, for creative living
11. The ability to see oneself objectively and in perspective
12. A constructive philosophy built upon acceptance of eternal change.

It is obvious that any attempt to incorporate such vast objectives into an educational program involves a school in an enormous task. Only slowly, thru the cooperative efforts of home and school and other community agencies, can any community hope to help its young people achieve these goals in the development of well-adjusted personalities. Nevertheless, it is in such a setting that guidance should be viewed. The daily tasks and routine of a school classroom take on significant meanings and even a certain grandeur when seen against a background of ultimate objectives such as these.

These goals of personality development are closely related to subjectmatter goals. The school's efforts to achieve them cannot be separated from its efforts to help children acquire common knowledge, learn fundamental skills, and master certain technics which are regarded as necessary for successful adjustment to the world in which we live. Scholastic objectives and personality objectives must be integrated in any sound guidance program.

THE GUIDANCE PROGRAM IN A SUBURBAN COMMUNITY OF THE EAST

IRENE ALLEN FIKE

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SCARSDALE is an entirely residential community suburban to New York City. Its population, slightly over 12,000, is composed of business and professional people. In the ten-year period from 1926 to 1936 its school population doubled and there are now approximately 2500 pupils in the schools. Over 90 percent of the pupils graduating from the high school in June 1938 continued their school education; over 60 percent went to liberal arts colleges. The character of the community, therefore, requires the public school system to maintain academic standards which meet college entrance requirements. Yet, while the system must conform to community demands as well as to state requirements, it seeks to discover and to help meet the educational, social, and emotional needs of individual children.

In the three elementary schools there are about 1200 pupils. Each school includes a kindergarten and six grades. Each has a special teacher for music, art, physical education, and remedial work, as well as the services of a nurse. Since there are no special classes for atypical children, all adjustments have to be made within the regular groups. The teachers are women of background and culture whose qualifications for their positions are generally very high. Many of them, through courses in mental hygiene, have recently increased their understanding of the child's normal developmental needs.

There is a child study department for the entire system, with a psychologist who spends approximately one day a week in each elementary school. The psychologist plans and supervises the testing program and gives individual Binet tests. She observes and counsels individual pupils. She has conferences with principals, teachers, and parents to guide them in carrying out specific recommendations.

IMPROVING ACADEMIC ADJUSTMENT

Use of standardized tests—The testing program includes standardized group tests of intelligence and achievement. The intelligence tests are administered by the director of child study and are given in the first, third, and sixth grades. The achievement tests, usually administered by the teachers, are given at the end of the year in all six grades and at midyear in the second, third, and fourth grades. Reading only is tested at the end of the first year, but gradually other subjects are added until at the end of the fourth year a complete battery of tests

is used. The results of such tests are carefully recorded on individual cumulative record cards at the end of each testing period. Gains, or losses if there are any, are frequently discussed with individual pupils and with parents.

Pupils transferring from other school systems to ours are given the same tests for placement. Recently a boy entered a third grade from another state. He was large for his age, and tests revealed him to be quite capable in scholastic aptitude but very much below our standard in reading achievement. The remedial teacher and the regular class teacher, with some help from the family, worked together so that the boy was enabled to cover about two years' work in three months. He was then able to engage on an equal footing with his classmates in reading as well as in the other activities of the group. This case amply illustrates the value of such placement tests at the time of entrance from another school system.

Tests for reading readiness are used to supplement the teacher's study of the older kindergarten children in order to determine which ones are ready for advanced work. Since admission to the kindergarten is in September only and is limited to children who are five then or will be five years old by December 31, the entering group always includes some who are sufficiently mature in language development and vocabulary to begin reading. The children thus chosen are allowed to cover the work of the first three years in two years. If their number is not sufficient to form an accelerated group, special provision is made for each child individually.

Children whose progress in reading is not up to standard during the first two years are helped for an hour in the afternoon by their own class teacher. This is feasible because our first and second grades have only a morning session.

Work of the remedial teacher—For the older pupils we have in each elementary school a full-time, trained remedial teacher. To her classroom come children who need help temporarily or permanently in order to maintain their placement in the group to which they are well adjusted physically and socially. It is our opinion that for good social groupings, pupils should not be more than a year or so over-age for the grade. With the additional help of the remedial teacher, most slow pupils are able to proceed with no more than a year's retardation, and frequently not even that much. Some naturally slow pupils need this extra teaching and individual explanation during most of their school careers; others are slow in one subject, such as arithmetic, but quite up to grade in all other subjects. Pupils with real subject disabilities which need diagnostic study and treatment are the particular responsi-

bility of the remedial teacher and she works with such cases individually. In this category was a boy who received a half hour daily of highly specialized training to overcome "mirror reading" difficulties. After two years of such individual training he was able to work in his group with only occasional help.

Other pupils go to the remedial teacher because they have missed work due to long absence. They usually go to the remedial room in groups of five or six and for work periods of fifteen or twenty minutes. When their achievement approximates the level of the class according to the teacher's judgment and the evidence of standard tests, they drop out of the extra-help groups.

In the case of the occasional pupil for whom acceleration seems wise, the remedial teacher again plays an important part by helping him cover material needed in the transition from one group to the other. This is always found necessary in arithmetic. It is essential that an accelerated pupil not "skip" a grade and thereby miss learning fundamental processes, the lack of which may cause him difficulty later. For a large majority of the more capable pupils a program of enrichment is planned in preference to acceleration.

IMPROVING SOCIAL AND EMOTIONAL ADJUSTMENT

Testing, placement, remedial help, acceleration, and enrichment all aid in the academic adjustment of the individual child. More important, however, is the child's all-round development in which he achieves normal emotional adjustment to himself, his family, and the larger group. The remainder of this article is devoted to brief descriptions of case studies illustrating several types of social and emotional difficulties and showing the treatment given by the school in each case.

Meeting the need for security—The feeling of security that comes to one who knows he is loved and wanted in the home is essential to normal emotional development. The lack of this feeling is frequently evident in a child at school, and then it becomes the school's task to fulfil the need. The following case report tells how the school was able to help such a child.

Mary was about eight years old when she entered our school four years ago. Thin, pale, and emaciated, carrying her head so that her chin rested on her chest, she was a pathetic, lonely child. An occasional side glance was all that she bestowed upon anyone who tried to talk to her. Mary had had a most unfortunate background. She had already attended six schools, private as well as public. In presenting her to our school, her mother intimated that Mary was a great disappointment to her parents, and said that she thought the child must be feeble-minded.

It was decided first of all to win Mary's confidence and to make her feel at home regardless of any school accomplishment. To this end the teacher was only

too glad to assume the role of parent substitute. Under this influence of sympathetic love it was fascinating to watch Mary gradually come out of her shell. Other teachers and the principal made it a part of their daily program to speak to Mary and show her little attentions.

Mary's progress was noted in various ways but most encouraging was the improvement in her speech. When she first entered our school, her speech had been so emotionally blocked that she was able to give forth only a few jerky sounds when she did attempt to talk. Meeting her in the hall one day, the writer was amazed and delighted to be called by name and asked to come into the room to see some interesting activity in which Mary was participating. At the end of the school year Mary took a speaking part in a play given by her group for the whole school. Other teachers had protested, "But she will stammer so badly no one will understand. Children will laugh at her." However, Mary's teacher had faith in her and Mary knew it.

Mary's academic work showed unexpected improvement as well. When the reading tests were given, she surprised everyone by making a score near the median of the group.

Overcoming inferiority feelings—Feelings of inferiority also interfere with good emotional adjustment. Perhaps physical handicaps and facial disfigurements create the greatest personality disturbances and present the greatest difficulties to the teacher who would assist the child to adjust successfully to his particular handicap. If a child with a facial malformation is to learn to withstand the inevitable comments of other children and to develop an understanding of himself and of what has led him into a pattern of antisocial behavior, he will need careful guidance and sympathetic understanding from the teacher and the school. The story of John describes our treatment of one such case.

John had a serious facial disfigurement which was a result of an unsuccessful harelip operation. He was keenly aware of it and his feeling of inferiority was manifested by most unruly conduct. He had been difficult when a little boy in the kindergarten, but when about ten years old he broke out into the most uncontrolled behavior and defied all authority. It was necessary to keep him at home for a time under the care of the physician who had always attended him. Upon his return to school it seemed best to give him an entirely new program with a different group of children. Some of his difficulties, such as lack of temper control, were discussed with this new group. Their sympathies were aroused and they were ready to receive him in a spirit of helpfulness. John was surly and rude and rebuffed all advances at first, but little by little he began to respond and to show an interest in the school life.

When John began to show signs of fatigue and strain, the teacher would send him to the nurse's room where he could rest quietly, or she would quickly invent some errand to distract him from the source of his irritation. He was given special duties in his room and was made to feel important and essential to the group. He had shown some talent in art and so was called upon to help the art teacher on many occasions.

At first John and the teacher discussed his conduct daily. The occasions which had resulted in unhappiness were carefully and patiently rehearsed, so that John learned how to meet his problems more successfully and how to make the best of a hard situation. This guidance, necessary even in the most simple of life situations, is helping him to understand himself and to learn that he can take his place in his group and be respected in spite of his unfortunate facial disfigurement.

Helping the timid child—The child with abnormal fears and inhibitions needs special consideration to enable him to attain a healthy outlook on life. It is often difficult to get at the root of such fears even in a young child, but mental hygienists assure us that it is essential to do so because an irrational fear may develop into an anxiety and later in life become a real neurosis. Many children who enter kindergarten are having their first experience outside the home and often it is their first experience with other children. It is not unexpected for such children to show signs of timidity, but they usually adjust after a few weeks. The following report indicates our experience with a child whose fear and timidity persisted far beyond a normal period of adjustment.

Dick was an undersized little fellow with sensitive, delicate features. He cried easily and seemed to show real suffering when his mother left him at school. He tried to become interested and would appear to be happy the first part of the morning; then around eleven he would watch the clock and cry and fret until his mother appeared for him at noon. When the teacher tried to reason with him he only became more upset and cried the harder. Altho his mother never failed to call for him, this fear persisted so that it became a source of disturbance for the whole group as well as a serious matter for Dick in his own adjustment.

Dick's mother was brought in for a conference with the school psychologist, whereupon many of his difficulties came to light. Dick was an only, much-wanted boy in a very sheltered home. The mother, a highly sensitive person, had been overprotective and too anxious ever since Dick's birth. The father wanted a male child who would excel in sports, and the mother feared Dick was going to develop into an artistic type whose interests would be like her own and thus disappointing to the father. Dick had an experience shortly before he entered school which was probably the final contributing factor in his present situation. He had been left alone in a strange home for over an hour, quite by accident, and when finally called for he was hysterical. Since then, fear that he might not be called for had dominated him in any similar situation.

Dick's mother gained insight into her own personality difficulties and was able to see how her overprotectiveness had been handicapping her child in his emotional life. She endeavored to cooperate by making his home experiences more conducive to the development of self-confidence and independence.

Dick's school day was so planned that the last hour would be directed toward some especially absorbing activity. Finally, the day came when he was so busily engaged in his work that it was twelve o'clock and his mother stood beside him before he realized the time. He was delighted with the surprise, and from that time on real gain was seen in his mastering of his fear.

His final triumph came when he informed his mother that he would like to walk home alone. This was a triumph not only for Dick but also for his mother, who fearfully awaited his safe arrival. Dick gradually developed into a leader in his school and while he never excelled in the more competitive athletic games, he was able to take his part creditably in sports.

Solving a behavior problem due to scholastic maladjustment—Many behavior problems are due essentially to lack of interest and challenge in the academic field. Problems of this type are frequently baffling at first because the unacceptable behavior is so difficult to analyze. The following statement describes such a case.

Jane was a bright, attractive child who seemed to spend all her time thinking of ways to annoy and irritate her teacher. She was the ringleader of all disturbances in her group. She kept things constantly stirred up. Her intelligence quotient was above 130. She disliked arithmetic, however, and used all possible means of evading assignments. She also disliked written English and usually refused to do the regular work of the group. If she did do an assignment it was very poorly done and scarcely legible.

Jane's parents were much distressed at the reports from the school and finally came to discuss the whole situation with the principal and the psychologist. After much consideration Jane was placed in the next higher grade against the judgment of her teacher, who rightly contended that the promotion was not an earned one.

Jane had a friend in the higher group whom she admired very much. Jane's remark when told she was to go into that group was quite revealing. She said, "Oh, Sue is in that class. I'd love to be there, only she won't like me any more if she knows the tricks I've been playing."

After a few days in the new group Jane herself asked her parents to plan for extra work for her in arithmetic, as she realized the other children were far ahead of her. This was just what the principal had hoped would happen.

Altho at first Jane seemed inclined to pursue her original behavior, gradually she became ashamed, especially when her friend showed disapproval. Jane soon began to take an interest in her work and to show some pride in accomplishment. At the end of a month her attitude was noticeably changing for the better and her work habits showed decided improvement.

As Jane found the new group more challenging to her intellectual ability, her uncooperative behavior gradually decreased. Her achievement on standardized tests at the end of that school year was slightly above the class median, even in arithmetic. This represented more than two years' gain over her record of the year before.

Attacking a complex problem of social maladjustment—Often, instead of a single disturbance, many difficulties combine to cause a pattern of behavior wholly out of sympathy with children and adults alike. Such a problem presents a need for expert study, analysis, and guidance. The following is an interesting example.

Jim came to us from another state. He was accompanied to his new school by both parents, who insisted on telling the principal in Jim's hearing what a terrible child he was. He had been under the care of a psychiatrist in connection with his former school but the results had been negligible. His antisocial acts had been acclaimed thruout the neighborhood as well as at school. Jim glowered and scowled, indicating that he intended to live up to the reputation that his parents were giving him. He was placed in a primary grade on trial, as it seemed best to omit the customary placement tests.

He made no response to his introduction to the teacher but glared at her and said, "You needn't ask me to do anything because I do not intend to do it." The teacher merely showed him to a seat and went on with the class work. A few minutes later he interrupted her to make the same remark. At the end of a week he was placed in another group better suited to his achievement level. He made no effort to do any work assigned or even to conform to simple requirements which the teacher made.

Jim's parents came to school frequently to discuss the situation and expressed their willingness to do anything the school suggested. Jim's attitude was having an unfavorable reaction on the group, and his reading was so weak that a program was finally worked out whereby he was in school in the morning and had help at home during the short afternoon session. At this time his achievement was three years below his mental age level. Several times Jim's tutor wanted to give him

up, but was persuaded to continue as occasionally she saw a glimpse of the real boy underneath these unruly manifestations.

Gradually Jim's teacher began to win him. He liked animals and had been found to calm down during periods of temper when allowed to fondle the white mice. One day he was asked if he would like one for his own. His face lighted up and he was all smiles; then almost immediately the usual sullen expression returned as he murmured, "She won't let me have it." His mother was telephoned and with some reluctance gave her consent. Jim took the mouse home.

A few days later he invited his teacher to come home with him to see the cage he had built for his pet. Jim's progress was so important that she accepted without hesitation, altho the visit caused her great personal inconvenience. That began a real friendship between Jim and his teacher.

Altho Jim had no desire to go to camp, with the teacher's help he was persuaded to spend the summer there, and upon his return to school in the fall he began to show definite improvement. Jim's parents were encouraged and his father, following our suggestions, planned to spend more time with the boy. Jim was thrilled with the sightseeing trips on which he alone was privileged to enjoy his father's society.

Implications of case studies—These briefly summarized case studies indicate the importance of training in mental hygiene and child psychology for the classroom teacher. Mental hygiene should be a required course in all teacher-training institutions. To the lack of such training in the past, perhaps, can be attributed the error of treating the symptoms—and that usually negatively and with punishment—instead of attempting to discover the causal factors and treat them constructively. In the treatment of problem cases a psychological counselor is powerless to bring about desirable adjustments without the wholehearted and intelligent cooperation of principals, teachers, parents, and others who may come into the picture.

SUMMARY OF THE PROGRAM

Thus the Scarsdale child enters the kindergarten, proceeds thru the six grades, and enters junior high school, meeting various experiences and the usual vicissitudes in his progress. During these years he is aided in making satisfactory adjustments not only by the regular teaching staff with its special provision for art, music, physical education, and health, but also by a remedial teacher and by a child study department with its testing program and diagnostic conferences. Our aim is to be constantly aware of children's scholastic, social, and emotional needs and to be analytical of antisocial behavior in order that each child may have the opportunity for normal growth and development. The attempt to give each child this opportunity calls for great flexibility in placement, treatment, and adjustment. We are limited only by the necessary consideration of the good of the group as a whole in our provisions for the individual child.

GUIDANCE AND ADJUSTMENT IN A LARGE CITY SYSTEM

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IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS of Boston a comprehensive program of guidance and adjustment is carried on to help principals and teachers meet the needs of individual children. This program is based on the belief that all children have some needs in common, and that the satisfactory adjustment of pupils to a graded curriculum built around these common needs is prerequisite to providing for the special abilities and interests of individuals. This fact should be kept in mind as one considers the various phases of the program.

Use of intelligence tests—Prominent in the plan of adjustment is the administration and interpretation of standardized tests of intelligence and achievement. Each year the superintendent of schools, thru the department of investigation and measurement, requires that group intelligence tests be given to all sixth-grade pupils in the city and to pupils in the last grade of each intermediate³ (junior high) and of each eight-grade school. Approximately 21,000 tests are administered annually under this requirement. In addition, about 11,000 tests are given to children in other grades from I thru XII at the special request of principals. The following are the group tests used:

Grade I	<i>Detroit Beginning First-Grade Intelligence Test</i> ¹
	<i>Detroit Advanced First-Grade Intelligence Test</i> ¹
Grades II-III	<i>Detroit Primary Intelligence Test</i> ²
	<i>Kuhlmann-Anderson Intelligence Tests</i> ³
Grades IV-VI	<i>National Intelligence Tests</i> ¹
Grades VII-XII	<i>Terman Group Test of Mental Ability</i> ¹

If a child's intelligence rating on a group test does not seem to be warranted by the quality of his schoolwork, he is tested by the department of investigation and measurement with the *Revised Stanford-Binet Scales*.⁴

To obtain a reasonably adequate basis for pupil placement, the results of intelligence tests are expressed not only in terms of mental age and IQ, but also in terms of mental readiness for the work of a particular grade. The degree of such readiness is referred to as the pupil's success expectancy or achievement possibility. Its computation requires the establishment of a definite "grade age," a standard which progresses from grade to grade and from month to month within each

¹ Published by the World Book Co., Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York.

² Published by the Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Illinois.

³ Published by the Educational Test Bureau, Minneapolis.

⁴ Published by Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston.

grade. For any given grade the "grade age" approximates the normal or average age of unselected pupils in that grade. Hence, if a pupil's mental age is the same as a given grade age, he is expected to do about average work in that grade, other factors being normal. If his mental age is higher or lower than the grade age, he is expected to do better or poorer work than the average, as the case may be. The numerical measure of this expectancy is a percent obtained by dividing the child's mental age by the given grade age.

Suppose, for example, that we wish to find the success expectancy of a pupil with respect to the work of the beginning fifth grade. The formula to be used is as follows:

$$\frac{\text{Pupil's mental age}}{\text{Beginning fifth-grade age}} = \text{Pupil's success expectancy for beginning Grade V}$$

If the pupil's mental age is exactly eleven years and the beginning fifth-grade age is exactly ten years, the pupil's success expectancy for that grade is computed thus:

$$\frac{11 \text{ years}}{10 \text{ years}} = 1.10 \text{ (or 110 percent)}$$

The same pupil's success expectancy for any other grade may be found in like manner by merely substituting the appropriate grade age for the one used above.

The work of each grade is of such difficulty that the pupil whose mental age is equal to the grade age (success expectancy = 100 percent) can be expected to do fairly good work (C+) in that grade. A pupil whose mental age is only 90 percent as high as the grade age should not be expected to do better than low passing work (C-), while one with an expectancy of 125 percent ought to do very superior work (A). The other achievement ratings fall at five-point intervals between these two extremes, as indicated below:

<i>Success expectancy</i>	<i>Probable maximum achievement rating</i>
125 percent.....	A
120 percent.....	A-
115 percent.....	B+
110 percent.....	B
105 percent.....	B-
100 percent.....	C+
95 percent.....	C
90 percent.....	C-

Each of these ratings indicates the highest achievement which seems possible for a pupil having the corresponding percent of success expectancy and working under normal conditions in the grade for which the computation was made. However, since conditions are not always

normal; some deviations from the expected achievement are bound to occur. No measure of mental ability will predict future performance in any field with perfect accuracy. Hence, the value of such measures depends upon the understanding and judgment of the persons who use them.⁵ A program of educational adjustment must take into account also the child's physical condition, attitudes, and emotional stability as well as the quality of instruction and other environmental factors in the school and the home. Likewise, allowance must be made for the limited validity of any intelligence test, especially that of group tests.

Nevertheless, in Boston the interpretation of intelligence test results in terms of possible or probable achievement in particular grades has been of great assistance to teachers in locating problems within their groups. It has helped to dissipate the notion that a high intelligence quotient necessarily forecasts high achievement and that a low quotient portends inevitable failure. It has emphasized the fact that laziness or lack of effort is not often the cause of low attainment. It has revealed the necessity of modifying learning requirements and methods of teaching within each unselected group. It has given the teacher a basis for judging whether or not a pupil is working to the limit of his ability, and has stimulated her to discover the reasons for any differences between his actual achievement and his expected achievement.

To the principal of a school, a knowledge of the mental readiness of each child for a particular grade is what a knowledge of his liquid assets is to the businessman. With this knowledge the principal may efficiently and economically organize his school. He may group his pupils so as to bring about a maximum of individualization with a minimum of added expense. He can thereby eliminate many school problems which are nothing more than defense reactions to academic maladjustment, and thus clear the way for more effectual educational and vocational guidance.

Use of achievement tests—To enable the teacher to diagnose the difficulties of her pupils and to check their progress in different school subjects, standardized achievement tests are employed. Under a requirement of the superintendent an achievement test chosen by the director of investigation and measurement is given in every grade from II thru VIII at the beginning of the school year. Approximately 70,000 tests are given annually under this requirement. The test chosen is usually a diagnostic test in reading or arithmetic, and the results

⁵ The wise administrator or teacher will beware of the dangerous assumption that under a plan of this kind pupils should be given school marks in accordance with predetermined measures of their probable achievements. Such a procedure would nullify the value of these measures for pupil guidance and adjustment.—*Editorial Committee.*

are used by the teacher to plan her work with the individual pupil. In addition, achievement tests in any subject may be requested by school principals at any time during the school year. During the past year approximately 122,000 such tests were distributed at the request of principals.

For the past four years a survey test in reading has been administered at the end of the year to ninth-grade pupils thruout the city. This test has been administered and corrected by students from the Teachers College of the City of Boston. It has been given primarily to assist pupils in their high-school work, and after the results have been assembled the names of all pupils six or more months below grade have been sent to the high schools which these children expected to attend. This has been done to enable the high schools to plan for remedial reading work and to adapt instruction in other subjects to those pupils who have difficulty with printed material.

Individual case work—An important service of the department of investigation and measurement—a service which reaches every school in the system—consists of case work with individual children who present problems. The department has a director and three research assistants, all of whom are trained psychologists with ten or more years of teaching experience. The research assistants give practically full time to individual case studies. The cases are referred for study by members of the board of superintendents, head masters, and principals of schools. Problems involving truancy, misbehavior, retardation, acceleration, reading disability, questionable intelligence rating, or maladjustments of any kind may be referred.

In making a case study, all possible information is secured from the application which is made out by the classroom teacher. This application reports the physical status, personal history, social compatibility, special interests, special abilities, school history, and current school marks of the child. A research assistant then visits the school and administers the *Revised Stanford-Binet Scales*, together with any performance and achievement tests which might contribute significant information about the pupil. She talks with the child concerning his problem and visits the home in order to confer with the parents or guardians. If contacts with other organizations or agencies are desirable she makes them. After careful study of the accumulated data the research assistant formulates conclusions pertinent to the case and offers recommendations for treatment. The case study is then brought before the full staff of the department in conference. A summary of all findings, including test results, data from the home visit, and clinical reports, if any, together with conclusions and recommendations,

is sent to the person by whom the case was referred. There is an annual follow-up by the department of all open cases of the previous years. All cases remain open until adjustment has been accomplished.

A fine spirit of cooperation has developed between the department of educational investigation and measurement and the social and medical agencies of Boston. Many children whose maladjustments were traceable to physical or social problems, as well as a few who showed definite psychotic or neurotic tendencies, have been satisfactorily adjusted thru the cooperation of these agencies.

Some of the cases referred to the department are very simple and concern only the possibility or advisability of promotion for the pupil. Many others, particularly in the intermediate and upper grades, have to do with serious problems which affect not only the child's school adjustment but also his home and community adjustment. According to the reports of head masters and principals of schools, however, over 80 percent of the more than 1500 cases referred during the year 1937-38 had been satisfactorily adjusted by January 1939.

Meeting needs of immature entrants—Many maladjustments are the result of too early entrance to school. The experience of the department of investigation and measurement justifies the conclusion that the child who enters Grade I before he is mentally five years and six months of age, or before his physical growth and background of experience are equivalent to those of a normal child of five years and six months, will be handicapped thruout his school career. While many immature entrants survive without actual retardation until they reach Grade III or IV, indications of maladjustment and future failure are apparent even in Grade I. To counteract these unfortunate effects of early entrance, several important steps have already been taken. The Boston School Committee has recently made a chronological age of at least four years and six months on September 1 a requirement for entrance to kindergarten. In most of our schools the principals call for individual studies of all kindergarten children whose readiness for the work of Grade I is questioned by the kindergarten teacher. Many hundreds of these children have been individually tested each year, and entrance to Grade I has been denied those whose mental ages, physical development, or emotional conditions indicate lack of readiness for the work of the grade. Plans are progressing for the establishment of pre-primary classes for immature children.

Treating special difficulties in reading—To care for children whose reading difficulties cannot be adequately handled by ordinary classroom methods, there are five remedial reading centers in Boston. Children whose reading achievements on a standardized test are more than a

year below grade may be referred by the teacher to the department of investigation and measurement as possible candidates for a reading center. These children are tested by the department with other standardized reading tests and with the *Revised Stanford-Binet Scales*. They are often referred to the department of hygiene for examination in such fields as vision, hearing, nervous stability, muscular control, and nutrition. An attempt is made to correct any physical defect before further investigation is made of the reading situation. If there is no physical hindrance, any child who is reading more than a year below his mental-age grade is referred to a reading center. Children who attend such a center receive private tutoring two or more sessions each week. They are periodically tested for reading progress and remain in attendance at the center until they are brought up to their capacities in reading.

Special classes for superior and retarded children—In three elementary districts and one intermediate district are rapid advancement classes in which superior children complete the work of three grades in two years. In the elementary schools the children are chosen for acceleration on the basis of their scores on group intelligence tests and reading tests. Only those whose computed achievement possibilities indicate ability to do work of *B* quality or better thruout the two-year period are recommended for trial. In doubtful cases a check is made with the Stanford-Binet test. In the intermediate school, candidates for the rapid advancement class are chosen on the basis of group intelligence test scores and past achievement.

Special classes are maintained also for those pupils who are mentally more than two years retarded. These pupils are chosen, after an interview by the director of special classes or her representative, on the basis of their ratings on the Stanford-Binet test and other tests of performance.

Other provisions—Beyond the elementary school there are many differentiated courses of study and many specialized schools. Careful guidance is necessary in order that a wise selection may be made by each pupil in his progress from Grade VI thru high school. Teachers who act as counselors in intermediate schools and members of the vocational guidance department who counsel in high schools constantly refer to test results. Many individual studies are made, and often tests of mechanical aptitude are given to aid in the selection of a course or school. While there is flexibility which permits a change of school or course from Grade VII thru Grade XI, a definite standard of attainment within the course is required in passing from grade to grade in the Boston schools.

INDIVIDUAL GUIDANCE IN A RURAL SCHOOL SYSTEM

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SO FAR THIS CHAPTER has dealt only with guidance programs in city school systems. This article describes such a program in a rural school system, that of Adams Township in Lucas County, Ohio. With the city of Toledo as the county seat, the rural schools of Lucas County are probably in a better position to obtain certain specialized services than are those farther removed from metropolitan centers. Nevertheless, it is believed that the following description will have suggestive value for rural schools in general. The program in Adams Township will be presented under the following heads: (1) promoting physical health, (2) improving personality adjustment, (3) increasing scholastic interest and achievement, and (4) fostering special talents.

Promoting physical health—The five schools of this township are fortunate in having a capable and conscientious nurse assigned to them by the county health department. Every year this nurse, with the help of the teachers, undertakes to examine all the thousand or so school children in the township. The children's heights and weights are recorded and special note is made of those who appear to be underweight or whose tonsils, teeth, or eyes need attention. These findings are followed up by the nurse, the classroom teachers, the school principals, and the supervising principal of the system. The nurse visits the homes or sends notices calling the parents' attention to their children's physical needs. The teachers, especially in cases of children who are not "making the grade" in any respect, repeatedly notify the parents that physical defects may be causing the scholastic difficulties. The school principals and the supervising principal discuss the matter with mothers at club meetings and at parent-teacher meetings.

When parents report to the nurse during her visit to the home that they are unable to buy glasses or to have children's teeth attended to, the respective parent-teacher associations or the Women's Auxiliary of the township are called upon for help. In such cases these organizations have invariably paid for the glasses and for the necessary dental work, the latter being arranged for at low cost by the nurse. Whenever necessary, the nurse has also been able to arrange for free tonsil and adenoid removals at the county hospital.

Since it takes some time to make formal physical examinations of all the children, the principals and teachers do not wait until these have been made but are constantly on the watch for obvious defects such as near-sightedness and mouth-breathing in the classroom. The

supervising principal visits every class at least once a week and makes a point of looking for these two handicaps. It is understood that whenever a teacher suspects either of these defects, she is to ask the nurse to call and investigate the case.

In addition to the nurse's examination, the county physician every year examines the first and fifth grades for defects that are more serious and less obvious than underweight. To all children whose parents give their consent, he also gives the Schick test followed by immunization against diphtheria, vaccination against smallpox, and the Mantoux test for discovering the presence of the tubercle bacillus. If the Mantoux test is found positive, parents are urged to have X-ray pictures taken. Those who can afford it have this done by their own physicians; those who are destitute are attended to by the county hospital clinic; and those who can afford a little but not much are helped by money from the sale of Christmas seals. In every case the X-ray pictures are made by qualified specialists who cooperate with the county physician.

The schools themselves contribute significantly to the care of children with physical deficiencies. Each school tries to discover thru the nurse and the attendance officer just which children should receive free lunches or free milk, or both. Such food is paid for by the school's own fund or by the parent-teacher association. Also, the township board of education employs a bedside teacher for children whose disabilities prevent their attending school. The pupils of this teacher have included an epileptic, a heart case, a crippled child, and an arrested case of tuberculosis. Being adjacent to Toledo, the township has sent pupils to the Feilbach School for Crippled Children and to the sight-saving class in the Lincoln School of that city. Tuition for these children is paid by the township board of education.

Improving personality adjustment—Personality maladjustments in children are often apparent to teachers and parents but the underlying causes are sometimes difficult to discover. In trying to locate and remove or counteract these causes the township schools have received much help from the Child and Family Agency of Toledo, specifically from the staff psychologist of that organization. If a child is frequently sullen and uncommunicative, repeatedly hands in blank papers, is a habitual liar or thief, or is nervous and uncontrolled to the point of interfering with normal class progress, he is referred to this specialist for examination. The school sends as much information as it can obtain concerning the youngster's physical, emotional, moral, and mental make-up to the psychologist in advance of the interview, and urges that a parent go with the child to the conference. The purpose of requesting the parent's presence is to present as complete a view as pos-

sible of the child and his background. After the interview and the tests, the school receives a report of the psychologist's findings and recommendations. Below are some excerpts from such a report on R.H., a nine-year-old boy with a mental age of 8-6 and an IQ of 94. This child had been tested by the *Revised Stanford-Binet Scales*,¹ the *Woodworth-Mathews Personal Data Sheet*,² and the *Monroe Silent Reading Test*.³

Mrs. H. (R's mother) said that she felt R. was an unusually nervous boy; that she had been trying to help him with his arithmetic at home; and that sometimes he appeared unable to remember things which he knew very well, particularly when he was being pressed for an answer. He had been accused of having some sexual contacts with a little girl in the neighborhood about a year ago. While Mrs. H. doubts that anything actually happened between the children, she feels that R. has been disturbed because of the suspicion with which he was regarded at that time. She also said that he was frequently enuretic, erratic in his food habits, and apparently very dependent on her for attention. . . .

While we (the psychologist) were able to have him under observation for only a short time, we feel that this boy is laboring under a definite emotional difficulty which is intimately connected with a fear that his sexual experience has somehow made him unworthy for association with adults. This is a serious matter, as such an attitude, if allowed to go unchecked, may result in deep-seated neurotic attitudes and symptoms which will be very difficult to eradicate in later life. We cannot say that there is a direct connection between his feelings of inadequacy and his failure in school, but there is a strong probability that such a connection would be discovered over an extended period of observation.

The health history is negative and the intelligence is normal. We did not test his vision and do not know to what extent this is a factor in his reading difficulty. We have two suggestions for treatment thru the school. The first is that his arithmetic teacher help him to discover what to do in problems involving concrete situations. For such a boy, dealing with things which can be felt and seen is always easier than dealing with abstractions. The second suggestion is that a special effort be made to bring him into contact with girls thru supervised activities to which there can be no moral objection. We would appreciate further knowledge of the depth and breadth of the suspicion which has been directed against him in the neighborhood.

We have requested Mrs. H. to bring him in again in June if he is not making a better adjustment. We have also suggested that she keep in close contact with the teacher about any help which she gives him at home, in order to correlate her lessons with those given in school and to keep from confusing him by getting ahead of the work being done by the other children. The opportunity offered the teacher thru these interviews should help her in calming Mrs. H.'s over-anxiety about her son. If the teacher feels that his mother is putting undue pressure upon him, the situation can then be dealt with directly.

The examiner feels that this boy would benefit from a chance to discuss his problems, particularly his attitude toward his parents and toward other adults, with a responsible person who will be able to give him understanding and to accept his feelings without making him feel more guilty or more suspicious.

During the past three years our schools have sent at least ten children to this psychologist. One of these, he advised, should not be retained in a public school, and the child is now in a class in a private

¹ Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston.

² C. H. Stoelting Co., Chicago.

³ Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Illinois.

home under the guidance of a former public school teacher who is specializing in the care of exceptional children. Four of the other boys, of whom R.H. is one, have been successful in their schoolwork and have made very noticeable and satisfying improvements in cooperating with their teachers and classmates. Two children have been examined too recently to report on. In all cases the school has obtained a better understanding of the reasons underlying the maladjustment and is thus better able to help the boy or girl.

In addition to giving special attention to the troublesome child the schools try to bring about a better social adjustment of the child who is too shy and retiring. All classes thruout the grades are required to have "gym" periods totaling at least ninety minutes a week, besides the twenty-minute period of supervised play at noon each day. In all these periods the boys and the girls play team games together for a part of the time. No child is excluded or excused except on written request by a parent. The teacher is instructed to see that the shy child is given his share of responsibility as leader of a team.

Class parties, picnics, and trips to points of interest are frequently arranged. One teacher unobtrusively managed to have three girls who were planning to ride their bicycles to a picnic include a fourth rider in their group. This fourth girl had been almost speechlessly shy all year. She told her teacher later, without being asked, that she had had lots of fun at the picnic. Another teacher reported that a certain very shy boy had been the "life of the party" at his eighth-grade class party. Parents are urged to attend these parties, especially those parents who have usually refused their children permission to go on picnics or trips.

Increasing scholastic interest and achievement—Standardized achievement tests are given each year in Grades II thru VIII. In Grades II and III we use the Primary Battery of the *Metropolitan Achievement Tests*;⁴ in Grades IV, V, and VI, the Intermediate Battery (complete) of the same tests; and in Grades VII and VIII, the *New Stanford Achievement Test*,⁴ Advanced Examination. The test results are studied by the teachers and discussed with the individual pupils so that the latter may themselves be given an incentive to correct specific weaknesses. One eighth-grade boy, whose general performance on the test he took in October placed him at the fourth-grade level in achievement, was so disturbed by the discovery that in May, when he took a different form of the same test, he placed at the eighth-grade level, an improvement of four grades in one year. In addition to this emphasis on the performances of individual pupils, the test results in general are

⁴ World Book Co., Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York.

studied and one or two weaknesses found thruout the township are especially recommended for attack.

Only the cover of each child's test booklet is preserved, the remainder being destroyed after essential records have been made. The test results are recorded not only on the class record sheets but also on each child's cumulative record card. The latter is a large, durable cardboard folder with appropriate printed rules and headings.⁵ Inside the folder the child's achievement-test covers and his yearly register sheets accumulate from year to year, and on the folder itself the whole cumulative picture of his school life and the conditions affecting it are recorded.

Because low interest in school subjects is often due to reading difficulties, the teachers are urged to use, in addition to the achievement survey tests mentioned above, a series of diagnostic reading tests⁶ in connection with their class reading of *My Weekly Reader*⁶ or *Current Events*.⁶ These tests show the child's grade level in reading as well as his specific reading difficulties. For pupils whose reading abilities are above or below their actual grade levels, three types of supplementary reading materials are available: (1) sets of supplementary books for group work, (2) individual copies of many books of widely varying content and difficulty, and (3) regular public library books furnished by the Lucas County Library. One school has a branch of this library located in the building, and the others are served by the traveling book-mobile every two weeks. Teachers who have several pupils of low reading ability often arrange a program—perhaps every Friday afternoon—to which another class or an adult visitor is invited. At these programs the slow readers read stories which they personally have selected from books of their own choice and which they have studied during the week.

To provide for high interest and achievement, courses of study are laid out and textbooks are selected with the intention of providing ample material for optional achievements. There are certain minimum requirements, such as mastery of the multiplication facts thru the 9's by the end of the third grade, but there is scarcely any limit to what a gifted child may accomplish in regard to the number or difficulty of books read, poems memorized or composed, drawings made, or materials prepared for a geography notebook. Some third-graders can and do use the *World Book* to "look it up." One second-grade group took a trip from New York to Los Angeles via their notebooks. Four seventh-graders wrote their own versions of *The Legend of Sleepy Hollow* in verse. Some fourth-graders initiated a hobby show in which their whole school eventually participated before the Mothers' Club.

⁵ Form 29, Miami Valley Publishing Co., Osborn, Ohio.

⁶American Education Press, Columbus, Ohio.

Fostering special talents—Every year each class in the township takes part in some program, usually at Christmas or Easter, to be presented before the general public. These programs rarely fail to “bring out” several children in each school. In one class a boy who had been comparatively unnoticed became the hit of the show as a scared and stuttering cowhand. In another class a boy who had been almost unbearably uncontrolled was discovered to have very good singing ability and remarkable poise while singing. In a third group the singing of a cantata was done so well that the participants became the nucleus of a group which represented the township in a county music program at the University of Toledo. These and many other instances show that such activities as plays, operettas, skits, and rhythm bands are valuable in discovering special abilities in individual children. In all school and public programs the teachers are expected to discover and to use any special entertainment ability a child has. These abilities are to be incorporated in the show, whether originally called for or not.

Children who show special art ability are given extra lessons once a week. They are the ones who create stage scenery and make little theaters and puppets for puppet shows, posters for school events, and place-cards and favors for parties. Frequently these children are outstanding in other abilities also, but sometimes art is the *one ability*. What a personality-saver it is then! Here is a boy in the sixth grade, who is sixteen years old, oversize, and seemingly dull, but who draws beautifully, as tho he were seeing fairy tales. Here is another, heart-rendingly painstaking but unsuccessful in arithmetic, who makes prize-winning poppy posters.

Classroom duties, such as care of the reading table, bulletin boards, classroom decorations, aquariums, plants, class newspapers, bell-ringing, getting the mail, blackboards—all these are delegated in succession to all children in each class. All these jobs contribute a feeling of importance to the doers. So it is also with school duties, such as safety council work, messenger duties, and monitor duty. Basketball clubs and scout troops also bring out special abilities and achievements.

To help the bud to blossom, our schools give as much publicity as possible to the special achievements of children. Outstanding original stories or poems are not only posted on class bulletin boards but are also sent to the township newspaper. The best pieces of art work and the best class newspapers are kept for exhibit at the county fair. Photographs of the casts in the skits or programs are published in the *Toledo Blade*. Such publicity, we believe, helps to build confidence in the youngsters and acts as a powerful incentive to further effort and success.

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CHAPTER IV

MEETING INDIVIDUAL NEEDS IN HETEROGENEOUS CLASSES

EDITORIAL COMMENT

THE TRADITIONAL METHOD of classifying pupils has been to group them roughly into grades according to chronological age and academic achievement. The difficulty of meeting the wide range of pupil abilities and needs in each grade under this plan has led many schools to experiment with ability grouping and with special classes for atypical children. Most schools, however, have too few pupils to permit the formation of two or more sections of a grade under different teachers. Moreover, many school systems are unable to provide the equipment and special teachers needed for certain types of special classes. In such situations each regular teacher must make special efforts to meet the varied needs of her pupils thru grouping within the classroom, differentiated assignments, individualized instruction, and class projects to which each child may contribute according to his abilities and interests.

This chapter focuses attention on the problems and technics of meeting a wide variety of pupil needs within a single class group. Whereas the subsequent chapters deal with various kinds of atypical children only, this one is concerned with the guidance of typical as well as atypical children in heterogeneous classes. Six separate descriptions of actual class organization and procedure suggest many possibilities for individualizing the work in such classes.

Webster opens the chapter by describing a program for individualizing instruction in the primary grades. Holmes tells how group poetry-writing in the third and sixth grades was used to stimulate individual creative expression. Bruce outlines a plan of class instruction in piano and shows by an illustrative lesson how the work was adapted to the individual child.

The next three articles deal chiefly with methods of developing personality traits, habits, and attitudes in the light of individual capacities and needs. Baxter reviews a controlled experiment in which sixth-grade children studied their own personality problems and took definite steps to improve their behavior. Connor describes a home-room program involving the activities of eleven special committees. Skeen and Meusey show how desirable attitudes and appreciations were fostered in a sixth-grade class.

The publications listed on page 377 should be helpful in improving pupil guidance in heterogeneous classes.—*Editorial Committee.*



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INDIVIDUALIZING INSTRUCTION IN THE PRIMARY GRADES

ELISABETH WEBSTER

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FOR MANY YEARS we have had mass instruction in the schools but we have never had mass learning. Learning has been and always will be an individual matter, regardless of the number of children in a group. As we recognize this fact we are forced to consider the provision of opportunities for more effective individual learning. We have formed the habit of saying that individual instruction is impossible with large groups of children and so, until recently, there has been little effort in most schools to provide the child with guidance in self-instruction and self-directed effort.

Children differ in their responses because of differences in their mental and emotional maturity, interests, attention spans, and rates of learning. These are conditions which we cannot change, but we can learn to meet them more efficiently even with large groups of children. Definite efforts to meet such differences are being made in the first and second grades of Grand Rapids, Michigan, where the groups range from thirty to forty children in a room. This article tells about some of the preliminary experiments in these groups and describes the program of individualized instruction now in operation.

PRELIMINARY EXPERIMENTS

For a number of years teachers of the advanced first grade and the second grade have followed the practice of dividing a room group into two or three classes of twelve to fifteen children each, and then dividing each of these classes into two or three smaller groups which met at the same time for supervised silent study of reading materials. Each of these smallest groups was composed of children of similar ability with respect to power and rate of reading. Each group read material of different length and difficulty in accordance with the abilities of its members. The word difficulties of each group were recorded by the teacher as she helped the children, and were used for class study at another period in the day. After such study each group had opportunity to read orally to the other groups. This established a real audience situation and led to marked improvement in the quality of the oral reading, as well as in the power to listen to and discuss material which had not been previously read by the audience.

This procedure is still followed by many teachers with the basic reading materials used to develop reading skills as well as reading

interests. However, even with the smallest groups, it was found that not all children in a group could proceed at the same rate and that different children met different problems. Words readily recognized and retained by some were difficult for others. Consequently some children were held at too slow a pace, with resulting habits of inattention and boredom, while others were forced beyond their powers and hence failed to master their own difficulties. Further opportunities for individual study and learning were necessary. Procedures of two distinct types were sought, one for the mastery of specific individual difficulties, and the other for the extension of free individual reading.

Efforts in these directions were initiated by the experiments of a few teachers during the year 1936-37. Their success was marked but the details of checking progress appeared burdensome. Nevertheless, in the fall of 1937 forty teachers volunteered to undertake a program of individualizing instruction in reading in the first grade and in reading and arithmetic in the second grade. Special meetings of these teachers were held to set up tentative guiding principles and to suggest experimental procedures. Emphasis was placed on individual experimentation, and each teacher was encouraged to criticize, evaluate, and change her methods in whatever way seemed best to her.

In some instances the teacher and the supervisor worked together with the children in the classroom. In the spring a few demonstrations were given to show some of the possibilities to all teachers of the early elementary grades. The discussion following these demonstrations indicated healthy differences of opinion concerning the best methods to follow. While certain principles were established by the group as being psychologically sound, variations in the application of these principles were encouraged. Consequently, while nearly every first- and second-grade room in the city now has a program of individualized instruction, the scope of these programs and the methods employed vary greatly. We believe that such a plan promotes continuous experimentation and growth on the part of each teacher.

By the close of the year certain conclusions regarding the experimental programs emerged quite clearly. The guiding principles were more firmly established; means of locating individual difficulties were suggested; methods of organizing children for individual study were advised and materials necessary for self-instruction were developed. Means of determining and checking results were recommended and values to children and teachers were defined. As a result, a mimeographed bulletin was prepared by a large group of teachers for the use of the entire staff. This work involved such broad participation and cooperation that it is impossible to give credit to the individual

teachers by name, but their assistance as a group is gratefully acknowledged. The remainder of this article is based largely on the bulletin which they prepared.

THE PRESENT PROGRAM OF INDIVIDUALIZED INSTRUCTION

Overcoming difficulties in reading—A background of reading readiness and reading interest is assumed as essential for all primary reading and therefore will not be discussed here. In addition, good social habits and good study habits should be developed with each group or class before individualized instruction is attempted. For this reason beginning first-grade children usually need approximately six weeks of class instruction in groups small enough to be conveniently handled. In Grand Rapids this instruction consists of teaching the children to read the short sentences on their reading charts, to locate the phrases and words, to match these independently, and to recognize them in new situations. The children must become responsible for recognizing their own difficulties and for making these known by pointing to the unknown words on the chart.

In the beginning first grade, where experience reading of charts predominates, observation of the child's performance in class is the most direct way of locating his difficulties. When the child begins to use books he should be held increasingly responsible for recognizing his own problems. But informal tests, if made by the teacher and based on the reading material used, are frequently helpful.

As the teacher recognizes the reading difficulties of each child, she provides materials which can be used by him for self-instruction and practice. Always she must bear in mind these three principles: (1) such materials must be of direct interest to the child; (2) they must be recognized by him as meeting his specific needs; and (3) they must provide an incentive and an opportunity for self-teaching. The materials not only must be adjusted to the child's needs but must be offered at a time when he realizes his need of them. Class exercises frequently fail to meet these requirements; they often retard the child's growth by having him repeat practice which he does not need or by failing to give him the exact practice which he does need.

As the child realizes that the materials provided help him to read more successfully and enjoyably, he takes pleasure and pride in using them. Each child varies in the amount of practice required for overcoming a difficulty, but the more insight a child gains as to the meaning of his efforts the less practice or drill he will need. The teacher should never concoct materials which simply keep the child busy but do not promote useful learnings. The foundation of individual growth

is self-determined effort, and the teacher's part is to guide and stimulate each child so that he will grow according to his own capacity and interests.

When the child is reading story charts, duplicate words matching those on the chart are provided. At the time assigned for individual study the child takes these words by himself and matches them with the ones on the chart which have been difficult for him. The sentence content usually recalls their meaning to him and he continues to match and study them until he can recognize them without matching. He is taught to test himself by turning his back on the chart and saying the words to himself.

When the child begins to use books a supervised silent-study period is instituted. As he comes to unknown words he is led to recognize them both by the context and by the form, but always with attention to the meaning in the sentence. If these aids are not sufficient the child is told the word. In any case, the teacher immediately writes the word and the page number on a 3" by 5" card which the child keeps in his book. At individual study time the child studies each word on this card by referring to the page indicated. The context usually recalls the word. The child's task is to study the words until he can recognize them without referring to the book. The teacher checks his success in this respect before he reads his material aloud in class.

This method of locating and recording each child's word difficulties is extremely simple and has been very successfully used thruout our first and second grades. Under this plan each child, even in a pre-primer group, is allowed to read at his own speed and is not obliged to wait while other children are struggling with their problems. Also, the plan permits the use of a variety of books in one class. Some teachers start everyone in the class with the same pre-primer, but allow each one to complete it at his own speed and then begin another book.

Provision for oral reading with these beginning first-grade children is made sometimes by allowing them to read to the teacher one at a time while the others are studying or engaged in other activities, and sometimes by having a child who has completed a short story read it to a small group. Some provision for oral reading in a group situation is essential.

Overcoming difficulties in other subjects—The need for learning addition and subtraction combinations in arithmetic is brought to the child's attention thru various second-grade activities such as buying milk or foods for cooking, buying and selling postage stamps, flower and vegetable seeds, or other articles in a play store, and keeping score in games. But these activities afford insufficient practice for mastery

by every child of all the combinations thru 10 as required in the second grade. Therefore, simple informal tests are given to locate each child's weak points. Then he is given the number-combination cards on which he needs to work and is allowed to study them individually. Similar procedures are used for individual difficulties in writing and spelling.

In all instances the child concentrates his effort on his own recognized weaknesses and does not waste time or develop habits of inattention and indolence by overlearning things which he already knows. The individualized procedure overcomes these faults as found in class drill and in mass seatwork. The interest remains keen as success is achieved in each succeeding step and the child realizes that he has definitely increased his powers.

Organization for self-directed study—When children first undertake this type of work, a period of about twenty minutes a day is assigned for study on individual difficulties as discovered in class periods. The teacher does not conduct a class at this time, for her part is to teach the children how to work independently and she gives them her undivided attention. Many teachers find it advisable to start the work by teaching one small group after another to work by itself before attempting to organize the entire room on this basis. Also, instruction in the proper use of materials is given in class before the children begin to work with them alone. After this each child selects the materials on which he feels that he needs practice. The teacher observes his choice and offers suggestions if necessary to help him choose wisely.

When the child feels that he has mastered his difficulty he lays the material on his table or desk until the teacher comes to check him. Sometimes he asks another child to check him. It has been found that proficient children are helpful to others as testers or checkers, but not as teachers of small groups as was attempted at first. Poor study habits as well as bad behavior habits are likely to result from the latter practice. Also, the same child should not be used too frequently as a tester, for it deprives him of his own opportunities for growth.

As the children acquire skill in self-directed study, much of this work is carried on during the so-called seatwork time. Many teachers feel that this is the ideal time as soon as effective study habits have been acquired, and it certainly eliminates the old cry of "What shall I give for seatwork?"

Self-teaching materials—The materials and procedures used for overcoming difficulties are so varied that only a few general types can be mentioned here. The essential thing is that they be of a self-teaching nature.

In the first grade certain types of words which are not suggested

by the context often continue to cause difficulty, and it is not always convenient to refer the child to the original story in which such a word appeared. Therefore, some of these words are grouped on special charts, such as a color chart showing several colors and the corresponding words, or a number chart containing arabic numbers together with corresponding words and pictures. A preposition chart shows pictures accompanied by sentences or phrases containing prepositions, as "A book *on* the table." A difficult-word chart offers pictures accompanied by sentences containing the hard words, as "*Who is that?*" or "Puppy *wants* to play." Duplicate word cards are given the child to match with these charts. When the words can be readily recognized apart from the chart, the child receives a check on his own record card, which bears the names or numbers of the charts studied.

Word games utilizing sets of picture word cards with a picture on one side and the word on the other increase the children's sight word vocabulary and stimulate their interest. The sorting of picture cards for initial letter sounds of the words pictured is helpful in learning to recognize beginning consonant sounds. In arithmetic the game of Lotto is useful in establishing number recognition. For counting by 5's and 10's, paper strips printed with the numbers from 1 to 100 are used. The child encircles every fifth or tenth number and checks himself by a marked copy.

Addition and subtraction cards with the combination on one side and the combination and answer on the other provide each child with a tool for individual study and drill. Like the cards bearing words and page numbers, they enable the child to concentrate on his own special difficulties as long and as frequently as necessary.

Free reading—Children who do not have difficulties and those who are waiting to be checked are free to select books from the library table for free reading. In addition, special periods for such reading are arranged for all children during the week. These opportunities are highly stimulating to an interest in reading. At first the children need guidance in choosing books within their reading ability, but they soon learn to select these for themselves and give each other advice as to which are "good and easy stories."

The teacher does not check vocabulary mastery in this type of reading as she does in the basic reading material. It would be impossible to do so because the children read so eagerly and so rapidly. Frequently when a child has prepared a complete story independently he is asked to read it aloud to the group. The assortment of books provided has stimulated many groups to create their own library corners. The children often build bookcases, chairs, and bookends, which when

painted and decorated make a most attractive reading center in the room.

Oral reading—The problem of maintaining standards in oral reading became prominent under the individual method of study. In the first grade the teachers were inclined to let each child in turn read to them alone. This procedure lacked the values found in a true audience reading situation. The child was merely showing the teacher how well he could read. He felt no responsibility for expressing the thought and feeling of a story to the group for their enjoyment, and this lack was often apparent in the quality of the oral reading. A better procedure was found in bringing small groups together to listen to the reader and to discuss the story or the information presented. In this way a responsibility was placed upon the listeners as well as upon the reader.

In some second grades the children give story reports to any in the room who care to listen. Part of the story is told and part is read. At first the teacher may be the only listener, but soon a large majority in the room will stop their own work to listen to a good reader.

It is obvious that under the plan just outlined a great variety of books must be supplied rather than many copies of a few books. It is evident, too, that the child has a much wider reading experience during a year than under the older procedure which required an entire class to use the same book.

VALUES OF THE PROGRAM

As one enters a classroom and watches interested, eager youngsters engaged in many different activities, observes the popularity of the reading corner, and sees little faces light up with confidence as new ideas are grasped and difficulties are overcome, one cannot doubt the value of this type of work. Certain specific advantages both to child and to teacher have clearly emerged during the past two years. Every child has broadened his reading interests and experiences to a marked degree. Each child has had the satisfaction of accomplishing his own purposes. He has made intelligent choices of work according to his own recognized needs. He has been freed from pressure and frustration because he has been allowed to progress according to his own ability and rate of speed.

Under this plan each child knows what materials will be helpful to him, where he may find them, and how he can use them with daily increasing power of self-direction. He learns to overcome obstacles rather than evade them, and to take pride in so doing. He learns to take and to give helpful criticism in a group of companions. He thinks of the teacher as a helper rather than as a dictator.

The teacher has become more conscious of the individual child's needs and improvement. The room organization has given her more opportunity to study children—to note how each one attacks his problems and to see whether he uses good work habits. It has enabled her to give freedom to the child who is capable of working independently, and to offer encouragement and guidance to the weaker child. Discipline problems have disappeared, for each child is interestedly engaged in work within his power to accomplish. The method of teaching has relieved the teacher from excessive strain and pressure because she no longer seeks to make every child reach the same standard of achievement.

On first undertaking this work teachers are frequently confused and somewhat disturbed by the different type of organization required. But as they perfect their methods of individualizing instruction they become enthusiastic over the interest and progress of the children. They are impressed by the fact that no weak links need be left in the chain of learning. For some children the chain will not be as long as for others but it will be sound thruout.

The teachers are beginning to extend the individual plan to fields other than those discussed in this article. Lovely bits of creative writing are appearing even in the first grades. Writing and spelling are used as tools to express the children's own thoughts and feelings as their spirits are set free to seek their own modes of expression. School life for both children and teachers is becoming a thrilling adventure along many lines of fresh endeavor.

THIS new and wider concept of individualization rejects the traditional concept of a common standard of achievement for all, and even the notion that three or four different standards of achievement in terms of ability groups will suffice. The new program takes its cue from the concept of democracy that holds that the maximal growth of the individual can best be attained through a situation in which the individual is stimulated and encouraged to make his unique contribution to common ends and purposes—without raising the question as to the relative values of these contributions.—Alberty, H. B., and Brim, O. G., in *The Grouping of Pupils*, Thirty-Fifth Yearbook, Part I, National Society for the Study of Education, 1936, Chapter 7, p. 125. (Quoted by permission of the Society.)

ENCOURAGING INDIVIDUAL CREATIVE EXPRESSION
THRU THE GROUP POEM

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SINCE THE DAY when Thomas Gray grieved for a "mute inglorious Milton," ideals and methods of teaching have radically changed. Development of the individual child is now a major aim in all progressive schools. An essential aspect of such development is growth in the child's power of self-expression. The school, however, is faced with two serious problems in its attempt to develop self-expression thru language, especially in the field of poetry. One of these is the tendency of the teacher to glorify poor or mediocre expression on the part of children. The other is the failure of the teacher to provide adequate opportunities for creative pupil expression because of her own lack of experience and self-confidence.

The first difficulty cannot always be eliminated but it can usually be minimized by determined individual effort. Such activities as reading and hearing good poetry, studying standard criticisms, and making an effort to write poetry will help the teacher to overcome the weaknesses of ignorance and an untrained ear. The second difficulty, altho related to the first, calls for wise guidance on the part of the principal or special supervisor in addition to individual study and practice by the teacher. The technic presented in this article has been found helpful by many teachers who recognized classroom situations favorable to the writing of verse but hesitated because of their own lack of experience in this field. The procedure involves two phases: (1) the use of a single effective phrase or line, often found obscured by meaningless words or hazy thoughts, as the motivation for a group poem; and (2) the use of the group poem as a springboard for individual expression.

A third-grade exercise in completion—The first of these phases is illustrated here by the work of a third-grade class. These children had studied African animals and had expressed their enjoyment of the subject in numerous drawings, in descriptive paragraphs, and in three original dances, the Dance of the Elephants being particularly effective. Following these activities, many animal poems on the third-grade level were read. Rhymes from *At the Zoo*, a small volume of block-prints by Kendrick Bell,¹ were enjoyed. Animals were listed on the board along with a word or two intimately associated with each. The query,

¹ Bell, Kendrick. *At the Zoo*. Milwaukee, Wis.: WPA Handicraft Project (793 N. Jackson Street).

The group was then invited to fill in the missing lines and did so with some assistance from the teacher. Children of this age, while strongly individualistic in play, seem to feel that group expression is as normal as any other class project. Occasionally a child said with some satisfaction, "I said that," or "That line was mine," or "I think I wrote that, didn't I?" but there seemed to be no feeling as to individual rights and no holding back in the final effort, which resulted in some very creditable lines. Linoleum block-prints (ten by twelve inches) were made to illustrate each jingle. Alternating the red and black prints with the printed verses produced a most attractive frieze in which the class showed genuine pride. Here are the completed verses:

The jungle has its elephants,
The river its crocodiles.
If I saw either out of his place,
I'd run for miles and miles.

The elephant has a great big trunk,
And a great big hump on his nose.
He swings his trunk and flaps his ears
As up and down he goes.

The lion is the king of beasts
He rules the forest too;
And if you are not nice to him
He'll jump out and gobble you.

The zebra barks with a
Yap, yap, yap!
He drinks at the waterhole,
Lap, lap, lap!

Here's a leopard creeping
Through a cave.
How he snarls and roars!
Hear him rave.

The monkey swings from tree to tree.
How I wish he could talk like me.

Ho! Ho! Ho! Crocodile,
So big and strong!
You stay in the river;
That's where you belong.

The zebra has stripes;
He's round like a log.
He looks like a horse,
But barks like a dog.

The elephant's ears are enormous,
But they don't do him much good,
For he makes such awful noises
He can't hear as he should.

The elephant is so big and lumpy!
He thumps through the forest—thumpy, thumpy.
He has long ears just like a flap.
Don't you hear them? Clap, clap, clap.

Stimulating individual expression in Grade VI—The use of group thought as an aid to individual expression is illustrated by the work of a VI-A class whose members were filled to the point of inspiration with their study of Mexico. The third-grade animal rhymes were merely jingles, but the efforts of older brothers and sisters approached true poetry. During the period of writing, a supervisor who challenged their efforts met with this answer: "Everyone likes to express himself. Some people sing. Some dance. Some paint or draw. But we like to write."

After members of the class had been asked to close their eyes, think "Mexico," and report what pictures came to mind, such items as the following were listed on the board:

winding roads	peddlars	ignorance
dusty trails	peons	gayety
old mines	señors	poverty
markets	señoritas	simplicity
stalls	bandits	sleepiness
pinatas	herd boys	music
volcanoes	rancheros	dancing
hills	donkey boys	flowers
weaving	old men	vines
toy-making	wrinkled women	cactus
pesos	bull fighters	sombreros
centavos	sheep herders	serapes
balloons	Indians	rebosas
straw toys	spices	lace
painted pigs	tortillas	sandals
glass figures	frijoles	blankets
jumping jacks	mangoes	dark skin
pottery	peppers	long black braids
donkeys	watermelons	silver
bulls	gourds	jewelry
dogs	oranges	precious stones
parrots	peanuts	ear rings

Josephine initiated the group poem and by united class effort the following resulted:

I've played at being a Mexican child.
 I've woven strips for blankets gay,
 I've modeled pigs and painted clay,
 I've learned to dance the Tipica way,
 I've eaten queer foods, both spiced and mild.

The final class suggestion was to exchange the first and fifth lines, making the last line read, "For I've played I was a Mexican child." While this group effort was admirable, the subsequent work of individual pupils proved to be more artistic. From the latter, the following ten selections were chosen to form a block-print book. The only suggestions made by the instructor are noted after each poem to which they applied.

Once he was pretty—was yellow and pink—
 Once was a pig of high favor and fun.
 But now he is black
 With mud on his back—
 And now he's in pieces
 Where once he was whole—
 The painted pig from the toy-maker's pack.

When I was watching the sheep,
(Valgame Dios) I fell asleep.
I dreamed that I was fearless,
And the leader of the braves,
And that I was driving white men away.
Then I thought some one attacked me;
But it was nothing but my dog trying to tell me
The sheep were in the valley.

Monty had written "Goodness gracious" in the second line. The teacher's query was "I wonder what the little Mexican boy really might have said." Monty knew just the right person to ask and came back proudly with "Valgame Dios."

I was a Mexican bandit in the long ago,
I used to live in Mexico.
Through the dark night I would ride
And stolen jewels I would hide.
Emeralds, rubies, sapphires too,
All this robbing I would do.
I've sent my thoughts to a far off day,
For now I'm old and grizzled and gray.
Now I've reformed from the time gone by,
Honest and true I'll be till I die.

This is the effort of a demure twelve-year-old girl. There was no thought of the bandit's reform until her classmates insisted.

While I sit at my loom all day,
I dream of the outer world,
It has shows and skyscrapers tall.
But with dreams alone I cannot paint a picture.

But if I were an American boy,
And could go to a great city,
I would have many adventures,
But glorious dreams don't come true.

The original effort consisted of four lines. Then the possibilities of contrast were commented on and other lines were added. However, the product was more artistic with its original lines alone.

I wish I had lived in Mexico
To see the bullfights come and go.

To see the señors wave the red—
To see *el toro* charge straight ahead.

To see the toreador leap aside
And dodge the bull with powerful stride.

To hear the crowd respond with a roar
As the bull goes prancing off the floor.

The market is a very gay place
With all its weavers and makers of lace,
With brightly dressed people in their stalls
With gay rebosas (we call them shawls),
With pottery and pictures in a row
And painted pigs that are just for show.

In the latter verse the only assistance given by the teacher was in line four. To secure the very obvious rhyme for "stalls," the question was asked, "What is another name for rebosa?"

Have pity for this poor crippled peon who cannot walk or stand.
He sits in his lonely room and thinks of the day when he was young and
wishes he were young again.
But now all that he can do is to sit in his chair and weave.
He likes to weave but it gets tiresome.
He thinks of the other days when all of his tribe were happy and gay.
Now he is the only one left.
Poor old crippled man!

The thing I like in Mexico
Is watching the donkeys come and go—
Their hooves clattering on the cobble-stone street,
And the grizzled old driver with clothes none too neat,
Who walks behind with a stick in his hand,
Crying "Burro! Burro!" to the slow ones in his band.

I know a place
Where eyes shine like fire
And the music is sweet and low,
Where the people are quaint and quiet—
It's down in old Mexico

I am an old señor today,
I am too old and bent to play.
And now I sit and think of the time
When Mexico was in her prime.
When Spaniards raided our old town,
And put the Aztec chieftains down.

Value of the activity—The sixth grade's response to the inquiring supervisor summed up the argument for this kind of work very neatly. It surely is as desirable to be able to corner an elusive thought and bring it to life in meaningful and beautiful words as it is to indulge in any other form of self-expression. Moreover, many of us who can achieve but little satisfaction in graphic art, music, or dancing may walk together in good fellowship down the avenue of poetic writing.

ADAPTING PIANO CLASS INSTRUCTION TO THE
INDIVIDUAL CHILD

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THE ORGANIZATION OF PIANO CLASSES, like the organization of arithmetic, reading, or social studies classes, demands that we carefully consider pupil welfare rather than ease of administration. By a group or class lesson in piano the writer does not mean a short, individual period in which each child has an isolated five-minute session devoted to his playing and his problems. The type of class referred to here is a group of not more than six children who meet for two forty-five minute periods each week to study together around one piano various technical and musical situations. This is the plan followed in the public schools of Rochester, New York.¹

Class lessons in piano are not looked upon by children as different from other class lessons. They are held during school hours, at a time convenient for both the piano teacher and the homeroom teacher. They are especially good for children studying music because, before a child can learn to play well, he must first become an individual who can work with others sympathetically and intelligently, and who can benefit from hearing the performances and criticisms of his classmates.

The most essential factors in successful piano class lessons are the professional training and equipment of the teacher and her freedom from fads and prejudices which work directly against efficiency in her work. Heretofore, we have been accustomed to consider a piano class teacher as a pedagogue who either did or did not possess any particular musical talent, one who taught the facts and drilled diligently but inspired little. More and more it is demanded of us as administrators that we employ teachers of rare ability, musicians gifted with genuine musical feeling, who continually work in cooperation with other musicians, sharing experiences, clarifying ideas, and striving to make the teaching process more effective.

Classification of pupils—The piano teacher, during the organization period, is immediately confronted with the problem of classification. She faces a group of individuals whose intellects, emotions, aptitudes, and abilities are widely varied. There are the carefree and the timid, the keenly alert and the dormant, the ambitious child and the dreamer, the exceptionally talented and the less musically endowed. The first step in the classification of these children is to separate those who have

¹ Grateful acknowledgment is made to Miss Doris Moore and Miss Helen Thompson, teachers of piano in the Rochester public schools, from whose classes the content of this article is drawn.

previously studied piano from those who have not. Taking the group with experience, the teacher listens to their playing, discovers how long they have studied, what material, and their experience with music in general. The children who match up with more or less the same level of experience and accomplishment are grouped together, provided there is not a difference in age of more than two years. The teacher's greatest problem in this group is with the child who received twenty free lessons from the company from which his father purchased the piano.

The inexperienced children are roughly classified upon an age basis at first, with some consideration of their general ability. To help discover talent among these children, the vocal music teacher, regular classroom teacher, or parent observes and records specific evidences of the presence or absence of interest and ability in music. Each child selected is encouraged to venture into the field of music because he is wild with joy over the chance to take music lessons. The fact that more than a thousand children in the schools of Rochester are now taking group piano lessons is indicative of the new enthusiasm of children for music. These children understand and enjoy what they are playing and practicing. Lessons are no longer dull and practicing is no longer a bore. In cases where coordination, desire, and mental equipment are lacking, the child is not encouraged to take lessons.

Individual differences found in a particular class—The chief concern of a piano class teacher should be the satisfactory adjustment of her class work to the individual differences of the pupils. The pupils are not born equally talented or equally capable of pursuing a music course. Before describing an actual class lesson, let us consider briefly the backgrounds and personal characteristics of the four children in the class. These pupils all had considerable musical ability and had studied with the same piano class teacher for at least four years.

ANNE—Aged 12; comfortable middle-class home; an older brother and sister; father and mother socially ambitious; both "self-educated." *Characteristics:* Timid, friendly, strained, painfully self-conscious, easily embarrassed, worried, afraid, repressed, withdrawing, and seclusive. Watches others to see what they do. Hopes never to make a mistake.

BETTY—Aged 12; only child; comfortable home; father and mother compatible and popular. *Characteristics:* Socially adjusted, good mixer, animated, popular, alert, talented, tends to be careless, attention easily diverted, enthusiastic. Quite idealistic. Would like to be a good musician, but it takes a little too much thought and effort.

EDWIN—Aged 10; only child until nine years of age; comfortable home; protected and sheltered. *Characteristics:* Friendly, aggressive, attention-getting, laughs easily, good ability, impulsive, physically active, explosive, somewhat purposeless, but responsive and loving. Enjoys music better than "anything else in the world."

MARJORIE—Aged 11; younger of two children; parents professional people, egocentric, generally socially inactive. *Characteristics*: Rapid, accurate thinker, alert, active, curious, energetic, confident, magnetic, gracious, persistent, generous, considerate. Desires to be like others of her age.

An illustrative lesson—Keeping in mind these varied characteristics, let us see how the piano teacher dealt with the individual problems of each child in an actual teaching situation. The class was beginning the study of a Mozart sonatina. The children engaged in a brief discussion about Mozart and about sonatinas, after which the teacher played a phrase or two of Mozart, demonstrating certain characteristics of the composer. Then, because the class, after four years of study, had considerable equipment with which to attack a new piece, the teacher turned the children loose on the sonatina, assigning a certain portion of it and allowing them to read thru the entire selection at home if they wished. She was careful not to assign too much, but at the same time she set no limitations.

At the class lesson three days later, each child played the assigned portion while the others listened and reacted to the general effect, which was obviously different with each playing. After the key of the piece was discussed, the teacher, working for a few minutes with each child, helped correct wrong notes and wrong meter. She also touched upon certain points concerning hand and arm movements, fingering, and tonal quality. She then turned the attention of the children more specifically to the subject of accentuation. Each child was asked to play the first few measures of the sonatina and to experiment with the accentuation, interpreting as he wished.

Marjorie, who knew in what instances the meter should be accentuated, played the phrase with precision and in true tempo, used good fingering, and produced the proper accentuation. When asked to criticize her own work, she said that she felt the accent should be placed where she had placed it and that she was quite satisfied with her rendition of the phrasing—not only that it sounded good but that she played it without difficulty. The comment of the other children was that it sounded “almost perfect.” The teacher assured Marjorie that she had read the piece well and complimented her upon the use of her knowledge that in this particular selection the meter is accentuated. She also indicated that there are other laws of accentuation which they would try to discover during the lesson. Then she called on Anne to play the same section.

Anne played laboriously, working out the several measures with hesitation and often looking to the teacher for approval. After completing the phrase, she did not look enthusiastically to the others for

suggestions, but sat at the piano, embarrassed, and stared at the page before her. The teacher hastened to assure Anne that her reading of the passage was good, in spite of certain technical defects, and complimented her on the steady improvement in her reading. The teacher realized that the atmosphere of competition was stimulating for Anne and that, because of her timidity, the child must be helped to maintain confidence in her own ability. The other children, also aware of Anne's fear, said encouragingly that they thought her playing was even better than Marjorie's because of the way in which she gave emphasis to high sounds. By this time Anne was sufficiently absorbed by the remarks and criticisms to lose herself in the subject of the lesson. She asked a specific question relative to the accentuation of the long notes that introduce the piece, whereupon the teacher suggested that they wait to discuss that aspect until the other two children had played.

Edwin's attention was directed by that remark to the long beginning notes, which he now accentuated to advantage, producing a good effect. In fact, the result pleased his ear so much that he said he would like to "try that part again." As he continued, he became impatient because the remainder of the phrase did not go smoothly. The teacher persuaded him to play at a somewhat slower tempo to enable him to improve his reading. With careful direction he played again, making some of the necessary corrections. The teacher, having instructed Edwin to continue this careful, thoughtful, and patient practice at home, asked the fourth member of the class to play the phrase.

She anticipated that Betty, because of her good ear and abundance of talent, would produce the best accentuation and wisely called on her last. She was not surprised that Betty played with the best interpretation, accentuating the long notes and the high notes, as well as the meter. The other children looked approvingly at each other as she played, for they enjoyed the good general effect. Yet, while the class decided that Betty's playing was the most musical, no child could state clearly why her playing had so much more character. The teacher then asked the children to recall what each member had done to contribute to good accentuation. Together they worked out an understanding and application of some of the laws of accentuation. Betty was requested to play again to show the children that in the last analysis these laws, like any other principles in music, must be tested by the ear, which is the final judge of the quality of a piece. Toward the close of the lesson, the children wrote in their assignment books the rules of accentuation which they had discovered and tested for themselves. For the next assignment they were to go over the same section and then con-

tinue with the sonatina, marking all the notes that should receive accentuation and determining the reason why.

Finally, the teacher gave each child a brief suggestion to help him in his practice at home. She asked Marjorie to listen more attentively and to discover whether closer listening made her feel differently as she played. She suggested that Anne continue her good work in reading, and asked her to try to feel the big sweep of the music, the relationship of one phrase to another. She assigned Edwin the specific duty of preparing the assigned portion in slow tempo and then in true tempo as a means of improving his reading. Betty was to prepare the entire sonatina, going over each phrase carefully to test the rules they had evolved.

Summary of teaching procedures—As indicated in the foregoing illustration, the piano class teacher carefully evaluates the performances and the reactions of children as they play and as they criticize themselves and their classmates. She deals with the children individually while meeting needs common to all. She praises them for improvements, always encouraging them to do a little better the next time. In addition to their study of accentuation, as in the lesson described above, the children and teacher consider together such technical problems as good reading, correct fingering, the mechanics necessary to produce certain tone qualities, and good rhythmic development. Piano class instruction of this kind gives pupils opportunities for observation which are lacking in private lessons. The private lesson centers attention and criticism on one individual, while the class lesson helps children lose their self-consciousness by focusing their attention first upon the musical situation at hand, and then upon the reaction of each child to that situation.

Since some children will grasp certain technical points more quickly than others, the teacher must repeat such points in different ways, using various means of illustration to clarify ideas for each child according to his needs. She must remember that altho basic principles remain the same, no two children will arrive at an understanding of those principles in exactly the same way. By working with others in a musical environment of this kind, the child is encouraged to express himself, to release his own emotional experiences thru a creative activity. His creative tendencies are stimulated by the teacher and he is led to make the most of his natural capacities. He develops from the class work a type of musical equipment with which he may become increasingly self-directing, self-motivating, and self-evaluating. The teacher does not want him to conform *unthinkingly* to any standard. She does not require him to follow directions slavishly regardless of

his own convictions, but rather helps him to develop technical equipment, comprehension, and appreciation that can withstand the severest test.

Importance of qualified teachers—The best course of study or system of methods comes to naught under the direction of an uninterested, incompetent, dull teacher. It becomes something quite different if employed by one who is alert, enthusiastic, talented, and inspired. Hence, the chief responsibility of administrators in any department of music is to see that children come under the influence of a teacher who not only knows what and how to teach, but who also loves children and is interested in their personal development as well as in their musical progress—a person who is well adjusted, mature, unafraid of work, and emotionally healthy, and who naturally creates a happy, stimulating classroom atmosphere. The thoroughness and inspiration of such a teacher produce a vigorous and ambitious response on the part of the average and superior pupils, while even the least talented and least interested child also reacts favorably to such an influence. Successful class instruction in piano, as in other fields of learning, requires a teacher whose professional training, teaching skill, and sympathetic understanding of children lead each child to make the most of his own capacity by increasing his power of expression and his ability to become self-motivating, self-directing, and self-evaluating.

PUPILS who might be passed by, lost in the crowd, or else regarded with indifference are discovered, by their contributions to the music period, to be individuals with distinctive and often colorful personalities. Solo singing and playing, leadership in group work, enlightening and sympathetic comments and reports relevant to subjects at hand, engaging associations with other studies, and ingenuity in using talents in related fields are some of the means of stimulating and coordinating individual initiative with group cooperation.—Pitts, Lilla B., in *Music Education*, Thirty-Fifth Yearbook, Part II, National Society for the Study of Education, 1936, Chapter 2, p. 20. (Quoted by permission of the Society.)

GUIDING PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT IN THE SIXTH GRADE

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LONG AGO Socrates said, "No man is born wise; but wisdom and virtue require a tutor." Today desirable personality development is widely accepted as a function of the school. Blatz and Bott have stated that "the aim of education is to prepare the individual so that the reins may be safely passed over to him in terms of self-control."¹ At present there is great interest in studying and guiding personality, for it is believed that behavior aberrations and emotional instability are closely associated with social and individual disruption.

The purpose of the experiment described here was to determine, as far as possible, the effectiveness of a constructive, preventive, and remedial personality program in a typical class of sixth-grade children. The experimental procedure involved the following steps: (1) a preliminary program of personality and intelligence testing; (2) matching of the children in pairs with regard to various factors; (3) division of the children into two approximately equivalent groups, one to participate in the guidance program (experimental group) and the other to proceed as usual without such a program (control group); (4) a seven-month program of personality guidance for the experimental group; and (5) a retesting of both groups to see if the personality and intelligence scores of either group had changed.

PRELIMINARY TESTING AND MATCHING OF GROUPS

Two typical sixth-grade classes were chosen for the preliminary testing. The personalities of the pupils were measured by means of the *Baxter Child Personality Test*,² which consists of a Child's Test, a Mother's Test, and a Teacher's Test. The first of these tests was given individually to each child; the second was answered by each parent for her child; and the third was filled out by the teacher for each child. In addition, the *Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon Intelligence Scale*³ and the *Sims Score Card for Socio-Economic Status*⁴ were administered to each pupil.

Each section of the *Baxter Child Personality Test* consists of four

¹ Blatz, William L., and Bott, Helen. *The Management of Young Children*. New York: William Morrow and Co., 1930. p. 263.

² Baxter, Edna Dorothy. "The Baxter Child Personality Test." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 21: 410-30; August 1937.

³ Terman, Lewis. *The Measurement of Intelligence*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1916.

⁴ Sims, Verner M. *Sims Score Card for Socio-Economic Status*. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1927.

questions about each of the following traits of personality: friendliness, responsiveness, obedience, dependability, unselfishness, day-dreaming, honesty, courtesy, compliance, cheerfulness, kindness, fairness, generosity, self-control, courage, respect, studiousness, creativity, concentration, temperance, tidiness, carefulness, and grace and poise. For example, the questions relating to "friendliness" on the Child's Test are as follows:

1. Do you like to play alone even when there are others to play with?
2. Do you prefer to play with some of your friends?
3. Do you like to play with boys and girls you don't know very well?
4. Do you like to go to parties or places where there are many other children?

The corresponding questions on the Mother's Test are these:

1. Does child like to play alone a great part of the time?
2. Does he prefer to play with some of his friends?
3. Is he usually friendly with strange boys and girls?
4. Is he very fond of going to parties or places where there are other children?

The method of scoring these tests, together with data on their validity and reliability, has been reported by the author in another publication.⁵

When the results of all preliminary tests had been compiled, the children were matched in pairs as far as possible according to sex, child's personality score, mother's score for child, intelligence quotient, mental age, and socio-economic status. One child from each matched pair was then placed in the experimental group, while the other joined the control group. Each group contained thirty-five children.

As shown in Table 1, these two groups were practically equivalent, in terms of averages, with respect to the child's own personality score, the mother's personality score, the child's mental age, his intelligence quotient, and the socio-economic status of the home. On the teacher's test of pupil personality the average score of the control group was 5.9 points higher than that of the experimental group. The average personality scores on the child's test and on the mother's test were about the same as the norms of these tests for eleven-year-old children.

THE PROGRAM OF GUIDANCE

In general, the guidance program for the experimental group followed Burnham's idea of the needs of every individual, namely, a task, a plan, and freedom.⁶ In addition, it was recognized that achievement and praise in the tasks accomplished are requisite for an integrated personality. Every child needs to feel that he is accomplishing something, that his tasks have definite limits, and that he can attain the

⁵ Baxter, Edna D., *op. cit.*

⁶ Burnham, William. *The Wholesome Personality*. New York: D. Appleton Co., 1932. p. 86-88.

TABLE 1—COMPARISON OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS AT BEGINNING OF EXPERIMENT

MEASURE	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP		CONTROL GROUP	
	Mean	Probable error of mean	Mean	Probable error of mean
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Child's personality score.....	65.0	1.3	64.7	1.2
Mother's personality score.....	66.5	1.3	66.0	1.3
Teacher's personality score.....	72.0	1.8	77.9	1.1
Mental age.....	11-3	1-3	11-4	1-8
Intelligence quotient.....	98.0	1.6	97.9	1.6
Socio-economic status.....	12.6	1.8	11.8	1.7

Read table: The mean score of the experimental group on the child's personality test was 65.0 with a probable error of 1.3, while the mean score of the control group on the same test was 64.7 with a probable error of 1.2. For the experimental group the probable error of 1.3 indicates that the chances are even that the mean of 65.0 lies within 1.3 score points of the mean which would be found in an infinitely large group of sixth-grade children under identical conditions. Similarly read figures for the other measures listed in column 1.

satisfaction of well-earned praise. These general aspects of the program may be summarized as follows:

1. The *task* of each child in the experimental group was to improve his personality. When the test data had been compiled, each child was acquainted with the six traits on which he had scored lowest according to all three personality tests, and on which he should work to improve his personality. The task was thus carefully motivated. The child was given a workbook and his six traits were listed in the forepart of this book. Whenever he opened it he could see these six constructive goals.

2. The *plan* of developing the child's personality involved education as to the nature and significance of admirable traits of conduct as well as the provision of opportunities to experience good behavior. It undertook to broaden the child's knowledge of the many ways in which he might develop, and made a definite effort to help him become objective in interpreting his own and others' behavior. The procedure included an individualized method of analyzing a problem, group discussion, and evaluation, and finally a meeting of minds when the problem was solved.

3. Considerable *freedom* in choosing his own behavior was given each child. Motivation toward developing admirable traits of conduct was supplied, but no child was actually required to show evidence of tidiness, unselfishness, studiousness, or any other trait.

4. Knowledge of his own *achievement*, with suitable praise therefor, was used effectively with each child as an incentive to further development.

The various units of the program are described in the following paragraphs.

Unit I—Each pupil was asked to prepare a short talk about a child that he liked and to tell why he liked the child. A class chairman for

each day was appointed to lead the group and to direct the discussion after each talk. The teacher's purposes in this project were to discover each child's background of understanding in regard to personality, to see each child as an individual, to estimate the amount of poise each child possessed, and to observe the reactions of the group to the individual speakers and to discussion situations in general.

It was found that the pupils had little or no understanding of why they liked other children or of what types of behavior were admirable. Almost all the criticisms made by each speaker were negative. That is, the group tended to note every wrong thing which an individual did, and very few compliments or constructive remarks were offered. The teacher took this occasion to establish the ideal of constructive help for one another and of praise for a thing well done. This ideal was emphasized thruout the experiment, no child being permitted to make a remark about another unless it was helpful or constructive.

Unit II—The second unit was planned by the group as a discussion. The meanings of the various personality characteristics included in the workbooks were discussed and clarified. Different ways in which these characteristics might be developed were discussed thoroly, special emphasis being placed upon the trait that each child had listed as most important for his development. The activity was worthwhile because it stimulated self-appraisal. As the unit progressed, the children's improvement in discussion and in insight into good personality was quite noticeable. Evaluations and reevaluations were made every day.

Unit III—Each child gave a pantomime before the class showing ways in which his second weakest trait might be developed. Every day a different class chairman presided, calling upon members of the class and leading a general discussion after each pantomime. The children seemed to enjoy these motor activities, and within a short time many suggestions as to better behavior were given before the class.

Unit IV—The third unit proved so enjoyable that most of the group wanted to repeat the procedure of that unit. Accordingly, they studied their third traits and ways in which they could develop them, and then gave individual pantomimes to show how they were working out problems concerned with these characteristics in actual life situations.

Unit V—The next unit was the result of the children's suggestion that they obtain more information about behavior from outside sources. It consisted of reading stories with good lessons in conduct, listing all the positive types of behavior found in each story, pointing out the places in the stories where the characters did not do good thinking, and discussing how these mistakes could have been avoided. The

stories were found in school books and in other good books and magazines for children.

Unit VI—Since the preceding unit had stimulated an interest in dramatic characterization, the group decided to study their fourth traits thru plays. The traits were listed and appropriate short stories from magazines and books were read and dramatized. In many instances the children changed the stories so they could show the development of their individual traits, and in several cases the dramatization bore only a slight resemblance to the original story. As a result of this activity, the poise of the children before the group seemed to improve and creative expression became more spontaneous. Considerable ingenuity was shown in devising methods of bringing their own individual traits to the foreground.

Unit VII—In this unit the children were guided in developing creative pantomimes to exemplify their fifth traits. They were to illustrate these traits as they had exhibited them in daily life. When a pantomime was presented, no announcement was made as to the trait to be illustrated. The child's action was supposed to be so clear that the class could tell which trait he was exemplifying. This activity seemed to help the children become more objective in their evaluations of behavior.

Unit VIII—Each child was allowed to choose any way he desired to show the class what he had learned about his sixth trait and how he had developed it. Some of the pupils gave talks, some gave pantomimes, a large number engaged in motor activities with another child, and many worked out stories. This unit concluded the intensive work of the children on their six weakest traits. By the time it was finished most of them could see the results of their efforts.

Unit IX—Each trait was rediscussed and reevaluated in the light of the children's greater knowledge about behavior. Whenever the class could not readily arrive at a meeting of minds about a certain characteristic, a panel discussion was held. A chairman was selected and he chose three members of the class to uphold one side of the question and three members to defend the other side. Each of these six pupils spoke once, expressing his own views about the subject. In no panel discussion was there any arguing, discourtesy, or other evidence of negative attitudes toward one another.

This activity grew out of class needs. It seemed to stimulate deeper thinking because in many instances the basic urges of the children conflicted with what they thought might be the best thing to do. The apparent results of the unit were especially gratifying. The dominant, basic urges which were at variance with good behavior were discussed

openly and frankly in the class. The children learned to reflect about distressing everyday problems. Anger, fear, and other emotional disturbances were discussed in relation to actual experiences, and an effort was made to guide the youngsters toward self-control and mastery of the difficulty. Following are a few of the many questions used as the basis for panel discussions:

1. If someone hits you, should you hit him back?
2. Should one cooperate always?
3. Is it ever right to be untruthful?
4. Is dishonesty ever right?

On all such issues the group decided to (1) understand the problem, (2) think of how the other person feels, and (3) try the best possible solution for the good of all.

Unit X—This unit was one which ran thruout the experiment. Any child who had a problem originating at home or at school and who wanted class discussion and help became chairman for the day, explained his problem to the class, and led the group discussion. Some of the problems brought before the class were stated by the children as follows:

1. My mother always stands up for a five-year-old child in our neighborhood against me. I hate this girl. What does the class think about it?
2. J. wouldn't give me any of his candy yesterday, and because I won't give him some of mine today he tells everyone I'm stingy.
3. If my mother is bossy and mean to me I don't think I should have to mind her. Do you?

The class discussed each problem with direction and guidance from the instructor, and what seemed to be the best possible solution was offered to the child who had raised the problem. The child then tried out the solution and reported the results to the class. Thus the attitude of the group changed from one of negativism toward each other to one of cooperation and helpfulness.

Pupil activity club—Another activity which grew out of the class work was the Bad Habit Breakers' Club. Each child who had shown improvement in each of his six weakest traits in three different types of situations, as attested by either parents or teachers, was chosen by a class committee for membership in this club. Altho the club had other functions, its main purpose was to help members of the class who were having personal or social difficulties in school or elsewhere. The group selected such a class member and befriended him until he showed some improvement, whereupon another member of the class was selected. The name of the child receiving this assistance was kept secret among

club members, and all activity in his behalf was supposed to be undertaken without his knowledge. This development of the desire to serve was valuable in correcting some of the petty habits among the children. Wealthier girls who had been somewhat snobbish with the very poor girls became less intolerant and kinder in their attitudes, and several other unpleasant relationships among class members were corrected thru this activity. The club befriended and helped eight children during the course of the experiment.

RESULTS OF THE EXPERIMENT

As indicated above, the procedures employed in this experiment to bring about an improvement in pupil personality included individual talks, group analysis and discussion of life problems, creative pantomime, creative plays, panel discussions, and the pupil activity club. It would be difficult to estimate the relative effectiveness of these methods. Each unit seemed to add to the general effectiveness of the plan as a whole. The children were questioned as to which unit had seemed most beneficial to them. Most of the group felt that knowing what personality goals they should work toward was one of the most important factors in the program.

TABLE 2—MEAN TEST SCORES OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS AT BEGINNING AND END OF EXPERIMENT

MEASURE	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP				CONTROL GROUP			
	Preliminary testing	Final testing	Gain	Critical ratio*	Preliminary testing	Final testing	Gain	Critical ratio*
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Child's personality score	65.0	77.0	12.0	7.6	64.7	62.6	-2.1	-1.3
Mother's personality score.....	66.5	77.8	11.3	6.9	66.0	70.1	4.1	2.5
Teacher's personality score.....	72.0	91.1	19.1	8.3	77.9	80.7	2.8	1.5
Mental age.....	11-3	11-10	0-7		11-4	11-10	0-6	
Intelligence quotient...	98.0	98.0	0.0		97.9	97.8	-0.1	

Read table: The mean score of the experimental group on the child's personality test was 65.0 at the first testing and 77.0 at the final testing, showing a gain of 12.0 points. This gain was 7.6 times as large as its probable error (see "critical ratio" in column 5). Similarly read figures for the control group and for the other measures listed in column 1.

* The critical ratio is found by dividing the gain by the probable error of the gain (probable error not shown in table). If the critical ratio equals or exceeds 4.0, the gain is considered statistically reliable; that is, the chances are very great that a gain would have been found, on the average, if the experiment had been conducted with an infinite number of sixth-grade children under identical conditions.

At the end of the experimental period each child in both the experimental and control groups was retested with the personality test and the intelligence test. Each home was visited again and the parents answered the questions on the Mother's Test. The teachers likewise answered the questions on the Teacher's Test. Table 2 compares the averages obtained for each group on these final tests with those obtained on the preliminary tests as presented in Table 1.

Table 2 shows that on each of the three personality tests the experimental group made a substantially higher average score at the end of the guidance period than at the beginning. That these gains were statistically reliable is indicated by the "critical ratios" in column 5. These ratios, computed by dividing each gain by its probable error, are all higher than 4.0, which means that the gains found were in all probability not due merely to chance errors of sampling. In other words, gains would very probably occur, on the average, if the experimental program were conducted with an infinite number of sixth-grade children under conditions identical with those existing in this study.

In contrast, the control group made no reliable gain in average score on any of the personality tests, and it actually experienced a slight loss on the Child's Test. From these facts it may be concluded with a high degree of certainty that the improvement of the experimental group was due, in part at least, to the personality guidance which that group received, and that some improvement in personality scores should be expected of other similar groups of children under the same conditions.⁷

⁷ Since this experiment was completed, other activities have been added to the program of personality development described here, including creative music, art, creative poetry, chalk talks, etc. Further information about the program may be obtained from the writer of this article.

GUIDANCE of the elementary-school child with respect to personality development through experience involves, first of all, providing work and play suited to his capacities. These experiences, while geared to his level of maturity, should at the same time stimulate him to make progress toward greater maturity. Choice is possible within a wide range of suitable activities and a little guidance in making wise choices is all that is necessary. Numerous situations in which children may exercise their initiative and accept responsibility for their own behavior arise every day.—Strang, Ruth, in *Guidance in Educational Institutions*, Thirty-Seventh Yearbook, Part I, National Society for the Study of Education, 1938, Chapter 7, p. 219-20. (Quoted by permission of the Society.)

MEETING INDIVIDUAL NEEDS THRU HOMEROOM COMMITTEES

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THE HOMEROOM is fundamentally an integrating center for the development of the individual child. Whether in the elementary school or in the junior high school, the welfare of each pupil should be the primary concern of the homeroom teacher. Usually, however, the time allotted to guidance activities in the homeroom is very limited in proportion to the importance of such activities. In our school we are fortunate in having one fifty-minute period each week, as well as five minutes before school each morning and afternoon, for homeroom guidance. This article describes the organization and activities for meeting individual needs of pupils during these periods in the writer's homeroom. While this room is in a junior high school, it is believed that the plans and procedures used are no less suitable for elementary schools.

Homeroom organization—In our school the homerooms are organized alphabetically and each one contains almost equal numbers of pupils from the five classes in the seventh and eighth grades. Two weeks at the beginning of the school term are used to organize the new homeroom. Getting acquainted is a simple procedure since the only new homeroom members are the VII-B group. Each individual remains under the guidance of the same homeroom sponsor for two years. A president, vicepresident, and secretary are elected by the group every nine weeks on the basis of dependability, courtesy, leadership, and good sportsmanship. Boys and girls alternate in these offices. Special committees are appointed by the executive committee, which consists of the homeroom officers and sponsor. A business meeting which lasts about fifteen minutes is held each week during the homeroom period. At these meetings the committees make formal reports and old and new business is discussed.

No other single force in the homeroom is so potent in the development of the individual child as is the special committee. Such a committee is appointed in each of the following fields: citizenship, scholarship, program, health, housekeeping, homeroom newspaper, service, hobby, safety, radio, and library. These committees have arisen from actual homeroom needs and are used whenever they are needed.

Citizenship committee—Report cards in the Indianapolis schools include an appraisal of certain personality traits. It was to create

enthusiasm for the development of these traits that the citizenship committee was initiated. The chairman appoints one member from each grade represented in the homeroom, and each member reports back to the chairman weekly the name of the "best citizen" in his group. The committee members record daily in special notebooks the industry, courtesy, dependability, cooperation, and punctuality of the pupils for whom they are responsible. Often pupils who are failing in one or more of these citizenship traits respond more readily to correction from the committee than to correction from a teacher. John Green, for example, was reported to the committee several times for discourtesy. The members felt that John was failing as a good citizen. He was asked to report to them at the next committee meeting, and at that time the chairman showed him the facts. Each week thereafter he reported at the meeting and soon became enthusiastic in promoting courtesy himself.

Individual citizenship failures of many kinds are corrected by the citizenship committee, and those with which the committee has difficulty are turned over to the teacher. Thus, the individual child has the benefit of the judgment of other children as well as that of the teacher. At the end of the report card period the "good citizens" are those who were not checked in any personality trait in any class by any teacher. It is remarkable how often the judgment of this homeroom committee concurs with that of the various teachers.

Scholarship committee—The committee on scholarship is similar to the citizenship committee in organization; that is, it consists of a chairman and five members. Its duties are (1) to supply assignments to pupils returning after absence, (2) to assist pupils who need extra help, (3) to inspect notebooks and make suggestions for their improvement, and (4) to help children who are new to the building. Each committee member is responsible for about eight pupils. It is reasonable to assume that some of this number will never need help from the committee. Because each committee member belongs to the group in which the pupils for whom he is responsible recite, he has the advantage of being able to note individual improvements and failures in class. In the daily mathematics drill, for example, Marie had difficulty with division of decimals. The teacher helped her and then asked the member of the scholarship committee in that group to give her some drill in this subject. Marie met the "coach" in the homeroom each morning before school until she had mastered the operation and achieved some speed.

The list of "good students" posted by the scholarship committee at the end of each six-week period includes those who have received

twelve points computed by prorating the letter grades on the report card. It should be noted that the work of this committee and of the teacher is concerned entirely with individual improvement. The teacher meets each week with the committee and at that time special cases are reported and procedures are planned. Individuals become conscious of the responsibility of requesting help when they need it, and this procedure prevents many serious adjustment problems.

Program committee—The program committee has a chairman and three members. Its first duty is to keep a card file of the names and entertaining abilities of homeroom members. Committee members also explore the special-days outline provided for all the schools, as well as other available program material. In addition to the usual types of program, the committee plans a guidance lesson each week. Appropriate topics are discussed as they arise, for example, Halloween. Courtesy and citizenship lend themselves readily to a nine-week discussion period. Dramatized lessons in courtesy encourage discussion and are good from the teaching standpoint. On the whole, guidance lessons that are fairly impromptu have as great a value as those prepared long in advance.

Plans submitted by the program committee on February 1, 1939, were as follows:

February 7

Courtesy at school—in class
THE WRITINGS OF ABRAHAM LINCOLN

February 14

Courtesy at school—in the halls
LIVING VALENTINES

February 21

Courtesy at home
ANECDOTES—GEORGE WASHINGTON

February 28

Etiquette at table
HOBBY SHOW

March 7

Courtesy in public places—streetcar
and bus
TALENT SHOW

March 14

Courtesy at the theater
OWEN'S DREAM—RADIO PLAY

March 21

Courtesy in stores
READINGS—SPRING POEMS

March 28

Courtesy in visiting friends
HOBBY SHOW

Changes are made in these plans as the weeks progress, and the "after production" report is quite different from the original plan. It is apparent that the plans of the program committee give opportunity for many individuals to take part. Thru such participation the children develop poise and self-confidence which later become valuable social assets.

Attendance and health committee—This committee has two members: the chairman and one assistant. They check attendance and tardiness twice each day and receive and record written excuses, which are then filed by the teacher. This committee is under the direct supervision of the teacher, altho a report is made by the chairman each

week at the regular homeroom meeting. This report gives the pupil pride in perfect attendance and leads to discussions of health questions which are vital to every individual.

Housekeeping committee—The housekeeping committee has as many members as the chairman feels are necessary for the execution of its duties. These duties include such daily tasks as dusting, cleaning blackboards, inspecting bookcases, caring for flowers, filling inkwells, and changing bulletin board notices. Such responsibilities develop in the individual an interest in keeping the homeroom beautiful which is hard to achieve in any other way. Marjorie, for example, was found to be an indifferent housekeeper. She was assigned to the duty of dusting but did it very poorly. Finally the chairman gave her the duty of caring for the teacher's desk, polishing the glass, and dusting it daily. She took great pride in this task, remaining after school to accomplish it. One day during the homeroom meeting she even felt moved to add to the remarks of the housekeeping chairman the thought that everyone should do his part to make the homeroom a pleasant place in which to live. Such a contribution, altho of minor importance in itself, represents an individual victory of the type which makes the homeroom essential in an effective school program.

The chairman of the housekeeping committee records duties and the names of pupils responsible for them. Housekeepers receive one point for the satisfactory completion of an assigned duty. Points are posted each week on the bulletin board and are read during the homeroom meeting.

Service committee—The service committee has three members and was originated for the purpose of giving service to the school as well as to the homeroom. Its duties include mimeographing, covering and repairing books, assisting the housekeeping committee, selling the school paper, and promoting paper sales. This committee appoints "helpers" who have the necessary abilities for each task as the occasion for it arises. The service committee helps to keep school spirit alive in individuals, gives them a sense of responsibility for their school, and fosters all impulses to render voluntary service.

Safety committee—The committee on safety is made up of three homeroom traffic officers. Anyone who has been tried in the school traffic court must appear before this committee. The committee studies the case and, if the offense is a recurring one, tries to devise some way of helping the offender to overcome his difficulty. An interesting case was that of Evelyn, who had been tried and convicted in traffic court for crossing at a corner where no patrol boy was stationed. She was sullen and indifferent when corrected by the officer and said that it

was "out of the way" for her to go by the route prescribed. Appearing before the homeroom safety committee, however, she seemed contrite and said that her mother was ill and that she had to hurry home as soon as school was out. When it was explained to her that a temporary shortage of patrol boys made the change imperative, she promised to assist with smaller children at this crossing. Thus, individual misunderstandings of school traffic rules are corrected and good fellowship between pupils and patrol boys is promoted.

Newspaper committee—In studying the individual child an analysis of his leisure interests and activities is invaluable. The remaining committees discussed here have as their purpose the stimulation of these activities. One means of stimulation is the homeroom paper, a two-page organ published weekly. On the paper committee are the editor-in-chief and two assistants, one of whom is the art editor and the other, the editor of the page known as the "Broadcaster." Each editor may have an assistant. The paper is under the direct supervision of the teacher, and the layout is submitted to her before it is prepared for mimeographing. Contributions are voluntary.

The first page of each issue is devoted to the guidance topic of the week. For example, on the subject "Courtesy at Home" the layout included several quotations on courtesy, an article on courtesy at home, several local problems for discussion, and one general problem taken from the guidance course of study. In addition, the art editor prepared an illustration of the guidance lesson. Thus the paper becomes a tool for the program committee to use in connection with the guidance program. The second page, the "Broadcaster," is a series of letters presenting the opinions of pupils on every subject from the "state of the Union" to the "state of the homeroom."

Individual children develop considerable skill in preparing articles for a weekly publication of this type. Moreover, the fact that their work appears in print stimulates them to write. There was the case of Paul, who was inspired one term by a great desire to write poetry. After considerable editing, each of his attempts was published in the room paper. These he painstakingly clipped and pasted in his notebook. While Paul probably will never become a great poet, his improvement in verse-making was remarkable, due to his participation in this activity.

Hobby committee—The duties of the three members of the hobby committee are (1) to set a date each month for a hobby show, (2) to arrange the exhibit, (3) to provide cards for entrants to sign (these are filed for reference), (4) to make pertinent books and pamphlets in the homeroom library available to interested pupils, (5) to appoint

a judging committee for the hobby show, and (6) to make awards. The awards have no intrinsic value and are made of ribbon or felt, yet they create a friendly rivalry. The card file is kept as a check on fluctuating interests. Sometimes a boy will have as many as four or five well-developed leisure activities during the two-year period in the homeroom. Another child will have only one but will become remarkably proficient in that activity.

A night meeting was the scene of an extremely interesting hobby show in which nearly every member of the room had an exhibit. The names and entries of exhibitors were mimeographed, and interested patrons of the school were directed to the various exhibits by the committee.

During one nine-week period publication of the homeroom paper was suspended and pages of a hobby book were published each week instead. Each pupil in the room contributed the story of his hobby. These stories were illustrated by the art manager and were mimeographed and stapled by the service committee. This publication aroused keen interest and gave individuals who had not been able to exhibit hobbies an opportunity to participate.

On the day of the hobby show each month the program committee asks the exhibitors to talk to the homeroom about their hobbies. These brief talks often serve to interest others in absorbing hobbies. Some time ago a pupil exhibited and discussed a model airplane which he had made. The other boys became so fascinated with his experiences that several of them asked him to help them with their models. The result was that a group of neighborhood boys engaged in a worthwhile leisure activity. Teachers studying the individual child at this level will find no more fascinating and enlightening field than that of his leisure pursuits.

Radio committee—This committee is comparatively new and was originated to satisfy specific interests of the children. The chairman calls for volunteers for the production of certain radio plays to be given at homeroom meetings. Another activity of this group is the analysis of home radio listening. Pupils are asked to listen to chosen programs, answer questionnaires, and report to the group at the regular homeroom meeting, where a discussion about radio offerings is part of the regular business. Findings of the committee stimulate listening to the best in radio and arouse interest in this entertaining avocation. For the thoughtful teacher this activity also provides an index to the home environment and habits of the individual child.

Library committee—The two members of the library committee work in cooperation with the school librarian of the Indianapolis Public

Library. One term this librarian very courteously allowed the homeroom committee to choose the books for the homeroom collection. This collection of about thirty books was kept in the homeroom thruout the term and the books were lent to the children for reading at home. In the group of books chosen by the committee there was a nice balance among the fields of travel, biography, fiction, and hobbies.

The public library furnishes a circulation card for each book. The homeroom librarians are then responsible for the lending and returning of books. The homeroom library is open before school and during the homeroom period. Facts about the leisure reading habits of the individual child are thus accessible to the teacher, and often she can guide the indifferent reader into a field of interest that amazes even himself. Children who do not like any other hobby frequently love to read, and a list of the books they choose tells a story of its own. Edwin, who had never liked to read before, suddenly became interested and read all the books on stars in the homeroom library. The librarian also obtained several very technical books on the subject for him. And then Edwin appeared at school one day proudly displaying a telescope that he had made himself.

Conclusion—There is, of course, a human factor in homeroom planning as in any other activity. Some homeroom officers are not dependable. Some committees do not achieve maximum results. Sometimes a teacher is not available for committee meetings. However, when a plan is made and the pupils are aware of it, a great deal is accomplished in spite of the failures of children or teacher. There is no greater opportunity for an alert teacher to observe and study the individual child, no greater opportunity for the child to develop into an enthusiastic and intelligent citizen, and no greater opportunity to produce a happy, wholesome atmosphere which permeates the school than is found in a homeroom where activities are planned so that every individual, regardless of his ability, is encouraged to make his contribution.

DEVELOPING ATTITUDES AND APPRECIATIONS IN THE
LIGHT OF INDIVIDUAL NEEDSBEARNICE SKEEN, *Principal*

and

LORAIN MEUSEY, *Sixth-Grade Teacher**Bush School, Salem, Oregon*

THIS ARTICLE reviews one year's work planned specifically to meet the needs of individual children in the development of democratic attitudes and ideals. The class with which this work was carried on consisted of thirty-four sixth-grade pupils. Like most such classes, it was a heterogeneous group with reading abilities ranging from second-grade to eighth-grade level and chronological ages from ten to thirteen years. The children came from homes of unskilled laborers, clerks, mill workers, machinists, druggists, teachers, lawyers, and ministers. Some had "best friends" in the group, while others were total strangers. Two children had definitely made their marks upon the school as rather unpleasant personalities. Two others presented equally serious problems because of extreme shyness, feelings of insecurity, and undesirable inhibitions. The members of this group, brought together in school for the purpose of acquiring and helping to preserve the culture of the society in which they lived, were at first highly individualistic and selfish in their attitudes and points of view. It was evident that they needed to grow in attitudes of tolerance, open-mindedness, intelligent curiosity, and social responsibility, and that each child's needs were somewhat different from those of his classmates.

Scope of the program—The general steps taken to meet these needs were as follows: (1) The teacher and principal observed some of the attitudes and appreciations evidenced by the children. It was imperative that the actual accomplishments of the children be accepted as a starting point for improvement. (2) Objectives for the group were then listed, with special notations for individual children. (3) Lines of interest, a unit of work in the social studies, and other activities were found which gave individual children opportunities to grow in the attitudes and appreciations desired. (4) These activities were guided patiently and understandingly so that each child experienced satisfaction at his own level of achievement. (5) Records were made of the actions and statements of each child which indicated changes in his attitudes and appreciations. As far as possible, observations were made when the children were unaware of the observation or were not supervised. The children were observed in the classroom, on the play-

ground, in the auditorium, backstage, in the library, in the office when working on the mimeograph, making out the cafeteria order, answering the telephone, and meeting new children. The steps mentioned in (4) and (5) were repeated many times during the year because as the children grew in the desired attitudes, the plans were changed and re-evaluations were made.

Outline of activities—The specific opportunities which permitted the children to grow in the desired attitudes are indicated in the following outline:

- I. The social studies unit, "Building a New World"
 - A. Working in groups
 - B. Finding and assembling materials
 - C. Working out reports, exhibits, booklets, etc.
 - D. Working without the immediate supervision of the teacher
 - E. Organizing work so as to utilize special abilities in drawing, lettering, and construction
 - F. Explaining plans and work to visitors
 - G. Pooling information and evaluating contributions thru general discussions
 - H. Making field trips.
- II. The school newspaper, "Bush Booster"
 - A. Understanding the function of a newspaper
 - B. Gathering news and writing articles—becoming aware of the value of what others were doing in the school
 - C. Establishing the editorial policy
 - D. Cartooning
 - E. Developing the exchange list
 - F. Planning and executing the subscription sale
 - G. Doing the bookkeeping for the paper
 - H. Preparing the mailing list and delivering papers to the rooms
 - I. Organizing the material for each issue
 - J. Doing the stylus work
 - K. Mimeographing the paper
 - L. Caring for the materials—stencils, paper, stylus, mimeoscope, stamps, and list of subscribers
 - M. Setting up a press office.
- III. Assembly programs presented by the sixth grade
 - A. Choosing the type and topic of each program
 - B. Getting or making costumes and scenery
 - C. Assigning parts—respecting each other's special abilities and showing tolerance for each one's best offerings or his reasons for not participating
 - D. Announcing numbers—gaining poise in speaking before an audience.
- IV. Miscellaneous activities
 - A. Attending assemblies
 1. Showing courtesy as an audience
 2. Sitting with friends rather than in a prescribed arrangement
 - B. Using lavatory periods—developing responsibility for quiet, orderly periods without supervision

- C. Passing to other rooms—showing courtesy to other classes
- D. Selecting radio programs for class listening
- E. Entertaining guests at luncheon—the principal of the junior high school at one time, and at another time a prominent dentist whose hobby was making health movies
 - 1. Telephoning the invitations
 - 2. Arranging flowers and place cards
 - 3. Greeting the guests
 - 4. Introducing classmates to the guests
 - 5. Conversing interestingly at the table
- F. Participating in discussions
 - 1. Discussing general policies of our school, city, state, nation, or world
 - 2. Discussing specific problems or controversial questions arising in the room
- G. Selecting and posting material for bulletin boards
- H. Doing special school jobs
 - 1. Caring for the music room
 - 2. Mimeographing material for other teachers and the principal
 - 3. Caring for the school milk and cafeteria order
 - 4. Turning the radio on at scheduled hours
 - 5. Making booklets for primary children
 - 6. Helping with the construction work in the second grade
 - 7. Helping dress the second-grade children for their assembly play
- I. Engaging in child-directed dramatizations
 - 1. Using noon periods to good advantage on rainy days
 - 2. Developing clever, entertaining dramatizations of well-known stories (*Snow White and the Seven Dwarfs*, *Ferdinand*, and *The Night Before Christmas*) without costuming or staging facilities
 - 3. Presenting the dramatizations in other rooms when invited.

Social studies unit—The unit of work in the social studies gave the children insight into the development of one social institution—shelter. The study was limited to the western hemisphere, and for this reason the unit was named "Building a New World." As the children studied, they became cognizant of the contributions of various peoples and generations to the usefulness, convenience, and beauty of the best of modern buildings. They perceived the effects of climate, topography, and natural resources upon the type of shelter used by primitive peoples. The title of the unit became ever richer in meaning as the children gained in understanding and appreciation of man's achievements in his struggles against the forces of nature, and of the possibilities offered for the future by modern inventions. The subjectmatter gave them some realization of the progress of mankind thru the ages, and awakened a respect for the ingenuity and resourcefulness of the human race. This perception of the evolution of one phase of our culture was broadened to include such fields as arithmetic and language. These were viewed by the children as inventions and tools which have been changed and improved thru the centuries to meet the growing

needs and demands of life. In consequence, the children's attitudes toward acquiring these tools for their own use improved markedly. Thus, the material studied helped the children form a background for growth in openmindedness, intelligent curiosity, tolerance, and social responsibility.

Class paper—The experiences centering in the newspaper seemed particularly rich in opportunities for the child to grow in the qualities just mentioned. The class as a whole realized how important the paper could be in helping the school. They discussed what was expected of the children coming to Bush School and what the paper could do to encourage courteous attention in the assemblies, quiet walking in the halls, soft voices, cleanliness on the schoolgrounds, protection of the front lawn and shrubs, and safety at school, on the streets, and at home.

Two editorials written by children of almost the same chronological age are given here to illustrate the different levels of social responsibility represented in the class.

SPORTSMANSHIP

It is very poor sportsmanship to fight some one smaller than yourself, because if you hurt them you are making it bad for Mrs. Skeen, your teachers, and yourself. So be a good sport and if you *have* to fight, fight at home and with someone your own size. Whoever fights smaller children is a coward and a bully. Don't fight someone bigger, or they may beat you up.—Maurice Starr.

OUR ASSEMBLIES

I have noticed that our assemblies have been most quiet. I think that we are very fortunate to have this new school and the new auditorium. We certainly have been using the auditorium well and often. We have assemblies twice a week, one for the upper grades on Friday and one for the lower grades on Wednesday. I think that the boys and girls should be highly commended for their fine spirit toward the assemblies and the assembly singing.—Marcia Moore.

The first editorial apparently had little or no effect, but the second one resulted in the "Bush Booster Hour." At this meeting, held weekly, the editorial policy of the paper was extended and all pupils were invited to report over the public address system the good things which Bush "boosters" had done for the school.

The cartoons drawn for the paper offered to Janet, a retiring, rapidly maturing child, a chance to express herself. She gained enough self-confidence from this venture to volunteer to become exchange editor when the pupil holding that position moved to another room.

Paul, the school reporter, interviewed the principal six or seven times during the year. At the first conference he was ill at ease and his questions were haltingly voiced. He wanted the principal to tell him just

what to write. She refused to do this but did help him with the spelling. With each succeeding interview his questions became better framed, and instead of trying to take down exact wordings, Paul learned to make brief notes which he later used in writing his news stories.

Other activities—A few specific cases will indicate some of the changes taking place in children as a result of activities other than those just described. For example, Richard, who was inarticulate and negativistic, admired the children who dramatized "Snow White" and later he volunteered to be in "Ferdinand," pantomiming with gusto a "pic-a-dero." The satisfaction engendered by this venture motivated him to increase his efforts in group work, in arithmetic (which he had hated), and in contributing to the newspaper. Richard's attitude changed during the year from a morbid wish to "fail" in the sixth grade to a normal interest in entering junior high school.

Donald had always been a "problem" in the sense that he was reserved and ready to agree with any adult's suggestions. An excellent student with a quiet sense of humor, he needed to use his abilities in contributing to the social welfare of the group. Don was asked if he would like to take charge of the milk and cafeteria orders. This task did not entail group work but involved summarizing correctly the orders from twelve rooms and the cook, phoning the dairy, unlocking the cafeteria, placing the daily orders for the cook in the proper place, accepting late orders, and eventually, answering the phone, receiving the messages, and delivering them accurately. At first Don would slip into the office, diffidently say, "Good morning," perform his work, and slip out again. As he grew in confidence, he became direct in his conversation, offered to do more work, and answered the telephone courteously and clearly. This self-confidence permeated his associations with others. He became a most efficient business manager for the school newspaper. To the astonishment of his teachers, he displayed an unknown flair for histrionics in his characterization of Little Eva in an all-boy burlesque of "Uncle Tom's Cabin." Still cooperative and dependable, Donald no longer accepts unquestioningly all things from all persons but has learned to stand on his own feet.

Harry, a red-haired, quick-tempered, intelligent child with no brothers or sisters, had always managed to be the center of interest in his immediate surroundings. He seemed to resent anyone who detracted from the attention that he felt was due him. He demanded that his efforts and achievements be continually recognized, altho he did not expect credit if he did not deserve it. If he failed to get attention legitimately, he resorted to other methods.

The general discussions which helped most of the children gain an

understanding of desirable attitudes were especially valuable to Harry. His quick intelligence could grasp such ideas and use them in developing for himself principles and standards to guide his conduct and thinking. These discussions also served to create a sort of "public opinion" in the group, whose approval Harry naturally desired. A variety of activities encouraged him to apply his principles in specific situations, sometimes with marked success and sometimes with disappointing failure. But Harry could be helped to understand how even failures may be valuable.

In the course of the year Harry did not become a thoroly generous and thoughtful person, but he did grow in his consideration of others as evidenced by more courteous manners and a more selfless attitude. One instance of the latter was his remark to Betty, with whom he had collaborated on a lengthy news article for the school paper. Betty was a bit disappointed that their names had not appeared as the authors of the front page story and suggested that there was more satisfaction in writing editorials because they were signed. But Harry, who had once been so covetous of recognition, asserted, "I don't see that it matters—if we get out a good paper."

Jacqueline was very quiet, showed no initiative whatever, and did not respond well to suggestions. Late in the year she worked in a small group on the unit, "Building a New World." She realized that the rest of the children were depending upon her contribution to the New World's Fair, and she forgot herself in her work of presenting a display that would be meaningful, helpful, and attractive to the others. She showed initiative and ingenuity in getting materials and arranging an attractive exhibit. Her self-consciousness disappeared and she became more animated and pleasing in manner. She even volunteered to announce an assembly number and did it with poise.

Bill was a charming fellow—friendly, enthusiastic, and dependable. He was always willing to help with any job, but he was a slow thinker and a poor reader (his vision was poor) and he was below grade in arithmetic and spelling. If emphasis had been put on academic achievements, Bill would have been under a constant strain and doomed to continual disappointment and failure. As it was, he learned to do excellent work with the stylus and mimeograph, and did much of the mimeographing of the school paper, cafeteria menus, and seatwork for the primary teachers. He was a faithful worker in any social studies group, learning from the discussion of the others and applying what he learned to some type of construction work. He broadened his interests, and his reading and arithmetic improved as his experiences in-

creased his general information. Bill was happy and secure in a feeling of "belonging" and of ability to make worthy contributions.

Most of the children showed a measure of growth in the desired attitudes during the year. That the methods used were not always successful, however, is evident in the case of Wilber. This boy had been a problem to his teachers, parents, and friends for at least six years. He was thirteen years old, irresponsible, erratic, and at times charmingly good-natured and generous. He seemingly had average intelligence but was a poor student in reading, spelling, and arithmetic. He had as many opportunities as the other children to grow in the desired attitudes, but to him they were not opportunities; they were baffling situations which resulted in unthinking, annoying, and often antisocial reactions. He was given jobs involving responsibility, such as working in the cafeteria and preparing bulletin boards and posters. He soon had to be removed from the cafeteria because of the temptation offered by the money which was brought there each day. However, he carried thru his share of work on the bulletin board, working an hour and a half after school to complete it.

Last year Wilber was punished a great deal for his misdemeanors, being subjected to several whippings by his parents, many lectures by teachers, parents, and police, and almost daily banishment from the classroom. This year no attempt has been made at school to inflict punishment other than the natural and inevitable results of his misdeeds. He was incarcerated in the city's juvenile jail cell for several days as a result of repeated thefts. Wilber's needs, as far as attitudes and appreciations are concerned, have not been met by the school.

Conclusion—While attitudes and appreciations are difficult to guide and evaluate, they are of the utmost importance in education. Their development must begin where the child now is. His growth must be judged with reference to his own level of achievement and not with reference to adult standards. As the child experiences satisfaction in situations and activities such as those mentioned above, there is created in him a desire to raise his level of response.

The methods described in this article require a democratic type of school administration and classroom control. A successful program depends upon democratic processes rather than autocratic supervision or coercion. Moreover, there must be no discouragement or cessation of efforts because of the failures of some children in specific situations. When such failures occur, the stage must be reset to stimulate further efforts toward the desired outcomes.

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CHAPTER V

PROVIDING FOR CHILDREN OF SUPERIOR ABILITY

EDITORIAL COMMENT

GENERALLY SPEAKING, our schools have made less adequate provision for children of superior ability than for those whose abilities are only average or below. Since the curriculum has been planned primarily for average pupils, the gifted child usually makes high marks and is seldom considered a problem by teachers. The slow-learning child, however, finds it difficult to meet the standards for average children, and his need for different standards as well as for additional help from the teacher is readily observed. Hence we find remedial programs and special classes for slow pupils in many schools, but relatively meager opportunities for superior pupils in most schools. If the potentialities of superior children for competent leadership are to be fully realized, the school must adapt its program to the capacities and needs of these children.

Most educators agree that the curriculum should be enriched for superior children, but there are sharp differences of opinion as to how this can best be done. Some favor the more rapid progress of these children thru the regular curriculum. Others believe that the program at each grade level should be enriched for superior children in the regular classes. Still others contend that adequate enrichment is not likely to be provided unless superior children are grouped together in special classes. Each of these methods appears to have merit when used under favorable conditions. Each one is discussed and illustrated in this chapter.

In the opening article Blair gives a critical review of school provisions for children of superior mental ability. The next two authors, Danielson and Norris, describe the programs in special classes for such children in two large cities. Obenchain tells of a program involving special classes, enrichment in regular classes, and ability grouping. Rickard reports a plan in which only pupils of unusually high scholarship are selected for membership on the central school councils.

The last two articles deal with provisions for children gifted in a particular field. Arbuckle tells how one city provides for children with exceptional ability in the visual arts. Cochran and Wills explain the organization and functioning of a school orchestra.

Readers wishing to extend their study of this topic should consult the references mentioned on page 434.—*Editorial Committee.*

TYPES OF PROVISIONS FOR CHILDREN OF SUPERIOR ABILITY

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WHAT IS MEANT by "children of superior ability"? Terman in 1916 classed as superior all children who scored an IQ of 110 or higher on the *Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon Intelligence Scale*.¹ Among unselected children it was found that this classification included those who ranked in the highest 20 percent. On the *Revised Stanford-Binet Scales*, which made their appearance in 1937, a change was made with respect to what should be considered superior intelligence.² On these tests the authors classify as superior only those children whose IQ's reach 120 or higher. This would include those who rate in the highest 12.6 percent when a group of unselected children are tested. Children who make IQ's of 140 or above on the *Revised Stanford-Binet Scales* (highest 1 percent, approximately) are referred to as "very superior."

Mental superiority is thus largely judged on the basis of scores made on well-standardized intelligence tests. The results of these tests, however, are not the only means of identifying superior children. "Every teacher has at times been astonished by the keen insight and the reasoning ability of some child in his room who not only learns quickly the lessons which are assigned to him but who reaches far beyond them in the questions which he asks and the problems which he solves. The gifted child is essentially the thinker and the problem-solver of a group. He is not content with merely learning what other people say but is eager to think thru his own problems and to extend his interests beyond the immediate present into unknown fields. Creative ability is his and creative ability it is which the world needs in its onward march of progress."³

In this article the "superior child" is defined as the child who possesses exceptional intelligence which expresses itself in the ability to carry on reasoning and creative thinking at the higher levels. He is the child who will be the leader of tomorrow. The kind of leader he will be depends largely upon the type of training the school of today gives him.

¹ Terman, L. M. *The Measurement of Intelligence*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1916. p. 78-79.

² Merrill, Maud A. "The Significance of I.Q.'s on the Revised Stanford-Binet Scales." *Journal of Educational Psychology* 29: 650; December 1938.

³ Martens, Elise H. *Teacher's Problems with Exceptional Children: II—Gifted Children*. U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Office of Education, Pamphlet No. 41. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1933. p. 8.

There are at least three major methods which schools have employed in an effort to provide optimum opportunities for the educational development of superior children. They are as follows: (1) rapid advancement (acceleration), (2) enrichment of the regular curriculum, and (3) special classes. These methods are not mutually exclusive in every respect, for all three are concerned to some extent with enriching the school programs of superior children. In the next few paragraphs a detailed description of these three methods will be given together with a careful consideration of the merits of each.

Rapid advancement (acceleration)—This is the oldest and probably the most common method of providing for children of superior ability. One of the chief characteristics of this method is the time-saving element, for under it a child can complete his schooling in much less than the regular time. Acceleration is brought about thru one of the two following procedures: (1) giving extra promotions to individual pupils ("skipping grades"), or (2) sectioning superior pupils in rapidly-moving classes (doing two years' work in one, or three years' work in two).

According to the first procedure a bright child who has just finished the third grade might, for example, be promoted to the fifth grade without ever taking the fourth grade. As a rule the bright third-grader who finds himself elevated to the fifth grade has little trouble in keeping up with his new class. He is "kept out of mischief" and in general finds the new studies, which are more commensurate with his ability, challenging to him. In many school systems this is often the only avenue open for the effective education of superior children. This procedure, however, possesses several rather objectionable features. In the first place, children who skip grades often miss much basic content material which is never covered in their further studies. Altho the child may not immediately recognize that large gaps exist in his scholastic experience, sooner or later he may find himself without a specific tool or skill which was taught in the grade he skipped. A second criticism of this plan of acceleration arises from the possibility that the child may be placed in a social group for which he is unfitted. His physical, emotional, and social development may be normal for his age, but grade acceleration forces him to associate with children who are much more mature in these respects than he. Many undesirable consequences may affect the child who is placed in such an unnatural environment. The skipping procedure is probably the least satisfactory of the various methods that have been used for meeting the needs of superior children.

The second acceleration procedure, namely, that of sectioning superior pupils to rapidly-moving classes, has certain distinct ad-

vantages over the plan of giving extra promotions. The most important advantage is that no serious gaps are allowed to occur in the child's scholastic experience. No grades are skipped. The entire work of two grades will often be covered in one year. An example of this type of arrangement is found in the experimental school of the University of Illinois. Children of the schools in the vicinity of the university who have finished the sixth grade with at least a *B* average in all their elementary-school subjects are eligible to take the examinations for admission to the sub-freshman group of the University of Illinois High School. The examinations consist of a battery of achievement tests and an intelligence test. Those children ranking highest on these tests are admitted to the sub-freshman class where they complete the work of the seventh and eighth grades in one year. In addition to covering the regular two years' work in one, the children participate in a number of enrichment activities such as the study of art and music appreciation.

The Chicago public schools⁴ are experimenting with rapidly-moving classes for superior pupils. Children with superior general ability are identified after their first half-year in school and are placed in classes where they will complete the first seven grades in six years. They spend a full year in the eighth grade, but they save one year in completing the entire grade school course.

A limited amount of acceleration such as is provided in rapidly-moving classes is no doubt desirable. Allowing a bright child to advance somewhat more rapidly than the ordinary child automatically provides for certain benefits of enrichment.⁵ Furthermore, there is evidence to show that a moderate amount of acceleration produces no detrimental effects upon a superior child.⁶ Besides saving a possible year of time, the superior pupil will tend to avoid habits of indolence which he might acquire if he were not allowed to occupy himself with studies which constitute a real challenge to his intelligence. When the accelerative process is carried to extremes, however, it can easily be a major factor contributing to a child's maladjustment.

Enrichment of the regular curriculum—In order to avoid any undesirable effects that may result from accelerating superior pupils, a number of schools have set up enrichment programs which do not call for special or rapid promotions of any kind. The superior pupil

⁴ "New Plan for the Chicago Schools." *School and Society* 45: 450-51; March 27, 1937.

⁵ Freeman, F. N. "The Treatment of the Gifted Child in the Light of Scientific Evidence." *Elementary School Journal* 24: 652-61; May 1924.

⁶ Wilkins, W. L. "The Social Adjustment of Accelerated Pupils." *School Review* 44: 445-55; June 1936. † Engle, T. L. "Achievements of Pupils Who Have Had Double Promotions in Elementary School." *Elementary School Journal* 36: 185-89; November 1935.

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remains at his grade level and in his regular room, but carries on a wide variety of activities in addition to the regular class work. These activities often take the form of supplementary reading, the development of special problems and projects, and simple research.

The St. Louis schools⁷ furnish an example of an attempt to provide for superior children and at the same time leave them in their regular room and grade. Each teacher is made responsible for meeting the individual needs of all types of pupils in his class, superior as well as average and retarded children. One fourth-grade teacher, for example, guided a ten-year-old boy with an IQ of 137 in supplementing his regular work in science with special exhibit pictures, and in enriching his work in history with a report on Andrew Carnegie and the Palace of Peace. This boy also wrote an original play. Another teacher of an eighth-grade class reported that a twelve-year-old girl who had an IQ of 143 performed the following supplementary activities: (1) wrote a series of book reviews, (2) conducted make-believe radio broadcasts in which other pupils participated, (3) set up a scientific laboratory in her home and reported her experiments to the class, and (4) served as the leader of a reading club.

From a theoretical standpoint this method of having each teacher provide for her own gifted pupils by encouraging and supervising appropriate supplementary work is very desirable. Many obstacles, however are encountered in its practical application. The typical teacher is often too busy with her average and slow-learning pupils to devote much time to the one or two very superior children in her classroom. Furthermore, it is too much to expect that every teacher in charge of a class will be sufficiently versatile and ingenious to arrange suitable activities for certain children of unusual ability. It might, for example, be desirable to teach a modern foreign language to an especially gifted sixth-grader or to assist him with some complicated science project. It is questionable whether the average teacher would have the qualifications for directing such work. However, if sufficiently high standards for teacher personnel can be met, the method of enrichment in regular classes is ideal.

A somewhat different type of enrichment program for gifted children has recently been carried out in Washington, D. C., at the fourth-, fifth-, and sixth-grade levels.⁸ Hobby clubs have been formed to give opportunity for enrichment to children who possess unusual talents

⁷ Bear, M. V. "How St. Louis Schools Serve Their Bright Pupils." *Journal of the National Education Association* 28: 121; April 1939.

⁸ Hahn, Julia L. "Hobby Clubs for Children with Special Gifts." *Educational Method* 18: 21-26; October 1938. The description given here conforms with the present program in Washington and differs slightly from that described in Dr. Hahn's article.

and interests along specific lines. There is a glee club, a creative writing club, an art club, a science club, and a creative dramatics club. These groups are guided by teachers who are skilled in these respective areas and who are interested in working with gifted children. The clubs meet once a week at two o'clock in the afternoon. At this time the selected children leave their regular classrooms and go to a centrally located school where the club activities are carried on. From one to three children are chosen from each of eighteen schools for participation in each of the five clubs. Admission to membership in the clubs is not based upon scores made on an intelligence test, but upon the basis of interest and unusual ability in the work to be undertaken by the club. Experience has shown that the majority of the qualifiers are also children of superior general mental ability and outstanding achievement.

Administrators of the cooperating Washington schools have praised this plan highly. One principal had the following to say regarding a boy of outstanding ability in science who was enrolled in the science club: "This child has made fine contributions from his contacts with the club. He made a telephone switchboard for school use." Another principal reported of a child with an IQ of 134 who has an achievement rating five years above his grade level: "The club is very desirable for M—— as it gives a wider scope for his interest in music and brings him in contact with other children of similar talents." This method of enrichment by means of clubs for children with special gifts is undoubtedly very valuable. It is unlikely, however, that this one procedure can, by itself, adequately meet the needs of all superior children.

Special classes—An increasing number of schools have set up special classes for children of superior general mental ability. These classes differ from the rapidly-moving classes discussed earlier under the heading of acceleration in that their sole concern is enrichment with no attempt at shortening the period of formal education.

Cleveland⁹ was one of the first cities to establish this type of special class. In this school system, classes enrolling twenty-five to thirty superior children each pursue an enriched curriculum, usually by the use of the project method. Many field trips are made; French is taught; wide supplementary reading is done; and every child learns to typewrite out of curiosity. Discipline is no problem. Goddard states that in observing these classes for five years he has never seen a child that needed disciplining. The children are apparently too interested in what they are doing and too busy to get into mischief as so often

⁹ Goddard, H. H. *School Training of Gifted Children*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1928. 226 p.

happens when superior pupils are left to their own devices in the traditional classroom.

Los Angeles¹⁰ has also developed promising classes for children of superior ability. The stated aim of these "opportunity rooms," as they are called, is to keep the minds of the pupils happily and purposefully active. Each room is turned into a laboratory where the child is permitted to work, experiment, and learn to the limit of his ability. A teacher who wishes to be selected to guide the activities of these special classes must satisfy the following conditions: (1) be a quick and eager learner herself, (2) be a student of mental hygiene, (3) know literature, the arts, and the sciences, and be able to recognize creative ability in these fields, and (4) have among her teaching tools music, drawing, and a modern language.

Probably the most carefully planned and complete program of enrichment that has yet been developed for superior children is to be found in Public School 500 (Speyer School), New York City.¹¹ The classes conducted there are composed of children whose IQ's range between 130 and 200 (Stanford-Binet). The age range of the children at the time of this writing is from nine to twelve years.

The chief enrichment project which the classes have undertaken is a study of what has been called "The Evolution of Common Things." The children, being of such a high level of intelligence, are unusually curious and enjoy tracing the history and development of many of the common things which are customarily taken for granted. Clothing, transportation, communication, shelter, illumination, and sanitation have all been investigated by the pupils from this point of view. This type of activity not only provides much stimulating work for the children, but also gives them an acquaintance with the evolution of our civilization which is so essential for one who would make further contributions to what now exists. It is from children of the mental ability range found in these classes that we may expect the leaders, scientists, and philosophers of tomorrow to emerge.

Closely related to the unit on "The Evolution of Common Things" at Speyer School is one on biography which has an important place in the curriculum. The children are also being taught to read and speak the French language. There is further special work in general science, music, dramatics, and handicrafts. One hour each week is devoted

¹⁰ Los Angeles City Schools. *Fourth Yearbook of the Division of Psychology and Educational Research*. School Publication No. 211. Los Angeles, Calif.: the Schools, 1931. p. 67-87.

¹¹ Hollingworth, Leta S. "The Founding of Public School 500; Speyer School." *Teachers College Record* 38: 119-28; November 1936. ¶ Hollingworth, Leta S. "An Enrichment Curriculum for Rapid Learners at Public School 500; Speyer School." *Teachers College Record* 39: 296-306; January 1938. ¶ Schuck, M. I. "Curriculum Enrichment for Rapid Learners." *Social Education* 2: 173-76; March 1939.

to meetings of the Games Club, where the children learn skills required in various games in order to insure worthy use of their leisure time and to aid them in their social development. Reading, writing, arithmetic, and other tool subjects are not neglected, for the mornings are spent in mastering the established elementary-school curriculum by means of the "contract method." Tests have shown that the children are well in command of these fundamental subjects. For example, when the median chronological age of the members of the classes was nine years and six months, the average educational standing as measured by the *Stanford Achievement Tests*¹² was found to be in the middle of the seventh grade.

At this point a brief evaluation of the special class should be made. It is apparent that one distinct advantage of the special class is that the teacher is free to give his full and undivided attention to the problems of gifted children. In a heterogeneous class the superior child is very likely to receive inadequate attention even tho the intentions of the teacher may be the very best. Certain objections, however, have been raised against the special class. Among them are the following: (1) that the procedure is undemocratic, (2) that the children placed in such classes are very likely to become conceited, and (3) that the superior children are needed in the regular classes to serve as pacemakers for the other children.

These objections, in the writer's opinion, are somewhat superficial and scarcely square with the facts. If democracy stands for anything, it stands for equality of opportunity and the right of each individual to develop to the limit of his ability in order that he may be of maximum service to society. The children in special classes are given no special privileges. They are merely given a chance to fully develop the superior abilities which they possess. To the complaint that special classes may make gifted children conceited, Goddard makes the following reply: "Out of some five hundred children who have been in the Cleveland special classes from one to four years, we have yet to hear of one who has been made conceited."¹³ Furthermore, it would appear that the regular class would afford greater opportunity for a superior child to become conceited if he were so inclined, because of the fact that he is likely to be by far the brightest in the group. In the special class a bright child finds himself surrounded by obvious competition. As to the third objection that the dull and average children need the stimulation of the superior pupils, it may be said that instead of being stimulated these children are more often discouraged by the

¹² Published by the World Book Co., Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York.

¹³ Goddard, H. H., *op. cit.*, p. 27.

presence in the class of those with whom they cannot successfully compete. In general, the literature of the field shows that special classes for superior children have been surprisingly successful in the places where they have been established.

Summary—Since children of superior mental endowment are the most valuable assets that our nation possesses, it is becoming more and more apparent that suitable provision must be made for their educational development. In this article, three methods of meeting the needs of superior children have been considered: (1) rapid advancement (acceleration), (2) enrichment provided thru regular classroom facilities, and (3) enrichment provided by special classes. More detailed illustrations of these methods are given by other contributors to this chapter.

Of the two plans for acceleration, the rapidly-moving class has been shown to be superior to the "skipping" procedure. The former method, when supplemented with enrichment activities, has many points to commend it if the amount of acceleration involved is not excessive. The plan of enriching the superior pupils' educational experience thru regular classroom channels has excellent possibilities provided "master teachers" are placed in charge of each class. Special classes for superior children have an advantage over other methods in that more careful attention can be given to working out programs especially suited to the needs of these children. The special class is particularly adaptable to the larger schools and communities where sufficient numbers of gifted children of the various ages are available to make the formation of such classes feasible.

SPECIAL CLASSES FOR SUPERIOR CHILDREN IN A FAR-WESTERN CITY

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IT IS ENCOURAGING to find in our schools an upward trend of interest in gifted children and in their adequate training. Professional associations of educators are devoting an increasing number of their meeting sessions to discussion of the problem of the gifted child. Educational literature is giving more space to consideration of the subject. Teachers colleges are impressing upon their students the importance of special attention to pupils with unusual capacity. The federal Office of Education has for some time been actively engaged in studying the needs of and provisions for mentally superior children in the United States.

Efforts to provide for the education of gifted children have taken different forms due to divergent opinions as to the kind of learning situation that is preferable. Some authorities believe superior children should find their places as the leaders in regular heterogeneous class groups; others maintain that such children should be allowed to advance thru the standard curriculum at a rapid rate; a third group believes that the needs of mentally gifted children are best served in special groups of a more or less homogeneous nature.

The Los Angeles public schools were among the first to organize special classes for children of superior general mental ability. These so-called opportunity classes in elementary schools are conducted according to the philosophy that curriculum modification and enrichment in homogeneous groups are the most desirable means of conserving and developing the capacity for creative leadership among superior children. The application of this philosophy in Los Angeles is described in the following pages.

SELECTION AND ORGANIZATION OF PUPILS

Opportunity classes are organized in elementary schools upon the request of the principal if the number of pupils of superior mental ability indicates the need for such classes. There must be approximately thirty pupils with IQ's of 125 or above in the school or within easy transportation distance of the school.

Plan of grouping—To afford reasonable social homogeneity the chronological age range is limited. A group in one school, for example, is made up of pupils from the four sections of the fifth and sixth

grades; in another school an opportunity class may draw from five grade sections. After the group is organized, grade designations and boundaries are forgotten. The class becomes a social working unit, not a combination of grades.

If it were administratively feasible, classes would be organized in three neighboring schools. One would enrol children seven and eight years of age; another, children of nine and ten years; and a third, children of eleven and twelve years. The age grouping, however, would be left sufficiently flexible to permit an individual pupil to be enrolled in the group best suited to his developmental needs. Eleven-year-old children often have the social maturity as well as the intellectual ability of pupils four to seven years older. The following example of such social maturity was pointed out by the late Leta S. Hollingworth:

An eleven-year-old boy, of IQ close to 180, decided to run for the office of class president in the senior high school to which he had been accelerated. His classmates were around sixteen years of age. During the electioneering a proponent of a rival candidate arose to speak against the eleven-year-old; and he said, among other things, "Fellows, we don't want a president in knee pants."

In the midst of the applause following this remark, the eleven-year-old arose, and waving his hand casually in the direction of the full-length portrait of George Washington on the wall, he said, "Fellows, try to remember that when George got to be the Father of our country he was wearing knee pants."

Our eleven-year-old was elected by a large majority. He gave evidence not only of an IQ of 180, but also of the additional qualities of political leadership of a high degree: audacity, presence of mind, good humor, grace, and, above all, the genuine desire to be a popular leader. He knew how to bridge, by a debonair gesture, the great gap between him and those to be led.¹

Altho Los Angeles does not advocate or practice to any extent the acceleration of pupils, an adaptable plan of opportunity class grouping by chronological age would probably place such a boy among his social as well as his mental equals.

Use of examinations—Children are selected for the special classes by mental examinations. Candidacy for the examinations is indicated by the routine counselor surveys of schools or by teachers' recommendations.

It is easy for teachers of large classes to err in their judgment of mental ability. Oftentimes children who have been unnecessarily troublesome and puzzling are recommended for testing for possible admission to a class for the *mentally retarded*. Not infrequently a high degree of intelligence is revealed by examination of those children, much to the surprise of the parents, teachers, and school principals.

"He shows no interest in his schoolwork and does not do the assignments; he delights in annoying other pupils" was written of one boy

¹ Hollingworth, Leta S. "What We Know About the Early Selection and Training of Leaders." *Teachers College Record* 40: 580; April 1939.

on the blank requesting an examination for placement in a class for the mentally retarded. This boy's score on a Stanford-Binet test gave him an IQ of 162. Enrolled in an opportunity class, he did outstanding work in research and in creative writing. His use of English was exceptionally good and his vocabulary rich. His choice of reading material was mature both in quality and in variety. In his first semester in junior high school, however, his teacher of English gave him a failure mark, which she explained was based on his "lack of interest and failure to hand in the assignments." In the same semester he was given a three-hour college entrance examination with four hundred entering freshmen. His score on the examination *exceeded the scores of 48 percent of the freshmen.*

Following that episode an understanding and cooperative school counselor so arranged the boy's program that he finished his three years of junior high school in a year and a half. He completed his senior high-school courses "with recommendations" in two and a half years, altho he confessed that he "was always irked by the unnecessary dullness of the courses." At eleven, when the first acceleration was made, this boy was nine inches taller than the average for his age. His physical and social maturity as well as his mental superiority made rapid advancement advisable.

QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS

Perhaps the most difficult phase of administering the Los Angeles program for superior children is the selection of qualified teachers for the opportunity classes. The legal code of the state of California takes care of the least important of the qualifications when it stipulates the basis for certification of elementary-school teachers. Assuming, then, that all certified teachers possess the minimum academic and professional training required for a bachelor's degree, what other qualifications are sought?

Groups of children who test in the highest 1.5 percent for intellect have been gathered together. The purpose in so grouping them is that each may, according to his developmental needs, "live the good life" as part of a social group while he is acquiring the skills, perfecting the cultural practices, and developing the attitudes that will help him to continue to live fully and usefully. Adequate realization of this purpose demands a teacher who is herself in the highest 1.5 percent in general mental ability and is a well-integrated person capable of living a life of satisfying cultural pursuits. Such a teacher should be acquainted with the tools of fine living: books and bookmakers, music and musicians, art and artists of all kinds, people and their

institutions. These she should know, and her knowledge and appreciation should grow from day to day.

Further, a teacher of superior children should possess the habit of tolerance and appreciation of the efforts of all with whom she comes in contact in order that she may cultivate such a habit in the children she guides. Hollingworth has said, "Failure to learn how to tolerate in a reasonable fashion the foolishness of others less gifted leads to bitterness, disillusionment, and misanthropy, which are the ruin of potential leaders."²

Well-qualified teachers of gifted pupils know children and their needs. They recognize the desires and drives of childhood. They understand thoroly the laws of mental hygiene and how to apply them to individual cases under specific conditions. They are leaders of the type that expect pupils to take the initiative wherever possible, and they exercise no thwarting dictatorship. If teachers claim to know all the answers, they fail in the endeavor to assist pupils thru an experience curriculum. For the most part, competent teachers of superior children know how to find the answers and have the ability and the willingness to help children search for them.

Difficult tho it may seem to find a teacher thus qualified to lead a group of very superior children thru worthwhile experiences for two or three years of school life, Los Angeles has been privileged to select from the large number employed in elementary schools just such teachers for the opportunity classes. They all have, to a marked degree, the spirit of the one who, in summer school sessions, took courses in the history of art, nature study, stagecraft, and drama construction in order that she might be better prepared to lead the children and to enjoy these subjects with them. This teacher wanted a master's degree in education, but she substituted these courses for others which were prerequisites for such a degree because she knew the children did not need the technical courses in education. With such teachers the intellectual and emotional development and the personal integrity of each child are safe as far as the school can make them so.

CURRICULUM ADJUSTMENTS AND TEACHING METHODS

A paramount consideration in the instruction of gifted children is the type of curriculum which they shall experience. What are the basic requirements to which enrichment procedures shall be applied? What constitutes curriculum enrichment for the children in these special groups? Los Angeles has come to believe, after eighteen years of experience with opportunity class children and their teachers, that

² Hollingworth, Leta S., *op. cit.*, p. 586.

enrichment is largely a matter of methods of instruction rather than of changes in subjectmatter or materials. Course-of-study requirements, where such exist, can be made to enrich the lives of the children if they are "pupil purposed" and taught thru actual pupil experiences.

Acquisition of basic skills—Children with high IQ's need, as much as any other children, to acquire skill in arithmetic, spelling, the grammar of language usage, and the other tools of learning. In fact, these boys and girls are the ones who will make the most valuable use of the tools. Imposed drill, as such, is meaningless to them and usually unnecessary. They seek for meanings and relationships in what they do, and they work with definite purposes in view. In the opportunity classes tool subjects make up an integral part of the enriched experiences of the pupils thru the methods of instruction employed. The philosophy of that instruction involves no formal lesson assignments and no required "recitations." Each pupil is encouraged to watch his own progress and improvement.

Occasionally it is found that relying largely upon the child to attend to his own deficiencies fails to produce the desired end. On one occasion the principal of a school, an expert teacher of penmanship, undertook to teach a course of formal writing lessons when it seemed that the handwriting of the children was especially poor. A marked improvement resulted. Also, there were amusing discussions of the unaccustomed silent march to and from the penmanship room, the rising and passing at signals, and the writing in time to rhythmical counting. There was, however, general agreement with one child who said, "We deserved it because we did not do our independent practicing."

Research problems and projects—Adjustment of the curriculum to meet the needs of these groups also involves giving the children daily practice in creating, discovering, inventing, adapting, and problem-solving on their own levels. A major field of experience is set up for each group, the selection of the field being governed by the interests of the pupils. In theory, approximately one semester's study is devoted to the general field of science or the "evolution of common things." The second semester's work is built around the cultural aspects and institutions of some period in the history of civilization, including the people of that period and their achievements in art and literature.

Each unit is organized, as far as possible, as a problem to be investigated and solved. The units are not presented as opportunities for collecting facts or acquiring knowledge for its own sake, since it is recognized that such activity requires little or no exercise of critical judgment. Rather, each project grows out of pupil interest, has a

specific purpose, and evolves thru careful pupil planning. Among the subjects chosen for unit study have been the following: (1) food and nutrition; (2) what people know of astronomy and how they use the knowledge (an observatory and a planetarium in the vicinity aided in this study); (3) weather; (4) publishing a newspaper; (5) music on the pages of our history (the production of a pageant showed the connection between the stages of our historical development and their music); (6) illumination; and (7) plant propagation and chemiculture.

One class spent a profitable and interesting period investigating the question of why Los Angeles is bringing water thru mountains and across deserts to the city. The study developed until it included the consideration of the uses, conservation, and control of water in general and the history of the city's water system. The group took advantage of opportunities for much firsthand investigation and research, numerous observation expeditions, and many illustrations of means of water control and transmission.

When this project was completed, the saturation point of interest in the development of the city had not been reached. The group had caught glimpses of early life and conditions. They wanted to spend more time in learning how the city, as they knew it, had grown up from the past. They had, however, been troubled by the scarcity of books on any phase of the history of Los Angeles. Why not write their own book? The discussion finally ended with a plan for the children to write a child's book of history stories of early Los Angeles. It was an ideal problem. It had a concrete, accessible goal which was not too distant. Materials were gathered, scrutinized, criticized, and sifted. Historic spots were visited, pictures studied, and people interviewed. Something had to be learned about the writing of books.

When a historical incident was chosen as the basis for a story, the children lived over again that particular occasion. This was done in dramatic play on the schoolgrounds or on the school stage. Conferences and evaluations preceded and followed the dramatizations. Stories were written and illustrated by individuals and committees, and were subjected to editing by the entire group. Some stories were dramatized for the parents. This necessitated a study of stagecraft and costume-making and gave practice in obtaining the right amount of help from the community.

The finished manuscript now consists of twenty-nine stories and several poems of real merit. It is hoped that other children will enjoy them in the future. However, the writers have yet to learn something of publishing and publishers before their manuscript will become the finished book that has been planned.

The problem for each unit of study is the socializing bond for the

group. Each boy and girl contributes his or her part to the accomplishment of the common goal. The development of habits of working together is essential. It is equally essential that each child follow his own interests and develop his special abilities. Practical provisions are made for, and encouragement is given to, pupil investigation, research, and production. The class is assembled whenever a child or group of children wants to report or to ask for assistance from others. In each group there are a number of clubs, pairs, and individuals working informally on their particular contributions to the unit.

The various aspects of science are most popular with the children. Microscopes and magnifying glasses are treasured and in constant use, as are any other bits of laboratory apparatus. The scientific investigations carried on are entirely worthy of the intelligence of the children and they amply justify the amount of time consumed.

Creative activities—The creative ability of children of superior general intelligence is of high order and needs only the right soil in which to flourish. The encouragement of appreciative attention brings forth original expression in simple inventions, music, dances, stories, and poems. The workshop period, during which all are free to engage in the "making of things" or in such creative work as drawing, painting, and modeling, is an established part of the program. Another part of the program is the individual contribution time, or "class meeting," when the group listens to its own members as they present their offerings for information or appreciation.

In the opportunity classes most major units engage much creative as well as research ability. For example, one class wrote the verse and composed the music for a pageant illustrating the development of music. Some of the music has been sung by professionals. "The Hebrew Song of Thanksgiving" and the Negro spiritual, "They Warn't Afraid," received high praise from the director of music in the local schools.

The class newspaper furnishes incentive for writing and for illustrating. However, the children often write, draw, or model purely for the pleasure of expression. It is not a rare phenomenon for a pupil to write a book of poems or to fill a portfolio with sketches. The following was selected from one eleven-year-old girl's collection of fifty poems:

THE SEA

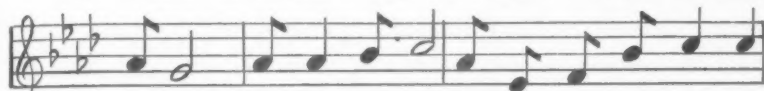
The clouds were floating lazily; I saw them as I ran.
I could not tell where the sea left off or where the sky began.
The waves were rolling languidly, softly at my feet,
And as they dropped upon the shore I seemed to hear the beat
Of eternal footsteps, pounding ever on the sand,
Sweeping, keeping, beating time with the waters of the strand.

—M. G. H.

THEY WARN'T AFRAID



1. Jonah in the whale's mouth, He warn't afraid, He warn't
2. Noah in the big ark, He warn't afraid, He warn't
3. David fit the gi - - ant, He warn't afraid, He warn't
4. Joseph in the dark pit, He warn't afraid, He warn't
5. Daniel in the lion's den, He warn't afraid, He warn't



afraid, He warn't afraid, Jonah in the whale's mouth,
 afraid, He warn't afraid, Noah in the big ark,
 afraid, He warn't afraid, David fit the gi - - ant,
 afraid, He warn't afraid, Joseph in the dark pit,
 afraid, He warn't afraid, Daniel in the lion's den,



He warn't afraid, 'Cause he had faith in God.
 He warn't afraid, 'Cause he had faith in God.
 He warn't afraid, 'Cause he had faith in God.
 He warn't afraid, 'Cause he had faith in God.
 He warn't afraid, 'Cause he had faith in God.

FIGURE I—NEGRO SPIRITUAL COMPOSED IN A CLASS OF GIFTED CHILDREN

Nor are the children with high IQ's one-sided possessors of a single creative ability. One ten-year-old boy with an IQ of about 170 made up a dance and taught it to a group of companions. In the next half hour he happened to see the face of a classmate express appreciation of a joke and he described it thus:

CYNTHIA SMILES

A joke!
 The lips begin to part!
 The forehead wrinkles.
 A thing within her tinkles.
 The wave of laughs begins.
 Then, like unto a dart
 She laughs.

It has broken!
 Now it ebbs
 And fades away.

—D. W.

On another occasion this same ten-year-old handed the orchestra teacher an originally arranged orchestration with the piano part left out. The arrangement was good. The teacher liked it, but she pointed

out the omission of the part for the piano. "I omitted that intentionally," said the boy. "I resent the piano. It dominates the whole orchestra, and I resent it." The teacher explained that a children's orchestra needed the piano to "hold the music together." The boy, still holding to his point of view, later wanted to know if he might substitute an accordion part for the piano.

This boy, in addition to his creative ability along many lines, has a well-developed social sense and exceptional qualities of leadership. He is an amateur scientist and is the best informed and most liked boy in the group. Yet when he first entered the class he was emotionally unstable and a puzzle to his school and his parents.

GENERAL APPRAISAL OF THE PROGRAM

Los Angeles is not entirely satisfied with its provisions for gifted children and is constantly studying means of improving them. For that reason the curriculum has not been and probably will not be put in permanent, written form. However, certain things seem to be true of opportunity class training. The experiences of pupils and teachers have convinced all who have watched the program thru its experimental stages that it (1) brings to the children happiness in work and freedom for development, (2) trains for leadership, (3) brings out initiative and research ability and teaches children how to study, (4) develops a sense of responsibility to others, and (5) relieves teachers in regular classes of their responsibility to these superior children, and thus makes way for special attention to the needs of children of lesser ability.

Records show that children from the opportunity classes hold more than a normal percent of the positions of leadership in high schools and colleges. Also these children, upon completion of their high-school work, are known to receive a greater proportion of college recommendations than other children of *like ability*. Finally, it is believed that special classes for superior children in Los Angeles help to forestall such incidents as that related by a teacher in one of the junior high schools. This school enrolls pupils of all abilities in each of its classes. In one class a boy with an IQ of 72 was reporting to the class on bacteria-produced diseases. When the report was ended a boy with an IQ of 165 rose and said, "I want to make three comments on that report: First, he didn't have his facts. Second, the whole report was poorly organized. Third, I resent having my time wasted listening to such a report." Obviously, such a cruel comment needed a teacher's skilful handling. But who will deny that it may have had some justification?

SPECIAL CLASSES FOR SUPERIOR CHILDREN IN AN
EASTERN CITYDOROTHY E. NORRIS¹*Assistant Supervisor in Charge of Major Work Classes, Board of Education,
Cleveland, Ohio*

CLEVELAND'S SPECIAL INTEREST in superior children began in October 1921, when a class of pupils with high IQ's was established in one of the elementary schools. The same year a group of women from the Women's City Club formed a committee to foster the education of gifted children. This committee invited a university specialist in psychology to act as adviser for both the civic group and the teachers of superior children. It was arranged that he should spend two days a month in Cleveland in connection with this work.

The committee also met with the superintendent of schools and the assistant superintendent in charge of elementary education to ask whether it could assist in providing more adequate opportunities for gifted pupils. This offer of assistance was readily accepted and the committee has cooperated with the school authorities ever since. One of its contributions has been the donating of funds to purchase special equipment for the special classes, including maps, globes, charts, pianos, typewriters, books, and other accessories not provided for in the school budget. Today most of the money for this purpose is given by a Cleveland woman who has broad civic and cultural interests.

As a result of this cooperative interest and effort the city now has classes for superior children in ten elementary schools, four junior high schools, and three senior high schools. The total enrolment in these classes is about 1600, of whom a third are in the elementary grades. The groups are officially called "Major Work Classes," a name which avoids the objectionable connotations of such a term as "High IQ."

In establishing and maintaining these classes, Cleveland schools have recognized that the superior child needs special study and treatment no less than does the child of inferior ability. Those responsible for the program believe, moreover, that while some of the necessary educational opportunities can and should be provided in heterogeneous groups, the peculiar needs of the gifted pupil can best be met by placing him in a relatively homogeneous group for a major part of his classroom work.

ORGANIZATION OF CLASSES AND SELECTION OF PUPILS

The children in each Major Work Class at the elementary-school level are drawn from several schools within reasonable traveling dis-

¹ Assisted by the teachers of Major Work Classes in the elementary schools of Cleveland.

tance of the school in which the class is housed. The grade range of each group depends upon the number of superior children available from each grade in these neighboring schools. Ideally, there would probably be only one grade in each class. However, owing to the small number of candidates at each grade level, the children of Grades I, II, and III are usually grouped in one room, and those of Grades IV, V, and VI in another room. It is felt that more than six half-grades in a room is undesirable. The enrolment of each class is between thirty and thirty-five pupils.

The children are selected by means of standardized intelligence tests. Each semester a program of group tests² is given in all elementary schools. From the results of these tests a "probable learning rate" is computed for each child, and each child whose rating is 125 or more is referred to the psychological clinic for an individual Stanford-Binet examination. If the resulting IQ is 125 or higher, the child is placed in a Major Work Class at the earliest opportunity, providing such placement is satisfactory to his teachers and his parents.

The school hours for these classes are the same as for the regular classes. In fact, each Major Work Class is an integral part of the school, enjoying and participating in all its functions. The gifted children mingle freely and democratically with the other children on the playground, in physical education periods, in school assemblies, and in special-interest clubs. On the other hand, the program of the Major Work Class provides a special stimulus to creative effort, encourages critical thinking, and helps to keep the children working up to their high levels of mental ability.

PROVIDING A SUITABLE CURRICULUM

The content of the curriculum for superior children, like that for ordinary children, is not a fixed, permanent thing. It must evolve gradually in accordance with social changes, progress in science, and increasing knowledge of the needs and development of children. Nevertheless, there are certain enduring principles on which the program of Major Work Classes is based.

The development of essential skills and understandings in the children is of first importance. The innate ability of the gifted child, however, enables him to master such content with much less than the usual expenditure of time and effort. Since sustained effort at challenging tasks is essential to maximum growth, the school environment

² Each pupil takes one of the following tests: *Kuhlmann-Anderson Intelligence Tests*, Grade II (Educational Test Bureau, Minneapolis); *National Intelligence Tests* (World Book Co., Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York); *Cleveland Classification Test* (Bureau of Educational Research, Board of Education, Cleveland); *California Test of Mental Maturity*, Primary Series (California Test Bureau, Los Angeles).

of the gifted child should provide superior intellectual stimulation and furnish significant and satisfying outlets for his superior energy and ability. His unusual readiness of comprehension, his power to draw conclusions from specific data, and his capacity for leadership must be developed and turned into constructive channels thru a variety of mental and social activities.

To bring about the maximum growth of each child, the curriculum must be sufficiently broad and flexible to care for the diverse needs of all the children in a class. Even in Major Work Classes there are wide differences among pupils. Moreover, there is usually some unevenness in the abilities of the individual pupil. Hence, each child must be given the space, the freedom, and the materials necessary to develop his powers to the full, and an incentive to use those powers for the good alike of himself and of society.

Basic skills and understandings—Like all other pupils in the Cleveland schools, the children in Major Work Classes are expected to master a common core of basic skills and essential information. These essentials are covered in a series of separate subjects, including reading, writing, arithmetic, spelling, language, history, geography, civics, and science. Each pupil is responsible for learning the essentials prescribed in the regular curriculum for his particular grade. The administration and enrichment of this curriculum are the responsibility of the individual teacher under the guidance of the school principal and the assistant supervisor in charge of Major Work Classes. Such a situation is necessary to permit desirable teacher and pupil growth. It results in a wide range of activities reflecting the interests and needs of the group and its individual members but at no time anticipating the work of the next grade.

Integration of subjects and activities—An integrated program coordinates a large part of the work in each class around one central theme or interest. Most of these units are in the field of science or social studies and help to acquaint the pupils with the history and evolution of civilized man. Among the topics studied are lighting, communication, transportation, colonial life, and the nationality backgrounds of pupils in the class. For example, one class of fourth-, fifth-, and sixth-graders whose parents were either first- or second-generation Hungarians planned and executed a unit to satisfy their curiosity about the land of their ancestors. When a comprehensive plan had been developed, individuals and small groups accepted responsibility for exploring the various subtopics. Much research was done in the school library and in books sent to the classroom from the library. Separate

objectives and outlines were set up under various subject headings. The objectives were as follows:

1. *Geography*—To gain a clear understanding of the relationship of Hungary to the surrounding countries of Central Europe thru their natural resources, and to know more about the activities motivated thru these resources.
2. *History*—To become better acquainted with the Magyar people and to know about their background and how it relates to their present status.
3. *Language and literature*—(a) To further the understanding of the Hungarian people by knowing something of their language and literature. (b) To understand, thru an intensive study of two presentday children's books on Hungary, the life of the peasant people of Hungary.
4. *Music*—To understand and appreciate the distinctive features of Hungarian music thru a detailed study of Franz Liszt, Karl Goldmark, and Johannes Brahms.
5. *Recreation thru the dance*—To get an appreciation of Hungarian dancing thru a detailed study of the steps which are common to all Hungarian dances.
6. *Art*—To gain an appreciation of Hungarian design and color thru the making of a Hungarian frieze and thru the construction of a stage and the costuming of Hungarian characters for a marionette show.

In all such units the active participation of individual pupils and their unique contributions to the group are strongly emphasized. Group discussions around a table with a class member acting as leader—comparable to the seminar method of the college—provide opportunities for synthesizing and evaluating the results of individual research. This method involves the use of dictionaries, encyclopedias, and other reference books as well as slides, motion pictures, charts, maps, ordinary pictures, exhibits, radio programs, and phonograph records. The entire procedure is especially suited to and enjoyed by superior pupils, who like to share knowledge with one another. The teacher's function is to guide rather than to dominate the work.

The study of biography contributes to practically all fields of learning and is coordinated with all the other work of the classroom. Emphasis here is placed on knowledge which will help the children to adjust themselves successfully to their opportunities and responsibilities. They acquire much information as to how eminent persons have made adjustments, built their careers, and contributed to human progress. As a result, the children gradually acquire ideals of sustained effort, of high achievement, and of efficient self-management. The teacher does not need to stress particularly the inspirational aspects of great men's lives, since most of the children are sufficiently sensitive and inclined to hero-worship to discover and appreciate these aspects without assistance.

In addition to books and other aids to learning in the school, trips to places of interest are an integral part of the curriculum. Civic activities of the community are investigated. Close cooperation is maintained with museums. The children attend suitable performances in

theaters as well as concerts, lectures, and exhibits. Thus, the teacher seizes every opportunity to enrich the superior pupil's program with an abundance of worthwhile and stimulating experiences. A special teacher directs the art and handwork, but these also are frequently correlated with the major activity in progress.

Enrichment in literature—The purpose of the literature periods is to develop an acquaintance with the best the world has to offer in the field of literature suitable for the children's level of maturity. Almost all bright children are omnivorous readers and therefore need tactful guidance in the selection of books. Teachers make a constant effort to develop tastes for the finer types of reading. Much is accomplished thru club work and weekly discussions. Booklists and club programs are prepared by the children. Some of the procedures used to improve children's tastes are illustrated by the fifth- and sixth-grade activity on the enjoyment of poetry which is outlined in part below:

A. Objectives

1. To become familiar with many poets and to establish wide contact with poetry.
2. To write some poetry (if this could be done spontaneously).
3. To present an auditorium program of poems chosen by the class.
4. To develop a pleasing voice, clear enunciation, and correct phrasing in the reading of poetry.
5. To learn some of the elements and characteristics of various kinds of poetry.

B. Procedures

1. Weekly class poetry periods were held. The programs at these meetings were presented largely by the children, with only a brief contribution from the teacher.
2. Two poetry clubs were formed within the class. These clubs stimulated wide reading of poetry in the search for class program material, and provided a training ground for good oral reading of poetry. They alternated in planning, organizing, and presenting the weekly room programs.
3. The programs were varied in nature and some of them showed considerable originality and ingenuity on the part of the children. One program consisted entirely of poems by Carl Sandburg. In another, poems illustrating a variety of very pronounced rhythms were assembled. Sometimes a program had no particular unity but included a miscellaneous collection of materials about which the readers were enthusiastic. Some poems were presented with musical accompaniment; others were pantomimed while the reader was heard in the background. One program was presented with a campfire setting. In another, some of the gory old melodramatic ballads were dramatized in an exaggerated or burlesque manner, to the hilarious enjoyment of participants and audience. The clubs kept a record of all proceedings and materials presented.
4. At the close of each weekly poetry period the class undertook to evaluate the program, considering both the material presented and the excellence of its presentation.

5. Sometimes a "request program" followed the regular, prepared program. In this way, much fine poetry was given repeatedly and so became truly the possession of the class.
6. At intervals during the class poetry meetings, new aspects or characteristics of poetry were considered. This kept the children's interest refreshed and gave new impetus to continued reading.
7. An auditorium program for the rest of the school and a program for parents during National Poetry Week were presented as the climax of the entire activity. The children wrote an "introduction" and "continuity" for each program.
8. A booklet of "choice lines" was compiled. The children tried to make this book truly beautiful and utilized their best performances in penmanship and art.
9. Some children wrote original poems.
10. Some children listed in notebooks all the poems they had enjoyed, thus making their own personal anthologies.
11. Some individuals made lists of poems on special subjects, such as War and Peace Poems, Star Poems, Lincoln Poems, and Family Poems.
12. The class did a little verse-speaking as a choir.

Instruction in French—Each Major Work Class devotes one hour each day to the French language under the tutelage of a special instructor. Special emphasis is placed on the conversational phase of the language, and most of the talking during the class period is done in French, especially in the upper grades. Current happenings are discussed, stories are told or dramatized, and questions are asked and answered—all in French. The children learn rapidly, as a rule, and are enthusiastic about being able to use the language of another nation.

RESULTS OF THE PROGRAM

It is not easy to evaluate the results of the Major Work program because many of its most important and most emphasized objectives cannot be adequately measured. Moreover, no controlled experiment has been carried on to determine whether progress in basic skills and subjectmatter learning is greater among superior pupils in the special classes than among superior pupils in heterogeneous classes. Nevertheless, a subjective appraisal indicates that the special classes facilitate, rather than impede, personality growth and adjustment, while objective measurement shows that these classes are not neglecting the academic phases of schoolwork.

Social and civic attitudes—The informal, attractive classrooms in which Major Work Classes are housed provide a suitable setting for desirable social relationships among the children, and here good social habits are carefully fostered. Release from unnecessary routine affords opportunity for exercise of the child's self-control and judgment. Here in his small community he learns to accept responsibility willingly. His school situation calls for constant cooperation. His program of

work is so adjusted that his time is fully occupied and he seldom creates a disciplinary problem.

While the Major Work Class permits the gifted child to work on an enriched program with his mental equals, he is at the same time associating with children of all intellectual levels in cooperative social activities. Like all the others, he is a citizen of the school, takes part in its clubs, entertainments, and other activities, and shares in its responsibilities. Thus he tends to become a well-rounded member of the entire school group. In addition, group work within his class helps him in the cultivation of important civic qualities. He learns that each person is entitled to his own opinion but is responsible to the group in many ways. He learns to respect the rights and opinions of others. He learns to be cooperative in work and play, and to be a "good sport."

In a segregated group of this kind the pupil is challenged by other children who are of similar mentality. He soon comes to respect and enjoy the achievements of the others and is stimulated to emulation. The attitude of aloofness or superiority which the superior child sometimes manifests toward the average or inferior child is thus counteracted to a large extent.

Mental and emotional health—To develop as a happy, capable, and well-rounded individual, every child needs a feeling of security. The below-average size of Major Work Classes helps to accomplish this for the gifted pupil. Since he can and does receive more individual attention, the child feels that he is understood. His confidence in himself and his world rises accordingly and his capacities are free to grow.

The activity program with its life-like situations creates a real need for knowledge, and the child experiences satisfaction in his accomplishments. In his freedom to express himself his talents are released. Sometimes these abilities develop as hobbies. Club work, likewise, provides opportunity for developing special talents. Initiative and originality are thus encouraged and the feelings of futility and frustration so detrimental to mental health are largely eliminated.

Studies have shown that the gifted child usually possesses a strong love of beauty. The special work offered in art and music, as well as the enrichment provided by radio and the symphony concert, is contributing greatly to the nurture of this quality, which is so important in the development of a well-rounded personality. Thus, in many ways the special class fosters the personality adjustment of the gifted child, who, with his larger capacity for emotional feeling and his greater social and civic insight, should have an environment unusually rich in opportunities for self-realization and service.

Objective test results—Data concerning achievement in basic skills and subjectmatter learning are presented in Figure I. This chart shows the median achievement, in April 1939, of the Major Work pupils in each half-grade from III-A thru VI-A on the *National Achievement Tests*,³ and compares this achievement with the test norms for pupils of "normal" and of "superior" intelligence,⁴ and with the median mental age (Stanford-Binet) of the Major Work pupils. All the achievement test scores are expressed in terms of grade and age equivalents for pupils of *normal* intelligence. Each grade equivalent given is an arithmetical average of ten separate grade equivalents representing the ten parts of the achievement battery (reading comprehension, reading speed, spelling, arithmetic fundamentals, arithmetic reasoning, English, literature, geography, history and civics, and health). The age equivalents are those provided for pupils of normal intelligence by the authors of the tests.

Interpretation of the four lines in Figure I may be facilitated by the following statements about pupils in Grade III-A:

1. *Lowest line*—The composite achievement-test norm for pupils of normal intelligence (IQ's of 90-109) in the eighth month of Grade III is expressed as a grade equivalent of 3:8 (left-hand vertical scale), while the corresponding age equivalent is 8-9 (right-hand vertical scale).

2. *Second line*—The composite achievement-test norm for pupils of superior intelligence (IQ's above 109) in the eighth month of Grade III is the same as that for pupils of normal intelligence in the eighth month of Grade IV. The norm for superior pupils is therefore expressed as a grade equivalent of 4:8, and the corresponding age equivalent is 9-8.

3. *Third line*—The composite median achievement-test score of Cleveland Major Work pupils (IQ's of 125 or above) in the eighth month of Grade III (April 1939) was the same as the composite norm for pupils of normal intelligence in the fourth month of Grade V. The Major Work achievement is therefore expressed as a grade equivalent of 5:4, and the corresponding age equivalent is 10-4.

4. *Highest line*—The median mental age of Cleveland Major Work pupils in the eighth month of Grade III (April 1939) was 11-0 (right-hand scale).

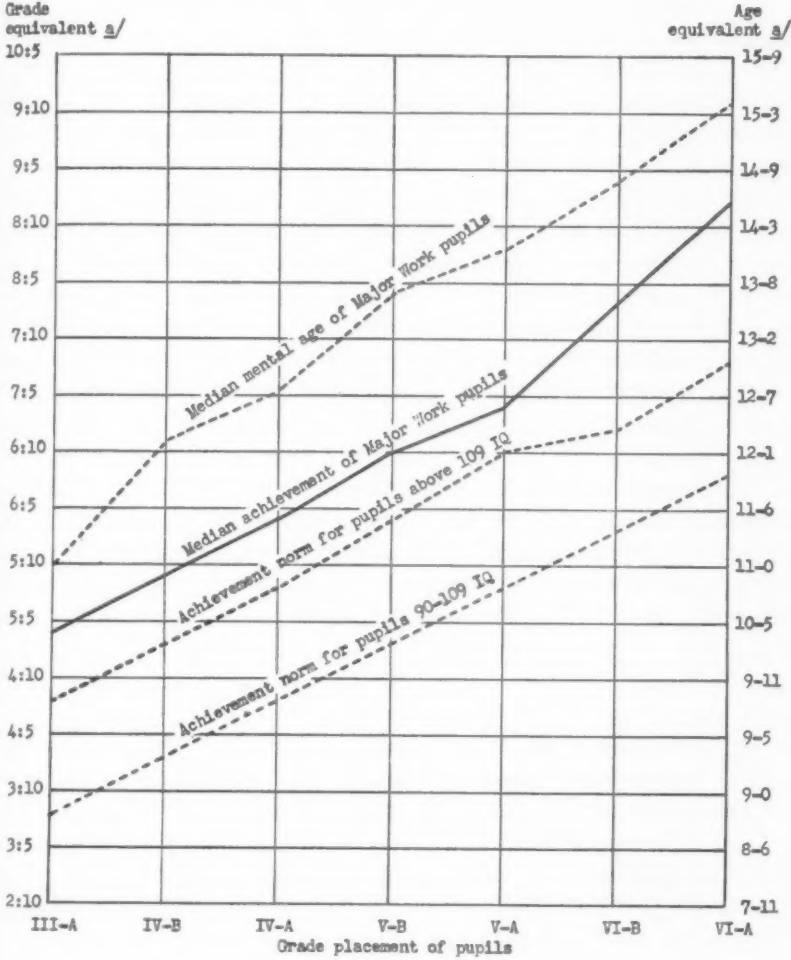
In every grade the composite median achievement of the Cleveland Major Work pupils was above the test norms for pupils of normal and superior mental ability in that grade. In terms of grade equivalents the difference between Major Work achievement and the norm for pupils with IQ's above 109 ranged from four school months in Grade V-A to fourteen months in Grade VI-A. This superiority in achievement may be attributed in part to the higher average intelligence of the Major Work pupils and in part to their enriched program of work.

Perhaps the most striking fact in Figure I is that the median achieve-

³ Municipal Battery for Grades III-VI, and Municipal Battery for Grades VI-VIII, published by the Acorn Publishing Co., Rockville Centre, Long Island, New York.

⁴ Separate sets of norms on these tests are available for pupils with IQ's above 109, pupils with IQ's from 90 to 109, and pupils with IQ's below 90.

FIGURE I—COMPOSITE ACHIEVEMENT OF CLEVELAND MAJOR WORK PUPILS IN GRADES III-A THRU VI-A ON THE NATIONAL ACHIEVEMENT TESTS (MUNICIPAL BATTERY) IN APRIL 1939



Sources of data: (1) Bulletin No. 5 (Sept. 27, 1939) of the Bureau of Educational Research, Cleveland Board of Education. (2) Pupil Efficiency Norms for the National Achievement Tests, Acorn Publishing Co., Rockville Centre, Long Island, N. Y.

The pupils in Grades III-A thru V-A were given the Municipal Battery of the National Achievement Tests for Grades III-VI, while those in Grades VI-B and VI-A were given the Municipal Battery for Grades VI-VIII.

a/ For pupils of 90-109 IQ.

ments of Major Work pupils, altho above the norms, are considerably below the median mental ages of these pupils. This is not necessarily a reflection on either the skill of the teachers or the habits and attitudes of the children. In the first place, since no attempt is made to accelerate the progress of Major Work pupils thru the grades, these pupils have had no systematic opportunity to learn the subjectmatter content of the grades which correspond to their mental ages. In the second place, the achievement tests used do not represent adequately the enrichment in subjectmatter provided at each grade level in the Major Work Classes. It would undoubtedly be possible to raise the achievement of these pupils, as measured by standardized tests, to levels commensurate with their mental ages, but in the writer's judgment this would result in neglect of more important objectives. While there may be a need for greater mastery of subjectmatter, it is even more desirable that the children learn to search for truth, to evaluate their findings, to enjoy hard work, to maintain high standards of accomplishment, to meet and attempt to solve their own problems fearlessly, to respect their fellowmen, and to appreciate their responsibility for using their superior talents in socially constructive ways. If, as the writer believes, superior children can learn these things better in Major Work Classes than in heterogeneous classes and can do so without loss in the more measurable aspects of learning, the Major Work program is amply justified.

EXPRESSION of the fear that segregation of the able in school will produce class consciousness subversive of the ideals of democracy, seems to imply that at present in adult society men are mingling equally and freely with persons of all degrees of intelligence, in work, neighborhood, conversation, and recreation. No such condition exists, or ever has existed, in adult society. As life goes on, like-minded men are winnowed into social groups, partly by the outcomes of economic competition, partly by preference for the same kinds of shelter and recreation, and partly by ability to perform the same acts of thought.—Hollingworth, Leta S., *Gifted Children*, Macmillan Co., 1926, p. 304-05. (Quoted by permission of the publishers.)

PROVIDING FOR SUPERIOR CHILDREN IN A
SOUTHERN CITYI. R. OBENCHAIN¹*Director of Curriculum Department, Public Schools, Birmingham, Alabama*

FOR MANY YEARS the Birmingham public schools have been concerned about adequate provisions for the education of children with superior general mental ability. Our philosophy of education implies that every child has a right to both physical and mental health and to intelligent participation in family and communal responsibilities. To insure those rights it is deemed the obligation of the schools to offer as far as possible opportunities for the development of individual aptitudes; for worthy use of leisure time; for the mastery of certain fundamentals, appreciations, and skills; for guidance in making evaluations; and for the pursuit of vocational interests. In the case of superior children a unique problem is presented. Because of their ability to undertake greater responsibilities and to progress more rapidly than those children for whom a conventional curriculum is generally planned, special efforts should be made to incorporate in the educational experience of superior children certain activities which will allow them to grow to the maximum of their native endowment.

On the basis of this philosophy, Birmingham has endeavored to evolve a program which would more nearly meet the needs of superior children than the conventional type of school organization. Three procedures have been used: (1) segregation of the children in special classes involving an enriched curriculum; (2) provision for individual differences thru an enriched curriculum and individualized instruction in conventional classes; and (3) ability grouping of children in the primary grades. Recognizing the conflicting points of view regarding these various methods of providing for superior children and the merits and demerits of each method, Birmingham has, nevertheless, proceeded along all three lines.

ENRICHMENT CLASSES

Classes established by the central school administration—One of the first efforts to make special provision for superior children was the establishment of two enrichment classes in an elementary school in 1929-30. These first classes were something of an experiment. By the

¹ The writer gratefully acknowledges the help of the following persons connected with the Birmingham schools: J. R. Gardner, principal of Lakeview School; Minnie Rosenblum, enrichment class teacher, Lakeview School; T. M. Kegley, principal of Minor School; Valera McInnis, enrichment class teacher, Elyton School; Elsie Kennedy, enrichment class teacher, Central Park School; Dorothy Rogers, formerly eighth-grade teacher, Acipco School; and Mrs. John Roberts and William Y. Elliott of the Curriculum Department.

close of the year, however, it was felt that the experiment was successful enough to warrant not only the continuation of the classes already begun but also the organization of additional classes. As a result, in 1930-31 four more classes were organized in two other widely separated schools. From the beginning, candidates for these classes have been selected from all schools in the city on the basis of teachers' and principals' recommendations, achievement test results, physical condition, and psychological examination records indicating an IQ of 120 or above. All these criteria are reviewed carefully, and if it is thought that the child may profit materially from instruction in the enrichment class, his parents are invited by the superintendent's office to permit him to enrol in the class. If the parents accept the invitation and the responsibility of providing the child's transportation to a different school, the child is immediately enrolled. No pressure that would tend to make him feel that he must send his child to the enrichment class has ever been brought to bear on any parent.

Because the Birmingham schools are organized on the platoon basis, it has been necessary to fit the enrichment classes into the platoon schedule. This means that the enrichment class teacher has charge of two groups, each of which spends one-half day with her. During the time that these pupils are not under her supervision, they go to special teachers where they receive instruction in such subjects as art or participate in auditorium or playground activities. This, of course, does not mean that the children have none of these subjects under the enrichment class teacher, for, as a matter of fact, wherever art, dramatics, music, and other similar subjects are involved in the unit of work that is under consideration, they are integrated into the study plan.

Children are usually selected for these classes from the low and high fifth grades of the regular classes in the various schools of the city. Since Birmingham schools are organized on the 8-4 plan, these children remain with the same enrichment class teacher until they have completed the high eighth grade. Altho it has been our purpose to have children remain in the enrichment class for four years, a number of them have finished the four years' work in three and one-half years. Even so, the extended contact with the enrichment class teacher permits more effective guidance than would be possible otherwise. Lack of extended contact with one teacher has been a common criticism of the platoon system of organization, but in the enrichment classes, where the homeroom teacher advances with the children, this objection is nullified to a great degree.

Teachers of enrichment classes have not had previous experience

with such work. Usually they are selected on the basis of their education and experience, enthusiasm and alertness, understanding of the child, capacity for leadership, interest in creative education, and cultural background.

"Unofficial" classes in individual schools—In addition to the officially organized enrichment classes, in some of our larger schools the principals have permitted certain groups of superior children to evolve. No efforts are made to handle these situations thru the superintendent's office as is done in the case of the special enrichment classes described above. All the children live in the same school community and there is no transportation problem. No special examinations are given and no specific standards are set up as bases for enrolment. The principal may make a few shifts from class to class to make sure that only pupils who can do outstanding work are included in each group. These groups, consisting of from thirty to forty children, are usually somewhat larger than the officially organized enrichment classes. In most cases the pupils remain with the same teacher until they have completed the high eighth grade. The teacher, as in the special enrichment classes, has two sections which function in accordance with the regular platoon schedule. By way of example one such class will be described.

In the fall of the school year 1936-37 twelve mentally alert low sixth-graders in a class of forty-six attracted the attention and interest of their principal and homeroom teacher. Because of their special ability, they, together with nineteen pupils of similar ability in the high fifth grade, were united as a single group at the beginning of the second semester. During the first two weeks the more advanced pupils were assigned work (largely reference and research) which kept them busy and interested while the other pupils were drilled in the fundamentals that were essential for carrying on all work in the upper group. Less than ten days were necessary for this stage of the process, as each pupil had a goal that he was determined to attain.

On the theory that no work should be "skipped," a general review was then instituted by the teacher. History was reviewed as a "game of trees." Each period of civilization was studied as a separate tree. A small group of pupils from each division worked together drawing the body and branches of a tree to indicate the important achievements of each historical era. Discussion and question hours were devoted to the development of all possible chronological characteristics of the periods of civilization represented by the trees. Thus a worthwhile study and interesting review was accomplished. Among other projects developed before the end of the year was an outstanding

unit on the American possessions, entitled "How do far away children under the United States flag work, play, and live?"

In the seventh grade the children continued as a group. Tool subjects were taught at their face value—purely as tools. Correct spelling and punctuation were shown to be essential to all phases of each child's work. A misspelled word was a bad reflection; good penmanship was a requisite; and "general excellence" became the motto. Leadership, initiative, and an attitude of "let's do something" dominated the will of the group. Two days after a project was finished, the whole class was begging for another.

The closing of a project was made an important occasion. A program or party was planned in order that invited guests might see and hear about the activities just concluded. The programs were not given to show off what the children had done but in the spirit of sharing pleasurable experiences with interested friends. This particular year the class made and presented to the school a 4' by 24' mural on "Transportation thru the Ages." This mural still serves as an incentive and inspiration to all who look upon it.

The special class work of these children was the finest and broadest when they were in the eighth grade. "Nothing is impossible" became the watchword, and the class never hesitated to try any task at hand. There was a marked absence of hard feelings, petty jealousies, and laziness. Intelligent argumentation became an important feature of their work, and much time and effort were spent in search for proofs of conflicting contentions. The climax of this year's study was a project entitled, "How can we as American citizens actively participate in the preservation of the American democracy?" This was effectively developed in three ways: (1) by acquiring a knowledge of the past, (2) by a study of the present, and (3) by working out in a simple way a plan for the future. In connection with the project Alabama and United States flags were made to scale and presented to the school. A play, "A Big Stick for Uncle," summarizing this work, was written and given by the pupils to a large audience.

This class worked always in small groups with rotating leadership, frequently changing officers. No pupil monopolized the center of attention and no one shirked his responsibilities. Many extracurriculum activities were enjoyed by the children thruout their years together. They participated in oratorical contests, athletics, orchestra, band, glee clubs, and dancing parties. When they graduated these children left their fellow elementary schoolmates a record worthy of emulation and carried with them a memory of school days filled to overflowing with interesting achievements and happy experiences.

In the fall of the school year 1937-38 a special class of thirty fifth-graders was adopted by this same homeroom teacher as her other section. This class soon caught the spirit of the older group and followed in its footsteps. The pupils made attractive booklets and wrote original plays which were produced for other classes in the school and for visitors. When this group passed into the sixth grade it specialized in play-writing and play-production. Now, as the present seventh-grade special class, it is rapidly assuming the position of school leadership. The pupils are known as "The Workers," and are no less determined than the original group to "go places and do things." Their textbook work is to them a "must have," but it consumes only a minimum amount of school time. Always there is an extra interest urging them on. They are a healthy group of "live wires" who have caught the spirit of enriched study with fellow pupils of similar superior ability.

Class organization—Often enrichment classes are organized somewhat after the manner of a city government. In one class an election is held each year at a designated time to fill the following positions: first commissioner, second commissioner, third commissioner, superintendent of instruction, tax assessor and collector, radio announcer, newspaper editor, librarian, Red Cross representative, and banker. Campaign speeches are made over an improvised radio. Notices are placed on the bulletin board and a committee arranges and prints a ballot. The ballots are counted by the pupils and the results announced by them. Regular board meetings and town meetings are held at which problems concerning the group are discussed. The teacher makes it a point to remain in the background and to enter the discussion only when called upon or when it is absolutely necessary.

At one town meeting the "first commissioner" discussed the duties of the officers and of citizens in general. The question arose as to what the pupils thought of their own classroom procedures. The teacher, sitting in the rear of the room, recorded the following expressions made during the discussion:

We learn to work together.

Everyone has a chance to do something he wants to do.

We learn to be original.

We get more done than we used to.

The teacher guides us but we get the information for ourselves; therefore we remember more.

We can set up our own problems.

We don't have to ask the teacher if we can do things.

We can leave our seats whenever we want to.

We don't have to worry about report cards; it's what we learn that counts.

We learn to work with a purpose.

Each fellow can learn what he needs and not spend time on what he already knows.

We learn to be orderly.

The following statements were made at another time by the same pupils relative to their impressions when they first entered the enrichment class:

It seemed so strange to us.

We were used to doing everything everybody else did.

We were used to waiting for the teacher to tell us what to do.

We were used to keeping our seats until the teacher gave us permission to get out of them.

We didn't draw cartoons, make maps or murals, write plays, or have radio programs.

We didn't keep our own progress charts and were worried about grades.

To date, Birmingham has found that the enrichment class groups represent small socio-economic democracies, for their memberships are composed of children from all strata of life. In every group are to be found children from both rich and poor, cultured and uncultured families. By far the predominant number of enrollees, however, come from families in the average income brackets.

Contributions to pupil adjustment—While some contend that children in enrichment classes tend to become socially maladjusted, our experience in Birmingham seems to prove that the opposite is true. From the beginning we have had many problem children enter these classes. Only one pupil has failed to make a satisfactory adjustment. The following description of an actual case is somewhat typical of our general experience.

John was eleven years old and very small for his age when he entered the enrichment class. His vocabulary was the most extensive that any teacher in the school had known a child to have. In fact, probably very few adults have a vocabulary that would be comparable to John's. He was interested in almost every subject. Neither world affairs nor mechanics confused him. His difficulty, however, was that he never would complete any task he undertook. Instead, he was constantly telling the other children how to do their projects, and because of his skill in the use of words, he would impress them with his knowledge. Furthermore, he would draw himself to his greatest height and say what he had to say so convincingly that many times it was hard for even the teacher to tell whether or not he was bluffing. Frequently John assumed the air of knowing more about a subject than a fellow classmate who had made special preparation in it. His arrogant attitude, after a time, became so obnoxious that other members of the group made complaints to the teacher. They grew tired of doing the work and having John belittle their efforts.

Finally, the pupils decided to use a plan which they thought would correct the situation. The group was to cooperate in an intensive study of one subject regarding which they were sure John knew very little.

When discussion time came and John assumed his customary manner, members of the group were so well informed that they could prove to him that he was wrong in many instances. For a semester some of the children carried out this plan and during discussions would *kindly* show John how he was drawing on his imagination or using his extensive vocabulary to say the same things other children had already said simply and correctly. Thru the courteous manner in which the children helped John, his difficulty was eventually overcome. The teacher learned that he had a "stature complex" as evidenced by his fear of being small like his parents. Because of the helpful spirit of the group he soon forgot his much-hated nickname of "Pee Wee" and began to face the reality of the situation.

This was a case of children themselves calling another child's bluff and proving to him the uselessness of such an attitude. It was, however, only thru great care and cautious manipulation that it was possible for group action to be instrumental in bringing about John's satisfactory adjustment.

Individual achievement after leaving school—As far as possible a record is kept of the adjustment of enrichment class children after they leave school. Such records show that many of these pupils have gone out into the fields of journalism, radio work, music, chemical engineering, military service (West Point), naval service (Annapolis), medicine, teaching, and dramatics. In many instances these boys and girls, while members of the class, showed interest in the professions for which they later began to train. Scholarships were received by several; top grades on college entrance examinations and evidence of outstanding participation in high-school and college activities are on record. One class of seventeen furnished six members to the National Honor Society in high school. Two of the same group, thru competitive examinations, earned appointments to West Point and Annapolis, respectively, and a third one was chosen as alternate to Annapolis.

Administrative and instructional problems—The problems encountered in connection with the administration of enrichment classes are those common to most similar endeavors. They have to do with arranging for the transportation of the children; providing sufficiently for their individual differences even in the special groups; cultivating an objective attitude toward the classes in both elementary- and high-school teachers of regular pupils, and in some parents of regular and enrichment class students; surmounting mechanical or administrative difficulties involved in coordinating the special class work with that being done thruout the school (of great importance in this connection is recognizing the full value of the contributions which the teachers

of regular classes are able to make, and providing sufficient social contact between superior and regular pupils); making available proper equipment, such as movable chairs, maps, tables, globes, and charts; helping the child to overcome personality difficulties, such as shyness, lack of desire to play, or a tendency to have too limited interests; and preventing the development of a feeling of superiority in enrichment class children. It is to be said, however, that altho these problems have not been adequately solved in every case, they are not so formidable as to preclude good work or to overshadow the obvious contributions the classes are making to the education of superior children.

ENRICHMENT IN REGULAR CLASSES

Provision for superior children is also made in regularly organized classrooms but the program is not so clearly defined as it is in the enrichment classes. Efforts are made, however, thru special assignments, extracurriculum activities, and the development of special units of work, to provide the superior child with an enriched program that will keep him working at a pace commensurate with his abilities. Particularly in the development of special units of work is sufficient latitude for enriching the curriculum to be found. The regular teacher guides these projects in addition to her more conventional class program. Here, as in the enrichment classes, it is desired that pupils develop those attitudes, appreciations, and skills which will serve to round out their personalities and to render them disposed to live up to the social responsibilities that go with superior capacity. Subject-matter and pupil experiences are developed about real life centers of interest. The following social areas have been considered by superior pupils in various regular classes: assuming the responsibilities of citizenship, earning a living, providing for health and safety, protecting the consumer, making a home, conserving natural resources, providing for transportation and communication, engaging in recreation, expressing esthetic impulses, expressing religious impulses, and securing an education.

Studies are usually undertaken as functional problems. Pupils are encouraged to consider the improvement of existing conditions by discussing such questions as, "How can I make my community a better place in which to live?" Little difficulty is experienced in getting superior children interested in studying such problems. Indeed, most of the units grow largely out of pupil interests and self-initiated experiences. Pupils help set up objectives, plan activities, suggest references and supplementary materials, and evaluate procedures and results. Methods used to develop individual projects often include forums, radio pro-

grams, posters, cartoons, booklets, bibliographies, committee work, movie making, excursions to points of interest, classroom newspapers, surveys, interviews with authorities, correspondence with outside agencies, cooperation with community groups, the holding of classroom elections, and arrangement of bulletin board displays.

Units are set up so that the activities will cut across and integrate material from many branches of study. The tool subjects are emphasized in their place. Teachers of all subjects are freely called upon to make specialized contributions. In all cases special attention is given to individual differences among the pupils. The results of this program have been very gratifying, and it is felt that not only has provision been made for the needs of the superior child, but also the average and slow-learning children have been stimulated by the contact with the enriched activities.

ABILITY GROUPING FOR PRIMARY CHILDREN

Still another effort is being made by Birmingham to provide for the superior child, as shown by what has been done for a number of years with primary children. In the first grades of the larger schools, where there are enough enrollees for more than one teacher, the children are frequently grouped according to learning ability at the beginning of each semester. In some instances, there have been as many as three or four different divisions. In these cases the upper group is usually composed of superior children and efforts are made to provide for their educational needs thru emphasis on an enriched curriculum and individualized instruction. No special attempt is made to continue these groups intact thru the elementary school. It is true, however, that in some schools these groups of superior children eventually become unofficial enrichment classes.

CONCLUSION

In this article the writer has tried to give a general picture of the ways in which the Birmingham public schools have attempted to make special provision for the needs of superior children. These provisions have been shown to be (1) segregation in special classes involving an enriched curriculum, (2) nonsegregation in conventional classes with special provision for individual differences thru an enriched curriculum and individualized instruction, and (3) ability grouping of children in the primary grades. It is felt that the results of the various attempts have been reasonably successful. The greatest handicap has been the lack of funds, a difficulty which has made it impossible to extend the program into a number of areas where the need for such provision is particularly evident.

SUPERIOR PUPILS TAKE CHARGE OF THE SCHOOL'S AFFAIRS

GARRETT E. RICKARD

Principal, LaFayette School, Chicago, Illinois

A SCHOOL is a community in itself. It is not uncommon to find elementary schools larger in population than some incorporated cities and, like cities, these schools have rather intricate community affairs which must be administered in the public interest and to the satisfaction of their citizens. Who shall take charge of the affairs of such a community? Presumably, the most competent people in it. What is the surest way of providing for control by competent people? LaFayette School has answered this question by selecting for membership in central councils the two pupils from each homeroom in Grades III-B thru VIII-A who have the highest scholastic standings. These councils are the legislative bodies and, thru their officers and committees, the executive bodies which act in all affairs of a public nature affecting the citizens of the school community.

In brief, the practice at the LaFayette School involves the following four points:

1. The most able 5 percent of the pupils manage the school's affairs according to the ideals of the United States Civil Service, which call for competent, skilful, technically trained servants of the public interest.
2. These pupils are trained in the exercise of leadership and in the technical skills necessary to enable them to render expert service to the school.
3. Rules which are definite, explicit, and precise are made and enforced by the group.
4. Two ends are achieved: (a) efficient student government, and (b) vitalization of the education of superior children by giving them an opportunity to serve the public interest.

Advantages of the plan—By providing that the central councils shall be composed only of superior pupils, LaFayette School insures from the outset that each member has earned his right to that position. This procedure is thoroly understood by every child in the school. Each one knows he can be on one of the councils only if he merits selection by virtue of his scholastic standing. Thus, leadership in the school community is in the hands of the intelligent and competent, an ideal toward which all democratic government should strive.

Under this system, pupils are not being trained in the art of demagoguery and in the use of vote-catching phrases and political chicanery, but rather in the virtues of the upright, intelligent, and skilful public servant. The leaders are being imbued with the ideals of civil service rather than those of the "spoils" system. Teachers give up neither

their authority nor their responsibility, but they work cooperatively with those pupils who, by their mental maturity, have shown themselves capable of assuming a certain amount of responsibility for their own school affairs.

There are many advantages in placing student government on this basis. Superior students in general have a special concern for the good name of the school. Also, they can best spare the time to devote to community affairs. The ablest pupils are capable of developing a more mature point of view and they will learn to consider the problems of the school community in a broad sense much more quickly than the less competent. Pupils of high standing will be adept at understanding the public and social business of the school just as they understand the subjectmatter and study technics in their classrooms.

A basic assumption in this plan for pupil government is that leadership is not a gift but a complex skill built up by the exercise of certain special abilities thru purposing, planning, executing, and judging. To attain this skill such psychological factors as problem-solving, trial-and-accidental success, repetition and the fixing of correct response, and specific technics applicable in the attainment of complex skills are involved. To give opportunity for the intelligent interplay of these factors, LaFayette School has in reality set up classes in leadership to which only the most capable pupils are admitted. Thus, skill in leadership is being learned, not as it is going to be used, but as it actually is used.

Organization of school councils—The LaFayette plan includes a senior central council of forty members from twenty homerooms of the departmentalized division of the schools, Grades VI-B thru VIII-A, and a junior council of twenty-eight members from fourteen homerooms of the nondepartmentalized division, Grades III-B thru V-A. The senior council holds a general half-hour session each Wednesday from 11:30 A.M. to 12:00 noon under the sponsorship of the assistant principal. The junior council meets on Monday from 1:30 P.M. to 2:00 P.M. under the sponsorship of an intermediate teacher and confines its activities to matters pertaining to the lower grades. Since the homerooms average about forty boys and girls, these councils represent nearly 1400 pupils, or approximately 1900 pupils including the primary homerooms. They are thus the custodians of the "public interests" of a good-sized community.

The representatives from each room are obligated to take back from council meetings a weekly summary of activities and accomplishments. Homeroom pupils are asked to contribute suggestions to members of the councils, and the ideas for many policies of the governing

group have their origin outside the immediate membership. There is a constant two-way flow of advice and counsel between the council members and those whom they represent.

Each council has its own president, secretary, and treasurer elected by the council at the first meeting of the semester. *Robert's Rules of Order* are followed in this procedure. Actual execution of decisions of the councils is in the hands of a special committee or, as is usually the case, one of the many standing committees. A committee may meet at times other than the regular council sessions, but only upon condition that it presents in advance to the teacher-sponsor a memorandum of the time, place, and purpose of the meeting, as well as the names of the persons involved. The faculty sponsor will either attend the meeting or give permission to the committee to proceed without her. The time and place of all such meetings are scheduled on the calendar of the central council. These committees are all essentially the executive arms of the central council. Their practical nature and purposes are indicated by their titles:

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|------------------------------|---|
| 1. Flower boxes | 10. Landscaping |
| 2. Window curtains | 11. Library assistance |
| 3. School paper | 12. Chartering of clubs |
| 4. School posters | 13. Licensing of monitors |
| 5. Health and posture | 14. Assembly hall—rules, ushers, announcers |
| 6. Traffic | 15. New business—steering committee |
| 7. Reduction of noise | 16. Mimeographing |
| 8. Prevention of defacement | 17. Reception. |
| 9. Office monitors' schedule | |

The committees on chartering of clubs and on licensing of monitors have duties which require some explanation. In the matter of chartering clubs the senior council has exclusive power. No club can exist at the LaFayette School until it has been chartered and thus given administrative standing. The proposed club must apply for a charter by submitting to the charter committee of the central council a formal request designating membership, purpose, constitution, faculty sponsorship, and time and place of regular meetings. The committee examines this request and submits it to the council at the next regular meeting. If the charter is authorized, it is filed in the office of the central council and the club is notified.

Just as every club must be chartered in order to have administrative standing, every pupil who serves as monitor must have a "license" designating name, time, and post of duty. A monitor must carry this license at all times when on duty. Duplicates of these license cards are kept on file by posts, names, and time-schedule in the office of the central council. The standing committee on licenses has charge of this file, and the members must be skilful file clerks so as to keep the cards

of approximately 300 children in order. There are seventy-five monitors in the boys' yard, twenty-five in the girls' yard, ten boys' basement monitors for first floor recess, fifteen boys who operate moving picture machines, forty monitors each hour during the passing in the departmentalized section, sixty fire-drill marshals, and fifty patrol boys who are coordinated with the monitors but who are responsible to the physical education instructor instead of to the council.

Procedure in council meetings—At one typical meeting of the senior council the president called the group to order, the minutes of the last meeting were read by the secretary, and four committees reported. The first committee to report had been responsible for a recent talent show. Pupils having special talents had performed in the assembly hall, and the proceeds from the admission charge were to be turned over to the School Children's Aid Fund collected annually at Thanksgiving time. The committee had sent representatives to the various rooms to ask for their aid in giving publicity to the show and in scouting for talent. The total revenue derived from this performance was reported and recommendation was made to the council that there be certain changes in procedure next year to make the show more attractive both to the performers and to the pupils who paid to look on.

A second committee reported on the matter of ushers at assemblies. Certain definite routines had been established by the group. The ushers were to see that no one entered the assembly hall during the salute to the flag or the singing of "The Star-Spangled Banner." Other routines for the better accommodation of visitors were discussed and rules were set up. In at least one case an usher who was regarded as being ill-suited to his duty was relieved of his post. His card was taken out of the usher-duty file and he was marked as being transferred to a different responsibility. Another usher was, by the same procedure, installed at the former usher's post.

A third committee reported upon the supervision of the supply room. The members had checked supplies which had come in on the board of education truck and had indicated to the school clerk what materials were lacking. This committee also told of the good housekeeping it had been doing in labeling supplies and setting them in convenient order. Since the supply room is large, the task of stock-keeping requires the efforts of a large number of children. Actually, the clerk of the school is responsible for supplies, but there are many phases of checking and taking of inventory wherein intelligent children can be of great help. As in other school activities, the adult in charge shares responsibility and authority with the children.

The report of the committee on monitors was taken up for the most

part with an explanation which the council members were to carry back to their rooms. It had been decided that if any child coming under the observation of a monitor was misbehaving and needed a reprimand, this child should be taken to his homeroom teacher, who would either adjust the case or bring it to the attention of the principal. One will note in this decision of the committee no intention on the part of the children to punish misbehavior, but rather an earnest desire to perform for the school a service which the homeroom teacher might not be in a position to perform.

Underlying philosophy—The administration of such an extensive pupil personnel requires a very high degree of competence on the part of every member of the central council. The work of the committee on monitors, particularly, is of such a delicate and complicated nature that it could not be carried on by the unintelligent. It is only by capitalizing on the mental resources of the most capable members of the school that its public interests can be efficiently administered. Superior pupils are at the same time being educated thru their service to the group.

The superior intelligence of the leaders in LaFayette School manifests itself in the three abilities originally set forth by Binet as characteristic of intelligent persons:¹

1. To make adjustments in order to attain desired ends—managerial ability, administrative ability, ability to control an environment of persons and materials.
2. To take and maintain a definite direction—ability to hold a problem in mind until it is solved or hold to a purpose until it is accomplished.
3. To be self-critical—ability of the pupil to see wherein he is correct or incorrect and to constantly direct his efforts toward self-improvement.

Since administrative ability is an important aspect of intelligent behavior, and since the system at the LaFayette School brings the intelligent pupils to the top in the school community, placing them in power and training them day by day in the exercise of administrative skill, a contribution is being made not only to student government but also to the education of gifted children. Under this plan the gifted child is not a unique individual to be set apart and considered peculiar, but is a leader in service to the school. As long as superior knowledge is looked upon as a treasure, a sort of precious jewel which others thru limitations of intelligence cannot acquire, little progress is made in educating gifted children. But if the gifted person is given guidance in becoming, by virtue of his gifts, the most serviceable person in his group, the whole process of educating such children takes on a new and more significant aspect.

Too often superior children have been overtrained on the receptive

¹ Terman, Lewis M. *The Measurement of Intelligence*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1916. p. 45.

side. They are saturated with factual information because they are frequently insatiable readers. Too often the creative and expressive sides of their development have been neglected. However, when they are confronted with problems which call for creative and expressive ability they can usually learn readily to solve them. When such children take charge of the school's affairs they are given an opportunity for training at the precise point where the need is greatest. Purpose and vitality are given to the education of superior children at the same time that the objectives of efficient student government are being attained.²

² Few readers will question the value of this plan for children of superior ability. Two questions, however, will undoubtedly be raised: (1) Should the training in leadership afforded by membership on a central school council be given *only* to pupils who stand either first or second in scholarship in their respective homerooms? (2) Should the rank and file of pupils in an elementary school be given practice in the wise selection of leaders? These questions will need to be answered for any school in such a way as to yield the greatest benefits for the greatest number of pupils.—*Editorial Committee.*

GREAT achievement in the world depends upon more than a high intelligence. The leader of men needs not only to think clearly, deeply, and accurately; he needs the power of initiative, the capacity for hard work, and the ability to get along with other people. The creative genius in science or literature or art has not only the ability to invent, to write, to draw; he has an emotional drive which makes him lose himself in his work and press on untiringly toward the realization of his ideal. There is no field of great accomplishment which does not require great power of concentration and at least a fair measure of adjustment to the life about one. The capacity which the gifted child possesses can reach its highest expression only if there are developed along with it traits of character that will make him overcome obstacles and give his best to the world.—Martens, Elise H., *Teachers' Problems with Exceptional Children—II: Gifted Children*, U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Office of Education, 1933, p. 12.

PROVIDING OPPORTUNITIES FOR CHILDREN WITH UNUSUAL ABILITY IN THE VISUAL ARTS

MABEL ARBUCKLE

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AGROWING RECOGNITION of responsibility for the child who has above-average capacity is one of many significant changes taking place in our thinking about education. The lack of leadership today in certain areas of creative living is evidence that educators have placed relatively too much emphasis on the education of average and below-average children. The increasing tendency to train purposefully those who indicate unusual ability, rather than to expect them eventually to emerge, without special guidance, from the great mass of average children, is promising. In the field of creative arts this tendency has been especially welcomed by teachers and parents alike.

In the creative arts, ways and means of directing and conserving individual talents are being effectively developed and evaluated. Many public school systems are carrying on experiments or well-established programs in the fields of language arts, drama, music, and graphic, plastic, or industrial arts. In many instances this work is being offered as part of the regular curriculum and during school hours.

Thru art education classes it is comparatively easy to discover a child's dominant interest and ability in visual art expression. This presupposes that the instructor is giving the child freedom to experiment, is providing opportunity for growth in imagination and individual interpretation of ideas, is stimulating and broadening the child's interests, and is guiding him in self-criticism. Under such teaching methods the child with above-average capacity readily responds. Strong and dominant abilities develop and a resourceful teacher will help the child give purpose to these abilities. Thus, the child builds his own peculiar type of creative leadership.

Early provisions—In the Detroit public schools the art instructors first attempted to provide for talented children by organizing after-school classes on all levels of instruction. This was originally an experimental program, initiated by the instructors and the children but carried on with all necessary supervisory and administrative aid.

In these after-school classes, children with outstanding ability to the point of genius in the visual arts were discovered. It soon became advisable to separate those with real genius from others with less talent and aptitude. Accordingly, a Saturday morning class for the very unusual children was organized, drawing its personnel from all

sections of the city and from all colors and races. These children had in common only their capacity, creative power, and high endowment of natural art ability.

The class first met in the Children's Museum, where the boys and girls were surrounded by rare examples of the art of other peoples and other times. They profited by this rich environment and studied it thru research sketches and notebook work. Their own ideas, however, were interpreted by means of clay, paint, crayons, wood, and other simple materials. Teaching service for this class was provided by the art supervisory staff. Materials and necessary transportation were furnished thru a fund set up by the art instructors.

The whole program of after-school and Saturday classes met with the interested support and cooperation of the principals and the general school administration. When the public began to demand that these services be made available to more children, the classes were opened not only to all the public schools but also to the parochial and private schools of metropolitan Detroit. This extension provided the basis of the present extracurriculum program in art.

Organization of present program—The school administration has made these classes a part of the program of art education for the entire educational system by providing a stated budget for teaching service and art supplies. Rigid entrance standards require evidence of exceptional talent before a child can be admitted to a class. Classes are organized for all school divisions according to the recommendations of the principals as to the needs of each division.

In the twelve districts of the elementary division, each district principal reports to the art supervisor the number of classes necessary after he has made a survey of the probable number of eligible children. The district principal also designates which school buildings within his district should be used as centers for the classes. In the elementary schools the classes meet from 3:45 to 4:45 P.M. on one day a week set by the district principal. Approximately twenty after-school classes are in operation in this division. In addition, one class for very exceptional children is held each Saturday morning in the Detroit Institute of Arts.

In the intermediate or junior high division, the selected children meet in intermediate schools on Saturday mornings from 9:15 to 11:45. There are eleven classes in this division. The selection of school centers is made by the supervising director of the intermediate division according to the same procedure used in the elementary division. There is also a Saturday morning class at the Institute of Arts for exceptionally talented intermediate-division children.

In the high-school division six classes meet each Saturday morning

from 9 to 12 in the Institute galleries. Since art education is elective in the high-school curriculum and the time allotted in the regular school program is much more generous than in the other school divisions, this special extracurriculum work has been limited to carefully selected students having unusual ability. These students, in the main, are planning to build life careers in the field of visual arts and they have had continued guidance from the early elementary grades.¹

A room in the Institute of Arts is assigned to students for class work and supplies. Instruction is provided by the board of education. All classes are conducted by art instructors selected from the art teaching staff and are supervised by the art supervisory staff of the public schools. Requisitions for art supplies are handled in the art supervisory office and an inventory of tools and supplies for each class is made at the close of the school year.

The educational staff of the Institute does no teaching or supervising because of a specification in the city charter under which the Institute operates. The entire Institute staff, however, cooperates for the improvement of the art program in the schools, thus giving enriched opportunities not only to the talented child but also to the entire school body.

As children of ability are discovered during a school year they are either immediately enrolled in a class or are placed on a waiting list if the class limit of thirty pupils has already been reached. Special enrolment cards are distributed by district principals to the principals of the respective schools. A facsimile is shown in Figure I. These cards must be signed by parents, principal, and art teacher. They also serve as records of attendance and performance, and space for comments by the special class instructor is provided on the back. The cards are returned at the close of the school year to the art supervisory office, where they are filed for reference thruout the child's school life.

Method of instruction—Students are encouraged to use and experiment with all types of material and processes. They use watercolor and oil paints, chalk and crayons, pencil, and pen and ink. They try the reproduction processes of lithography, etching, and block printing. They experiment in clay modeling, soap and wood carving, pottery-making and ceramics, and textile design in weaving and dyeing. Designs and compositions are the children's own creations. As they grow and develop, these boys and girls learn to express their ideas in

¹ Some high-school graduates are given additional opportunity for development of talent thru annual scholarships offered by the art school of the Society of Arts and Crafts. The director of this school visits the Institute classes to become acquainted with the selected group of young artists and to aid in guidance and stimulation of their ambitions.

ART CLASS FOR TALENTED CHILDREN

CLASS FOR TALENTED CHILDREN
ART EDUCATION DIVISION OF INSTRUCTION DETROIT PUBLIC SCHOOLS

[illegible][illegible]

FIGURE I—REDUCED FACSIMILE OF INDIVIDUAL RECORD FORM FOR CHILDREN
ENROLLED IN SPECIAL ART CLASSES

many mediums and by means of various tools. Thruout the year they accumulate their work in individual portfolios and cabinets.

In the galleries of the Institute of Arts, research on the permanent collections is constantly being done with sketches and notes. Discussion and analysis of displays of contemporary work and transient exhibitions clarify for the children trends and tendencies of modern art expression in various mediums.

The method of instruction is exceptionally important because these children present an unusual problem. Their individuality must be respected and they must be given continued and challenging opportunities for growth. From the first years in elementary school they are more imaginative and more actively curious and investigative than the average child. That period in child development when certain creative techniques and processes are important for personal satisfaction comes earlier for talented children. They must learn to balance vital factors of personality and of predominant interest with other less creative but necessary qualities for growth and enjoyment of life. Unfortunately, many children with one outstanding ability do not readily acquire the strength of purpose to exercise that ability to its utmost. They lack personal poise and direction, and these qualities the instructor must attempt to develop. Wise guidance of talented children requires the constant provision of widening opportunities and new experiences, assistance in organizing these experiences into creative



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expression, and recognition of achievement in accordance with the child's individual capacity.

Group activity in the special classes provides for recognition of personal characteristics and for development of superior capacity. It also gives opportunity for socialized endeavor. Within a class one group is organized around subjectmatter or content and a second group around materials and processes. In the content group every pupil contributes to the total solution of one project, and many materials may be used to produce a unified whole. In the group organized around materials and processes the subjectmatter is more apt to be highly individualized while each child uses the same type of materials and tools. In the latter group the emphasis is on the individual creation rather than on a pattern made from separate pieces.

A balance between *collective* organization and interpretation and *individual* organization and expression is desirable. Extreme independence is often quite evident in highly gifted individuals, and such children have to be taught to work together as well as alone. Occasionally a teacher needs the assistance of the psychological clinic. In problem cases anecdotal records and examples of the child's art work from his early years to the present are submitted to the psychological staff. Often the child is called to the clinic for personal interview and observation if he shows characteristics which need either correction or development.

Conclusion—An annual exhibition of work selected from all these classes is held in the print galleries of the Detroit Institute of Arts the last two weeks in September. In addition to the class work, individual case studies showing the sequence of one child's work from his first school years are included in the exhibit. The latter serves to interpret the evolving artistic ability of such a child thru various stages and ages. The exhibition is opened with a tea for principals, teachers, professional artists, and the interested public.

This extracurriculum program is the result of fifteen years of experiment and practice in the Detroit public schools. Many of the contemporary artists in metropolitan Detroit received their original direction and stimulation from instruction in these special classes. This fact, alone, justifies the belief that this phase of art education in the public school curriculum is filling a vital need for children with unusual ability in the visual arts.

A SCHOOL ORCHESTRA FOR MUSICALLY GIFTED CHILDREN

EDITH COCHRAN, *Principal*
andVIVIAN W. WILLS, *Director of Orchestra*
John Muir School, San Francisco, California

IN THE JOHN MUIR SCHOOL the successful functioning of an elementary-school orchestra over a period of five years has served to promote recognition of the value of instrumental music in the elementary-school curriculum. Such an activity provides for the special guidance and training of musically gifted children and also gives all children an opportunity for the development of certain cultural appreciations.

The school has an enrolment of nearly one thousand pupils. Since it is located near the business district of a large city, most of the families live in apartments or rooming houses. It is necessary, therefore, that teachers give sympathetic and effective attention to the children from these homes in order that they may make desirable social adjustments and continued progress in school.

A survey of the neighborhood showed that over 50 percent of the children had no parent awaiting them at home when school was dismissed in the afternoon. On being asked the question, "What do you do after school?" a child usually answered, "I play in the street." Replies to the question, "What would you like to do?" disclosed the need for providing directed activities and cultural opportunities for children who had few advantages because of a restricted environment or the low economic status of their families. To meet this need the school's curriculum was broadened to include activities planned around varied and desirable leisure-time interests. Thru the cooperation of the faculty and the recreation department, after-school classes were organized.

One enthusiastic, talented young teacher who has special certification in music, and plays most of the orchestral instruments herself, felt that her contribution to these special activities might be to organize a school orchestra. A survey of the school showed that few children played any instrument, so arrangements were made to form beginning instrumental classes. Because of this teacher's responsibility for a regular class, the instrumental classes were scheduled from 8:00 to 9:00 in the morning, and from 3:10 to 4:00 in the afternoon.

Arousing the interest of parents—No new activity outside the regular school hours can succeed without the cooperation of the homes, so a letter was sent to all the parents of children in Grades III, IV,

V, and VI announcing the classes and inviting all interested parents to encourage their children to participate. The letter read as follows:

Dear Parent or Guardian:

Good news for you!

John Muir school is especially fortunate in being able to offer free instruction in instrumental music. Thru these lessons, it is our hope to develop in our pupils the love of music and an ability to play for their own satisfaction and for the enjoyment of others.

Lessons are given for the violin, viola, cello, bass viol, trumpet, flute, clarinet, trombone, alto saxophone, or any other instrument of an orchestra. Children who wish to have lessons must own their instruments. Violins should be the correct size for the child.

We are also privileged in having a children's orchestra which will lead to understanding and appreciation of good music thru playing and interpreting the music of the great masters. Participation in an orchestra develops a keener sense of intonation, rhythm, and style. Citizenship ideals are fostered and worthy use of leisure is encouraged.

Daily Schedule

The daily schedule for the lessons is as follows:

String Instruments:		
Advanced Group	8:00—8:25	Auditorium
Beginning Group	3:10—4:00	Activity Room
Brass Instruments:		
Advanced Group	8:00—8:25	Room "C"
Beginning Group	8:00—8:25	Activity Room
Wood-Wind Instruments:		
Advanced Group	8:00—8:25	Lunchroom
Beginning Group	8:00—8:25	Activity Room
Orchestra Rehearsals	8:30—9:00	Auditorium

Parents' conferences with teacher planned on request.

Instruments must be taken home every night as the school cannot be responsible.

If you are interested in having your child take advantage of this opportunity, please sign and return.

Registration closes

Name of child

Room no. Instrument

Beginner Advanced player

Parent's signature

The response was immediate. In most cases particular enthusiasm was shown by parents of children who had developed a background thru previous school music experiences. It was a promising indication when the children expressed their own choice of instrument. Rarely did parents ask that a child learn to play a certain instrument because "Uncle was a violinist" or there was "an old violin in the family."

Members of the faculty also suggested girls and boys who showed special ability in music. A number from the first and second grades and two from kindergarten wished to join the classes. After a conference with the music teacher and the parents, some of the children were

accepted and assigned to a group. It was not the policy to exclude any child because his particular "gift" had not yet been discovered.

Providing the instruments—Since musical instruments are furnished by the board of education for pupils of the junior and senior high schools only, it was necessary for the elementary-school group to make its own provisions. Parents were advised to interview the music teacher regarding the correct size of instruments which they intended to purchase. Relatives in other cities or states sent instruments that "had been in the family a long time." By restringing some old violins and by restoring a few missing parts to others the orchestra built up its equipment. Secondhand music stores profited. An enthusiastic parent-teacher association was generous in supplying a few of the more unusual instruments that could not be secured otherwise. One father who was a violin maker made two violas as his contribution.

It is hoped that in the future the commissioners of education will be convinced of the value of the elementary-school orchestra and will be able to provide not only instruments, but also the special teachers for instrumental music.

Placing responsibility on parents and pupils—Since the success of any orchestra must depend upon the competence and regularity of attendance of each member, it seemed necessary to make both parents and children aware of their responsibilities. The obligations to be punctual at rehearsals or classes and to practice regularly and carefully at home were impressed upon the parents and the child in the application form for admission to instrumental classes. The statements were as follows:

Parent's Responsibility:

Realizing that the greatest progress is made by those children whose parents are interested, we urge you to cooperate with us in having your child report to instrumental class promptly and regularly.

At least forty-five minutes of daily, correct home practice in a quiet room is required. To avoid fatigue or strain, this practice should be divided into periods of fifteen minutes. Parents or guardians should sign the practice sheets on which the child records the number of minutes of daily practice. These practice sheets will also bring to you a weekly report of your child's progress. Your sympathetic understanding and encouragement are essential for continued growth.

Parents are always welcome to visit the music classes or to attend assembly programs and hear the orchestra.

Parent's signature _____

Child's Responsibility:

I promise to be prompt and regular in my attendance at my music classes.

I shall practice correctly and faithfully at home and at school so that I may learn to play for my own and for others' enjoyment.

Child's signature _____

Room no. _____ Grade _____

Obtaining assistance from student teachers—The ability of the teacher, plus the interest of pupils, parents, and other members of the faculty, inspired an amazing accomplishment. As enthusiasm spread, however, classes grew so rapidly that it became difficult for one teacher to handle the various groups in her limited time. The city's school music director, Mr. Charles Dennis, came to the rescue by making arrangements with the music department of the nearby state teachers college for the practice-teaching services of students working for their special music credentials. Under the general supervision of the college and the immediate supervision of the orchestra teacher, these students are working with various instrumental groups and are giving invaluable assistance to the progress of the entire orchestra.

Providing for adequate practice—Daily supervised practice periods foster continued interest. The children meet in homogeneous groups, according to their ability and the type of instrument, to develop skill and technical facility. The entire group meets for another half-hour period for orchestra rehearsal. In addition, each child does home practice. Everyone in the orchestra is required to record on a special form the total number of minutes of practice he has done each day. The parents are urged to visit the school classes as often as possible so as to enable them to supervise home practice.

Organization of the orchestra—The orchestra includes both the advanced and beginning groups. As soon as beginners gain a degree of control over their instruments they are welcomed into the orchestra. Easy harmony parts containing only familiar notes are written by the teacher and mimeographed for the new children. The advanced pupils play the regular orchestral arrangements.

In this cooperative enterprise the child learns teamwork and realizes that he may not play the melody all of the time. He learns to listen and to recognize the contribution of others when the melody moves to another section.

Providing music materials—The orchestra is indebted to Dr. Charles Lamp,¹ supervisor of instrumental music in the junior and senior high schools, for use of his system of exercises for homogeneous groups. This system has developed careful listening and good intonation in the children. The exercises include a wealth of beautiful folk tunes and themes from the classics which children delight in playing.

As to music for the entire orchestra, particular enjoyment has come from playing selections from the Fox "Old Masters" folios, Rubank's

¹ Dr. Lamp included several of the beginning children in his series of case studies, which indicated that physical development is not the determining factor in successful instrumental playing.

"Symphonette Orchestra" folios, and individual orchestrations which are purchased separately. Every child is expected to own copies of the exercises and the orchestra music in addition to mimeographed scale exercises that are given to him by the teacher. Group chairmen are responsible for filing and checking all music materials.

By selecting and teaching the music of the masters, folk music, and carols in simplified form, the children are learning to know and to prefer the best in music. It is not unusual to hear the children humming or whistling themes from classical music as they work and play. The orchestra teacher arranges and mimeographs folk songs, carols, and other music adapted to special school interests and activities. A few children have written original orchestra compositions to interpret the action in school plays and pageants.

Contributing to pupil adjustment—One case study will illustrate the contribution to pupil adjustment that the orchestra is making.

Robert M. had been socially unadjusted in his former school. He was quarrelsome and disobedient, largely because of friction in his home. Tests had revealed his intelligence but, due to his emotional instability, he was not working up to capacity. Even when he was supplied with glasses to correct a strabismus of his left eye, his problem continued to be serious enough to require the attention of the mental hygiene clinic.

Robert, however, enjoyed singing and listening to music. When the instrumental classes were announced, he appeared with a little old violin and applied for instruction. In an unbelievably short time his personality difficulties disappeared and he was displaying unusual talent for his instrument. With great rapidity he mastered the musical scores and his intonation was perfect from the start. Every piece he played seemed to possess a rare emotional quality.

After two terms with the orchestra Robert had advanced far enough to become concert master. Eventually he was recommended to the Federal Music School for free instruction because his family was unable to provide private lessons.

Successful social and scholastic adjustment followed his security in the orchestra. No longer a "problem child," he became an outstanding member of his group. Furthermore, harmony reentered his home as his father and mother were drawn together in a mutual pride in the success of their child. Both parents brought their friends to hear the boy perform as concert master. Mrs. M. became an enthusiastic worker in the parent-teacher association.

At the time of his graduation from the sixth grade, Robert had the following standings:

Chronological age:	10-11
Mental age:	12- 1
Reading age:	11- 6
Achievement age:	11- 2

He also made a score of 155 out of a possible 165 in the *Strouse Music Test*.¹

When he entered junior high school he was placed in the advanced ninth-grade orchestra immediately and was made concert master there after five months. He

¹ Bureau of Educational Measurements, Kansas State Teachers College, Emporia, Kans.

still returns frequently to John Muir School to report his progress. Rich returns have come from this investment in music.

Opportunities for community service—The important place that this group enterprise has assumed both in the school and in the community is providing worthy recognition for each musically gifted child. About eighty pupils attend instrumental classes and sixty-five are members of the orchestra. Participation in community affairs is anticipated by all members with keen enthusiasm. The orchestra has played for parent-teacher meetings, programs sponsored by the recreation department, music conferences, the teachers institute, and events during Public Schools Week and American Education Week. A climax to the public appearances came when the children were invited to appear before the Department of Elementary School Principals at the convention of the National Education Association in San Francisco in June 1939.

Other enriching experiences—Special opportunity is given to the orchestra members to attend the Young People's Symphony concerts, and pupils are encouraged to listen to the weekly symphony radio broadcasts. Also, the Federal Symphony Orchestra has appeared at the school assembly programs. Members of the school orchestra assist in the school music appreciation program by playing themes from the classics. This contribution adds to the cumulative music repertoire of those who play.

Inspired by their children's desire for greater achievement, parents who are financially able employ private teachers. Gifted pupils who cannot afford private lessons have been accepted for free instruction by the Federal Music School and the Community Music Center.

Outcomes of the project—The educational philosophy at John Muir School recognizes the school's responsibility in discovering the needs of each child and in meeting those needs as far as possible. It is believed that participation in the elementary-school orchestra has brought about the following results: (1) adventure in musical enjoyment for the child who plays an instrument, (2) satisfaction from creative self-expression released thru cooperative musical experiences, (3) pleasure in worthy achievement as the child acquires the necessary skill to enable him to play successfully, (4) refinement of inner feeling that influences wholesome personality development, (5) social understanding as the group cooperates for the enjoyment of many, (6) appreciation of the music of great artists, and (7) knowledge that music is a universal language which breaks down the barriers between all the children of the world.

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CHAPTER VI

PROVIDING FOR SLOW-LEARNING, DIS- INTERESTED, AND RETARDED CHILDREN

EDITORIAL COMMENT

A SLOW-LEARNING CHILD, as the term is used in this chapter, is a child distinctly below the average either in general mental ability or in a specific aptitude. A pupil who lacks interest or is retarded in his schoolwork is not necessarily slow-learning, but limited mental capacity is often a significant factor in educational retardation. The slow-learning child will surely lose interest and fall behind scholastically unless the work is adapted to his abilities and needs.

Altho slow learners have received more attention than pupils of superior ability in most schools, there is a widespread need for more adequate treatment of the slow-learning group. Curriculum enrichment is needed as much for these children as for their more capable fellows. Too little emphasis has been placed on practical activities which challenge the slow child's interest. While such children need to master certain essentials of reading, language, and number, these essentials must be practiced in situations which are significant to persons of limited intelligence. Specialists agree that such pupils need less reading in books, more experience with visual aids and concrete illustrative materials, more manipulative and constructional activity, and more opportunity for firsthand observation in the community.

This chapter deals chiefly, altho not exclusively, with provisions for children who are below average in mental ability. Goetz describes a three-year curriculum for older elementary pupils who have become at least two years retarded in the regular schoolwork. Mahoney outlines a special-class program for mentally retarded children at several school levels. Greenberg tells about an experimental program for children with IQ's of 75 to 90. Hartill and Loretan report an experiment involving special classes for boys who are educationally or socially maladjusted. These articles contain suggestions of value for the care of slow-learning children in regular as well as special classes.

The remainder of the chapter deals with remedial instruction in reading. Gates reviews the available technics for correcting reading difficulties in Grades III to VIII, while Richardson and Franklin describe a remedial project in the upper grades of their school.

On page 481 is a list of other valuable readings on the education of slow-learning and retarded pupils.—*Editorial Committee.*



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A SPECIAL CURRICULUM FOR SLOW-LEARNING CHILDREN

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IN BALTIMORE it is believed that the usual procedures of grouping pupils within classes according to ability and of providing intensive remedial work to overcome the weaknesses of some pupils in certain subjects do not adequately meet the needs of slow-learning, retarded, and over-age children. Consequently, the Baltimore public schools began in the year 1927 to offer a program which is now known as occupational education. This program consists of a special three-year curriculum for boys and girls who, because of several failures, have become two or more years retarded in their schoolwork. Occupational centers are located in schools in all sections of the city so that pupils will not have to travel great distances in order to take advantage of the special curriculum. Each occupational class enrolls about twenty-five pupils, either boys or girls, thus making it possible for the teacher to give individual instruction. Since 1927 the program has been greatly enlarged, with the result that there are now about twenty-three occupational centers which care for a group of approximately 2800 pupils.

Selection of pupils for occupational classes—In order to be considered for placement in an occupational class, pupils must be at least thirteen years of age and must have reached at least fifth-grade achievement levels in reading and arithmetic. They must also have an intelligence quotient of at least 80. Mentally subnormal children are not considered for this work since there are other divisions in the school system which provide special curriculums for the mentally handicapped. When slow-learning pupils who are of similar size and age, and who have similar interests, are grouped together in special classes or centers, the problem of caring for their needs is made less difficult than when such pupils remain in regular classes with faster-learning, younger, and smaller children progressing at a normal rate thru the elementary grades.

Types of activities and apportionment of time—As shown in Figure I, the instructional program for occupational classes provides for a six-hour school day. One-half of this time is used for shop activities for boys and home economics activities for girls; the other half is devoted to related work. In the related work, English, arithmetic, reading, and other subjects similar to those included in the regular elementary-school curriculum are emphasized. The activities provided in the shop and home economics programs offer opportunities for the boys and

FIGURE I—THE SIX-HOUR OCCUPATIONAL SCHOOL DAY

Related Subjects	Practical Work	L U N C H	Related Subjects	Practical Work
8:30 to 10:00			12:00 to 1:30	
to 11:30			to 3:00	
Morning Session			Afternoon Session	

girls to learn good work habits in preparation for employment or homemaking when they leave school. The complete list of subjects and activities undertaken in these classes is as follows:

Related Subjects		Practical Work	
Reading	History	<i>Boys</i>	<i>Girls</i>
Arithmetic	Geography	Wood shop	Clothing
English	Science	Metal shop	Cookery
Handwriting	Spelling	Freehand drawing	Household
Physical education	Art	Electricity	management
	Music		Child care

The following sections deal largely with the academic phases of the program, since these phases require special adjustment to the abilities and needs of slow learners.

English—Altho the subjects included in the related work for occupational pupils are similar to those provided for typical pupils of intermediate-grade level, the content in each subject differs for these two groups of pupils. Since most of the occupational pupils terminate their education in the occupational centers, the content of each subject must include work which has practical value. Such work must also appeal to the mature interests of these boys and girls. Curriculum materials for occupational classes, therefore, have been and are being developed and improved with these two factors in mind. For example, in a recently revised English course of study for intermediate grades special note is made of English activities which should be provided for occupational pupils. Some of these activities are:

1. Acknowledging introductions properly
2. Getting railroad, express, or other similar information by telephone
3. Discussing vocational interests
4. Discussing current events of local, national, or international importance
5. Reporting a message
6. Applying for a position
7. Applying for opportunity to share in special office duties or in helping with certain school duties
8. Securing information from salespeople about the prices of materials

9. Applying for a certificate to sell newspapers
10. Writing messages on postcards
11. Writing replies to classified "ads" such as "Help Wanted" or "Lost and Found"
12. Writing the information requested on various cards and questionnaires
13. Writing the necessary information in applications for membership in the class, school, or Enoch Pratt Library.

These experiences in English are among those for which the boys and girls can recognize a real need and in which their interest may be easily aroused.

Arithmetic—The arithmetic program now being planned for these pupils provides, first, for emphasis on the fundamental processes with which the pupils have become acquainted in their intermediate-grade experience but which many of them have not mastered to a sufficient degree. To overcome the difficulties which might occur because of the pupils' feeling of "going over something they already know," the course of study will contain many suggestions for close integration of the fundamental processes with home economics and shop experiences, as well as with the occupational activities in which these boys and girls engage after school hours and during their summer vacations.

Second, the arithmetic program will emphasize certain topics for which the pupils, as future wage-earners or homemakers, may have need. They will be given experience in such activities as budgeting and banking and in making out and interpreting sales slips, bills, and receipts.

By arranging the arithmetic program for the three-year occupational course so that the pupils do not feel pressed to accomplish the work of the regular intermediate grades, it is hoped that they will master the number skills which are necessary for their daily life activities.

Reading—An important part of the reading program for occupational classes centers around the use of the newspaper. Since success in many positions depends upon the worker's knowledge of and ability to understand the daily news, the boys and girls in these classes are given instruction which will acquaint them with the various parts of the daily paper and the kind of information found in each part. At the same time, it is hoped that they will be encouraged to use the newspaper as a means of keeping well informed as citizens. The newspaper material that is read, interpreted, and discussed during the reading period may also be utilized to advantage by the pupils in many of their other school activities.

Work on important reading skills, including the noting of details, vocabulary building, and location and evaluation of material, is carried

on with these pupils as with those who follow the regular grade curriculum. However, the reading material differs in that it is selected with the idea of making an appeal to the interests of these "teen age" boys and girls.

Social studies—A three-year program of units in social studies for use in occupational classes has been planned to accomplish the following objectives:

1. To make the daily school life of the pupil a worthwhile and satisfying experience
2. To stress the fact that cooperation between individuals, groups, and governments is essential for
 - a. The happiness and security of all people
 - b. The maintenance of goodwill among nations
 - c. An intelligent solution of world problems
 - d. The conservation of natural resources
 - e. The progress of industry
3. To further the individual's knowledge and appreciation of the opportunities afforded him by his immediate community, city, state, and nation so that he will
 - a. Desire to take advantage of these opportunities
 - b. Be better able to assume civic responsibilities.

Some of the units in the social studies program are concerned with: (1) how Baltimore has been able to take a leading part in the development of the flying clippers; (2) how women of modern times have contributed to progress and social welfare; (3) how Baltimore provides opportunities for spending leisure time; (4) how training in the office duties of the school will benefit boys and girls who are preparing for business; (5) why the weather bureau is important to all people; (6) how the newspaper influences the lives of many people; (7) why crime does not pay; (8) how Baltimore industries provide a variety of opportunities for occupations; (9) how Baltimore affords many opportunities for part-time and seasonal occupations; (10) legal aids in industry; and (11) how our country carries out a program of conservation. In planning for the use of such units it was found desirable to prepare the following materials:

1. A manual for the teacher's use
This manual contains a list of objectives, an outline of content, suggested integrations particularly suitable for occupational pupils, a list of activities in which the boys and girls may participate during their study of the unit, and an extensive bibliography of references for teachers and pupils.
2. A textbook for the pupils
Since there is little available printed material on the topics treated in the units, or if such material is available the reading content is too difficult for the pupils, the preparation of textbook material constitutes a major part of the curriculum work in social studies.
3. A series of checks which may be used to test the pupils' understanding of the reading matter
4. A collection of maps, charts, graphs, and pictures to enrich the pupils' work.

A part of the content for one unit in the teacher's manual appears as follows:

I. How Baltimore affords many opportunities for part-time and seasonal occupations

A. Problems of boys and girls which make a part-time occupation desirable

1. Desire to increase spending money
2. Desire to purchase something which parents cannot provide
3. Need for sharing cost of personal up-keep because of financial difficulties at home
4. Need for experience in order to secure permanent employment
5. Desire to help out a friend to whom the individual's services are valuable.

B. Value of a part-time job

1. Effect on the worker

- a. Development of a proper attitude toward work
- b. Development of an appreciation of the dignity of labor
- c. Desire to accept his share of responsibility in the home

2. Value to the community

- a. Worthy use of spare time as an aid to keeping individuals out of trouble
- b. Development of habits which make for good citizenship.

A typical story from the pupils' textbook for the same unit read as follows:

HOW AN IDEA WAS PUT TO WORK

It was getting warm outdoors; spring was close by. Mrs. Smith decided to bring out her porch furniture. "I didn't realize that these porch chairs looked so shabby!" she exclaimed.

"I have an idea, Mother," said John, who was near by. "Let me paint them."

"Certainly, son, if you think you can do it right," replied his mother.

"I know how to do it. First, I'll wash the furniture to cut the grease and dirt. Then I'll sandpaper any rough places and scrape off old bits of paint. After that I'll be ready to put on my first coat of paint. I don't have to use regular paint for this first coat. There is a flat paint sold which is cheaper and better to use. When the first coat is completely dry, I'll be ready for the second coat. I'll be sure to use an outdoor paint on any porch furniture, porch steps, window boxes, or fences. The second coat of paint has to be put on much more carefully than the first. I'll make sure that my brush is clean, dry, and of good quality. Brushing the paint on with even, smooth strokes is very important. I must try to follow the grain of the wood when possible. I'll make sure that there are no teardrops of paint running down the sides."

When John had completed his job on the porch furniture it looked as good as new.

"Mother, I wonder if Mrs. Brill, next door, would like me to paint her porch furniture, too?" asked John one day.

"Go and ask her, son, I think she would like to have it done," answered his mother.

John got not only Mrs. Brill's porch furniture to paint, but many other jobs in the neighborhood. Then he painted Mrs. Norton's window boxes, Mrs. Smith's front steps, and even a fence.

One neighbor, who saw what fine jobs John was turning out, asked him to paint her kitchen furniture. This time he remembered to use a fine glossy indoor paint. He knew that the best way to paint chairs was to turn them upside down, begin working at the bottom of the legs and then turn them right

side up, and stand them on a clean newspaper to complete the work. The same was true about tables.

Each time John finished a paint job, he remembered to clean his brushes carefully and rinse them in turpentine. He stored them by suspending them in linseed oil. He wanted to be sure he would be asked to do other jobs for the same people.

Special activities—In addition to the activities provided thru the subjects already mentioned, there are many others which aid the occupational pupil to gain pleasure and value from his schoolwork. Glee clubs, hobby clubs, athletic events, and excursions to many and varied places of interest are conducted under teacher supervision. Sometimes it is thru these extracurriculum activities that boys and girls are stimulated to put forth the effort necessary for successful work in other phases of school life.

Opportunities for advanced pupils—Pupils who show ability to do a high type of work in the regular occupational centers are promoted to occupational schools where a larger number and a more advanced type of shop activities are provided. At the present time there are three such schools. Recently an entire house, known as the Practice House, has been given over to practical activities in homemaking for certain girls who show particular aptitude for this work. Under the supervision of a teacher these girls are given guidance in all problems relating to the care and management of a home. In addition, a few boys and girls may go from the advanced occupational classes into the vocational schools. For a majority of pupils, however, the occupational program serves as the terminal of formal education. When their work in the occupational centers is completed they leave to seek employment.

WE no longer think it a disgrace that Joe does not learn arithmetic as well as John any more than it is a disgrace for Peter not to be able to make a kite or to handle a hammer as well as Paul. The wise and skillful teacher knows the child's weaknesses, but he knows also his strengths. He knows that education is not limited to book learning. He knows that it consists rather of the development of those capacities which the child possesses—whether they be academic or manual or social or musical or of any other type—to the end that he may live happily as a social being in a social world.—Martens, Elise H., *Teachers' Problems with Exceptional Children—III: Mentally Retarded Children*, U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Office of Education, 1934, p. 15.

CLASSES FOR MENTALLY RETARDED CHILDREN

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CHILDREN WHOSE SCHOOL PROGRESS is erratic, puzzling, and retarded, whose behavior is perplexing, whose mental and emotional adjustment is poor, or whose physical condition requires special attention are to be found in every school. Whatever the type of difficulty, the past few years have seen a significant change in our attitude toward, and handling of, these children. An increasing number of school systems are giving early attention to the difficulties with which such children struggle, and thus are striving to prevent the development of more serious problems and to effect a better adjustment for each handicapped child. While there is still much to be learned about the nature and effective treatment of such children, considerable progress has been made. In Indianapolis, for example, there are special classes for the crippled, the malnourished, the hard of hearing, the defective in speech, the blind and partially seeing, the emotionally unstable, and the mentally retarded. This article is concerned with the purposes, organization, and program of the classes for mentally retarded children in this city.

GENERAL OBJECTIVES

The general objectives of all special education classes in Indianapolis, including those for mentally retarded children, are as follows: (1) to teach the handicapped child to understand his abilities and his shortcomings, and to help him develop in every desirable way up to the limit of his abilities; (2) to teach the child to live happily with himself and his neighbors; (3) to develop his physical body so that he will enjoy as good health as his heredity permits; (4) to develop in him the ideals, attitudes, and emotional control necessary for adequate social adjustment; (5) to help him cultivate as great an interest as possible in the life about him—in good friends, nature, sports, literature, and music; and (6) to develop in him the desire to be of service to his fellows.

ORGANIZATION OF CLASSES

The special classes for mentally retarded pupils are established in centers in different parts of the city. One of the largest of these centers is the Vonnegut School (No. 9), which was chosen for this purpose because of its downtown location and easy accessibility. In this school there are nine homerooms for mentally retarded children and

thirteen homerooms for normal children. Enrolment in the special class homerooms averages thirty pupils, while that of the regular class homerooms averages forty-two. This does not mean, however, that there are always that many pupils in a given class period.

Grouping of pupils—The classes for mentally retarded children are organized in two main divisions, A and B. The A division is composed of children whose mental retardation is more than four years—that is, children whose mental ages are more than four years below their chronological ages. The B division includes children whose mental retardation is four years or less. Each of these divisions includes classes at the primary, intermediate, and advanced levels. In general, the primary level is for children who are socially, physically, and chronologically eight, nine, or ten years old; the intermediate group comprises children from ten to thirteen years old; and the advanced group is for children thirteen or more years old. However, there is no hard and fast rule that a pupil must remain in any certain class because of his chronological, social, or mental age. Pupils are moved to another class if proper adjustment is not secured under the first classification.

Admission to classes—A regular procedure is followed in admitting children to these classes. Each candidate is referred to the social worker either by the principal or teacher of the home school or by the parent or guardian of the child. The social worker makes all arrangements for the various tests required. A complete physical check-up is demanded, including special examinations of the eyes and ears. It is highly desirable that each child be given at least one individual mental test, one group intelligence test, and a performance test. The social worker, with the assistance of a psychologist and a psychiatrist, makes a complete survey and report on the child's characteristics, his home, the neighborhood in which he lives, the schools he has attended in the past, and the school he is now attending. Personal interviews are frequently arranged between the child's parents and the principal of the school which he will probably attend if admitted to a special class.

THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

The problems of the mentally retarded child are not solved merely by discovering his level of ability and placing him in a special class. Ways of forming better habits and of developing the child to the limits of his capacity must be worked out. The teachers of such children must not look upon them as inferior or as having "character defects." They must not set definite standards of attainment for these pupils but must encourage and challenge them to reach as high standards as possible.

Individual guidance—At the Vonnegut School each mentally retarded child is studied individually and a special program is arranged for him. If he shows unusual aptitude for a subject, whether it be an academic subject, art, music, or any of the vocational subjects offered, he is permitted to devote more than the normal number of periods to it. If a pupil needs special help in a fundamental or tool subject, he may be assigned to more than one class in that subject or he may be given individual instruction until he has achieved some measure of success and recognition in that particular field. Pupils from the mentally retarded classes may also be assigned to certain classes with the normal children, while children from the normal classes who are greatly retarded in certain subjects may be assigned to mentally retarded classes until they are able to participate successfully in the regular classes.

A system has also been worked out with the Arsenal Technical High School whereby certain mentally retarded pupils take some advanced work at the high school while continuing to attend the Vonnegut School for other subjects. For instance, one sixteen-year-old boy goes to Tech High for advanced instrumental music classes with the opportunity of playing in the high-school band. He also takes advanced cabinet shopwork there but his academic subjects are cared for at Vonnegut. This plan has two advantages: (1) It gives the child an opportunity to establish himself successfully in high school, thereby bridging a gap which usually is difficult for a mentally retarded child to span; and (2) it affords an opportunity for the pupil to advance in the things he is capable of doing, thereby contributing to the first objective of special education.

Vocational work—The special curriculums for mentally retarded pupils include a variety of vocational activities. The boys have an opportunity to learn the essentials of messenger service, stockroom work, filling orders, delivery service, routine office work, woodworking, simple repair work requiring soldering, simple electrical repair work, printing, janitor service, care of lawns and shrubs, and various jobs connected with a lunchroom. The girls have an opportunity to learn the skills involved in cooking for family meals or for a lunchroom, sewing (with emphasis on repairing and making over clothes), crocheting, knitting, laundry work, messenger service, routine office work, waiting on table, answering telephone calls and relaying messages correctly, buying supplies for lunchroom and kitchen, taking care of small children, and planning menus for the home or lunchroom on a limited budget.

Tool subjects—In the tool subjects the course of study varies with the group. For instance, in an A group composed of boys who are

fourteen or fifteen years old chronologically but only four or five years old mentally, reading instruction is based on the signs and notices frequently encountered in life, such as "Fire Escape," "Exit," "Entrance," and "This Way, Please." In arithmetic such children learn to tell time, make change, compute simple bills, count articles, read house and telephone numbers, and read and interpret the amounts of money specified on bills such as those for water, gas, and electricity.

In a group having higher intelligence the reading level is somewhat higher. Certain current papers prepared for primary children, such as *My Weekly Reader*,¹ are used in such groups. We find it detrimental to have these children read from books which are marked for use at the first-, second-, or third-grade level. While the content of such books is often appropriate, their labels call attention to the children's retardation and thus create an unfavorable attitude toward reading.

In arithmetic these more intelligent pupils are given as much work in the four fundamental processes as they are able to master. They also discuss as thoroly as possible the social aspects of arithmetic. A good example of the latter is found in the unit on taxation. At the end of this unit a pupil does not know how to solve tax problems but he does know what a tax-paper is, where taxes are paid, the purposes for which taxes are used, the kinds of taxes that affect him or his family, the penalty for failure to pay, and so on. Some classes have visited the courthouse where property taxes are paid in Indianapolis. They have also learned about special taxes or licenses and have visited the state house and the city hall where such taxes are paid.

Social studies—All mentally retarded pupils are given as many social experiences as possible in order that they may (1) develop a better understanding of all peoples and their various contributions to civilized living, (2) appreciate the work and sacrifice necessary for the development of civilization, and (3) realize that progress is characteristic of society as a whole and that each person can and should have some part in that progress. Experiences contributing to the attainment of these objectives are provided thru visits to factories, stores, governmental agencies, and other community institutions; thru visual aids, including exhibits at the Children's Museum, traveling exhibits and films from the visual education department of the Indianapolis schools, pictures from the Indianapolis public library, and the school's or the teacher's private collection of pictures and slides; thru lectures by public-spirited businessmen who understand the problem and are willing to aid in making a better citizenry; and thru talks given by children of the various nationalities in the school.

¹ Published by the American Education Press, Columbus, Ohio.

One of the most successful units developed in the social studies was concerned with transportation. The purposes of this unit were (1) to develop a growing interest in the country beyond the child's immediate environment and to realize that changes are taking place continually, (2) to develop a keener observation of one's environment, (3) to learn what the barriers to transportation were and are, and how they have been and are being overcome, (4) to learn that continuous progress is necessary to satisfy man's demands for greater speed, efficiency, and safety in transportation, (5) to learn that the development of transportation helps to bring the peoples of the world closer together, (6) to understand the need for growth in transportation to keep pace with other phases of development in the world, in a particular country, or in an individual city, (7) to develop concepts of time and distance in relation to travel, and (8) to note the vocational opportunities available in the field of transportation and the types of work in this field which these children might expect to pursue successfully. These purposes were accomplished thru the use of a sound motion picture entitled "The Development of Transportation";² slides showing various aspects of transportation; two radio broadcasts on the subject; visits to a railroad station, an airport, and a streetcar barn; talks by a railroad executive, a railroad engineer, and a repairman at one of the roundhouses; an exhibit and explanation of an automobile motor; and talks by children in the school who were born in other countries, comparing methods of transportation in those countries with the methods used in this country. Among these children were representatives from Canada, Mexico, China, Italy, Greece, Venezuela, and England. It is hardly necessary to add that the devices and activities mentioned here produced results which could not have been achieved by trying to read textbooks on transportation.

Other fields—The classes in art, instrumental music, and science include only those pupils who show special interest and aptitude in these fields. All children, however, participate in some form of physical activity, and all are enrolled in health and safety units. Certain pupils are given opportunity for rest periods if the examining physician so directs. In clubs, auditorium work, and massed choruses, normal and mentally retarded children are combined.

CONCLUSION

People often ask if the mentally retarded child really can be educated. To the person who insists that education means successful academic achievement in a standard elementary and high-school program

²Issued by Erpi Picture Consultants Inc., New York City.

of studies the answer is "no." But most of us have progressed beyond that conception of education. We have grown away from the idea that every child must be like every other child and that all children should be expected to master the same types of school problems. We know, too, that education is not limited to book learning. Just as there are tasks that the short person can do better than the person of average or above-average height, there are tasks better suited to the mentally backward child than to the normal or bright child. We must therefore train the backward child to do such tasks as well as his capacities will permit. It is not the specific character of his job that makes a person happy or unhappy; the thing that counts is his inward sense of success and effectiveness or of failure and ineffectiveness in that job. Hence, if family, school, and other social influences are appropriately shaped, success, happiness, and a place in the world may be attained by a person of any except the very lowest levels of intelligence.

In America, the highest type of education consists in developing the capacities which the child possesses—whether they be academic, social, musical, artistic, manual, routine, or of any other type—to the end that he may live happily as an individual and as a member of a democratic society. Each child should be held responsible for the maximum development and optimum use of his abilities, and it is our privilege and responsibility as educators to help him reach these goals. According to this conception of education the mentally retarded child can be educated as successfully as his more intelligent fellows.

EVEN at its best, the class program which must provide for the mentally deficient child in the same group with the mentally superior child is usually not the most desirable plan for either pupil or teacher. Much more satisfactory conditions may obtain if seriously retarded children can be gathered together into a separate class assigned to an understanding teacher. Then there is every possibility of centering the class work about the needs of this particular level of intelligence.—Martens, Elise H., *Teachers' Problems with Exceptional Children—III: Mentally Retarded Children*, U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Office of Education, 1934, p. 29.

CARING FOR SLOW LEARNERS IN SPECIAL CLASSES

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IN FEBRUARY 1936 the board of education of New York City in conjunction with the Advanced School of Education of Teachers College, Columbia University, set up in Public School 500, known also as Speyer School, an experiment in the education of two groups of atypical children. The purpose has been to develop new techniques, new methods, and new materials of instruction for fast learners with IQ's of 130 or higher, and for slow learners with IQ's ranging from 75 to 90. There are two classes of fast learners and seven of slow learners, each with an enrolment of twenty-five children.

The slow-learner group was organized in order to find out just what could be accomplished with children commonly classified as dull normal if they were placed in the care of teachers and supervisors who were sympathetic with their needs and who would endeavor thru co-operative effort to provide adequate individual instruction. This experiment signified more to the staff than merely helping the children attain certain standards of accomplishment in the school subjects. It meant taking the child's health into account, studying his environment, and enlisting the aid of every element in his home and community which would be effective in meeting his needs. Furthermore, it meant providing for the child the kind of school life that would enable him to realize his potentialities as an individual and as a member of a group.

ADMINISTRATIVE ASPECTS OF THE PROGRAM

Organization of classes—When the slow-learning children were admitted to Public School 500 they were placed in the grades which they would have attended had they remained in their former schools. However, the classes were not designated by grade numbers but were known by the names of the teachers, as Mrs. Cook's group or Miss Berken's group. This was done to enable the children to form a new concept of the term "my class" so they would not feel that they had been temporarily thrown together to achieve certain academic accomplishments, but that with their teacher as a guide and friend they were embarking on a program of cooperative work and play. Each child was made to understand that he had a definite place in the group and that the success of the group's undertakings was dependent on the contribution of every member.

Assignment of teachers—In order that the teachers might acquire an intimate knowledge of their children, it was planned to have each teacher remain with her class for a period of five years. This has not been possible in all cases because of unavoidable changes in the teaching staff. However, the children have had fewer changes of teachers during the four years of the experiment than they would have had in other public schools. Three of the classes still have their original teachers; the remaining four classes have had two teachers each.

This plan of assignment has resulted in each teacher's knowing her children almost as well as their own parents do. It has given her opportunities of making frequent visits to each child's home and has enabled her to watch each child's growth over an extended period of time. She gains an accurate knowledge of those elements in the child's environment which are possible sources of harm to him and she can help to build up his resistance to their influence. She knows his character, its strengths and weaknesses, and can plan a long-term program for the development of a personality in which the good qualities will be firmly established and the bad ones eliminated.

Promotion of pupils—Since each class remains intact at the end of each term and moves on as a unit, promotion day has ceased to mean much to these children. Because June 30 and January 31 are promotion days in the neighboring schools, the children like to be reassured and generally ask whether they have been advanced a grade. However, no child ever "fails," and there is little to mark the fact that one term has ended and a new one begun. On February 1, each group continues with its activities of January 31. As one of the children said, "Every day is promotion day in Public School 500. You just go a little bit further every day."

This does not mean that a child is not held to standards of accomplishment. He is expected to show regular growth according to his capacity. The teacher determines his growth to the best of her ability with the aid of such objective measurements as are at her command and such knowledge of the child as can be obtained from her daily contacts in the classroom. If the child does not seem to be working to his capacity, the teacher tries to discover the reason. Sometimes it can be found in his physical condition; sometimes he is under a severe emotional strain. Recently, one of the children who had made slow but steady progress for two years began to do very poor work. His test results on the *New Stanford Achievement Test*¹ at the end of the sixth term were lower than they had been at the end of the fifth term. When the teacher learned that the boy's parents were obtaining a

¹ Published by the World Book Co., Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York.

divorce and that he was sorely distressed by the situation at home, she understood his inability to concentrate on school problems.

Occasionally, but not often, a child is actually lazy and does not want to make the effort to do the thing that is difficult for him. Retarding such a child has never solved this problem. The teacher of a lazy child talks the situation over frankly with him and with his parents and tries to enlist the cooperation of both.

Reclassification of pupils—Some adjustments have been made in the placement of children in the various classes. Usually, in any group of slow learners selected from traditional school organizations, one will find children who have been retarded so often that they are much older than the other members of the group and, consequently, have serious social maladjustments. Wherever such cases have occurred, placements similar to the following have been made.

Harvey and Harriett were two colored children who had been in the youngest group for a year. They had entered public school at the respective ages of eight and eight and a half years, had not been promoted from Grade I-A, and were enrolled at Public School 500 on that level. Little was known about them except that they were nonreaders. During their third term in the school, they began to develop behavior difficulties which seemed to be caused by their placement with younger children. Harvey bullied his classmates and Harriett became increasingly infantile in her reactions. She cried very easily and developed an excessive shyness. Both children were removed from the Grade II-A group and were placed in Grade IV-A with children who were approximately as old as they. A change for the better occurred almost at once. Harvey ceased bullying because the older boys would not take it. Harriett began to participate in the activities of the other children and has become increasingly self-reliant and confident. Both of them still read on a level far below any of their associates, but the class carries on so many activities from which their poor reading ability does not exclude them that they feel themselves integral parts of the group.

We have made eleven adjustments of this type in a school population of 175. All except one have been made by placing the child in a higher grade. In this one case, serious illness had kept the child out of school for several months. She is delicate and physically immature, and finds herself much happier with a group younger than that with which she was originally placed.

INSTRUCTION AND GUIDANCE

Development of pupil personality—The needs of slow-learning children are not essentially different from those of other children but

greater relative stress must be placed on meeting certain of these needs than is the case with children of higher intelligence. One reason for this is that the slow child has very often developed feelings of inferiority in his associations with brighter children, and these feelings may lead to many personality maladjustments. Therefore, the primary concern of the slow child's teacher is to help the child build a healthy and happy personality. In so doing, the teacher organizes her program around the six cardinal objectives for elementary education, namely, to help every child

1. To understand and practice desirable social relationships
2. To discover and develop his own desirable individual aptitudes
3. To cultivate the habit of critical thinking
4. To appreciate and desire worthwhile activities
5. To gain command of the common integrating knowledge and skills
6. To develop a sound body and normal mental attitudes.²

Development of desirable social relationships—An individual cannot live a happy and useful life, either as a child or as an adult, if he has not learned to get along with other people. In all the slow-learner groups the children are given many opportunities to practice desirable social relationships. The teacher and children together plan their work for the day. Often small groups of children pool their resources in planning and carrying thru a project which interests them and promises to be of value to the class or the school. In one of the groups, three boys have been preparing a daily newspaper which they post on the school bulletin board. They have shown initiative in adding new features to the paper and they display good judgment in planning and in making group decisions. The teachers are alert to encourage any manifestation of an interest which may lead to this type of group activity because they know that the child acquires desirable social traits only thru opportunities for practicing them.

The children are learning to criticize each other's performances fairly and to accept criticism if it is justified. It is a common sight to see a child testing three or four of his companions in spelling and then helping them to learn any misspelled words. These boys and girls, altho slow, are learning the science and the art of successful living in a democratic society.

Discovery and development of aptitudes—The development of any special aptitude will do much to overcome a pupil's feeling of inferiority. A slow learner's special talent may be of a very humble sort but an alert teacher endeavors to uncover it. One of the boys in the young-

² New York Council of Superintendents, Committee on Elementary Education. *Cardinal Objectives in Elementary Education*. Second report. Albany, N. Y.: State Education Department, 1929. p. 13.

est group has a remarkable sense of rhythm. The fact that he is often chosen to lead the singing in his class or in the assembly has compensated for his extreme slowness in learning to read. He has one of the lowest IQ's in his group and has a special disability in reading and spelling. Even the remedial work in these subjects does not seem to facilitate his learning. But his ability to beat out complicated rhythms has commanded the admiration of his classmates and has built up his own self-respect.

Finding worthy interests and objectives—In the majority of cases, the slow-learning child in Public School 500 belongs to a family in the lower economic brackets. Therefore, the teachers keep in mind the resources of the home and the community in planning their classroom activities. The children are led to see that interesting and worthy activities may be followed without the expenditure of large sums of money.

During the past term one of the older groups made equipment for developing and enlarging pictures. They made this equipment almost entirely from secondhand material, most of which was obtained from the junk shop next door to the school. These children have learned how to engage at comparatively little cost in a hobby which most people consider very expensive. Other children have used their shop periods to construct frames on which they are making hooked rugs for their bathrooms at home. The backing of the rugs consists of burlap bags which were supplied by a feed store. The rugs themselves were contributed by the entire school. In the pursuit of activities such as these the child feels the thrill of successful accomplishment and common things take on a new significance for him.

Trips to places of interest—The children in the slow-learning groups, in common with many other children of similar mentality and family background in New York City, have been extremely limited in the range of their experiences. Most of them have been unaware of the rich opportunities for worthwhile experiences offered by the city in which they live. From the beginning, therefore, the classes have taken excursions. On these trips some of the children have entered a large department store for the first time in their lives. They have seen the treasures of the Museum of Art and have become acquainted with the variety of exhibits in the Museum of Natural History. They have watched radio broadcasts, have seen the harbor from the deck of a ferryboat, and have visited factories, milk-bottling plants, and storage warehouses. Out of these excursions have grown interests which have led to keeping scrapbooks, to extensive reading in certain fields suggested by visits, and to sharing with parents an

enthusiasm for museums and parks. Drab and disinterested little personalities have blossomed out under the stimulus of rich and varied experiences.

Aids to critical thinking—Critical thinking is by no means impossible for the slow learner, but thinking in abstract terms is much more difficult for him than for the bright child. The trips have been a means of giving the children many and varied perceptual experiences, and discussion of these experiences has presented opportunities for the development of habits of clear and concise thought.

Another form of perceptual experience which has been used as a basis for developing critical thinking has been that gained thru moving pictures, slides, and other visual materials. For example, a child of third-year reading ability has seen a picture of the cattle industry and asks: "Why do farmers feed corn to cattle before sending them to market? Wouldn't it be less work to turn them out on the range than to raise corn and cut it to feed to them? There must be some reason for it." Clearly this form of presentation provides concepts which stimulate thinking of a critical form, concepts which a slow child never could have obtained from a book because of his limited reading ability.

Development of skills—The staff is fully cognizant of the fact that all children, slow learners as well as fast learners, must acquire a certain amount of facility in reading, writing, spelling, understanding of number situations, manipulation of numbers, and specialized skills such as the reading of maps and the perception of time relationships. Not all children are capable of developing an equal degree of skill in any of these areas. Therefore, all that is expected is that a child shall work to his capacity as determined by the best available tests. If a child's achievements in any area are below what should be expected in the light of what is known about him, efforts are made to find the reason for his failure and remedial instruction is given. Some of the remedial instruction has been given by WPA teachers of remedial reading and arithmetic; other instruction is given by the class teacher.

The skills are not taught apart from the rest of the school program but are integrated with all activities. The spelling words studied by the children are those which they need in their written work or those which are rich in meaning to them because they have been used in discussion of a class activity. The form of a business letter was learned in one class by writing letters to chambers of commerce in various cities in order to obtain information for the teacher who was to take a summer trip thru the West. One of the youngest groups is learning the meaning of the processes of multiplication, subtraction, and addi-

tion, and the technics necessary for working examples, by keeping the scores of games played during the daily game period each morning.

Curriculum organization—In each class the curriculum has been organized around broad units of activity, each of which has grown out of some dominant interest of the majority of the group. Sometimes a unit offers opportunity for major experiences in one area, sometimes in another. Each class has had opportunity for experience in many fields. It has never been felt that all the children's experiences at a given time need necessarily be an integral part of the unit. There has always been enough flexibility in planning to allow for the pursuit of spontaneous interests and minor activities which may develop concurrently with the major unit of work. The skill of the teacher is demonstrated in her handling of these spontaneous activities.

School and community relations—One element in the school's program should be mentioned specifically; it has already been implied in the discussion of trips and of the close relationship between the teacher and the home. The school recognizes the futility of its educational efforts if the forces influencing the child outside the school are motivated by ideals which conflict with those of the school. Therefore Public School 500 strives to break down in the community and in the home the idea that organized education is the only concern of the school. The teachers have not hesitated to use the services of the churches, the hospital clinics, the Girl Scouts, the Bureau of Child Guidance, and other community agencies to supplement their work.

Thru a frequent interchange of visits, teachers and parents have often been able to agree on a consistent course of action for a child to follow both at home and in school. For instance, if a child has formed the habit of not finishing his jobs, it is essential that the parent at home, as well as the teacher in school, work toward the formation of a desirable habit. The parent must make the child feel the importance of finishing such tasks as polishing his shoes, drying the dishes, or tidying up his room if the teacher is to be successful in training him to keep working until he has learned his spelling lesson or finished a letter that he has begun to write.

EFFECTIVENESS OF THE PROGRAM

Personality changes—It is difficult to measure the effectiveness of the kind of program which is being followed in these slow-learner groups. No adequate instruments for the measurement of personality changes or for ascertaining the degree of social adjustment have been developed. It is necessary to trust to personal observations over a continued period of time. These the teachers record in their daily logs.

TABLE 1—CHANGES EFFECTED IN PERSONALITY TRAITS AND HEALTH HABITS OF CERTAIN CHILDREN IN FIVE SLOW-LEARNER GROUPS*

UNFAVORABLE TRAIT OR HEALTH HABIT	NUMBER OF CHILDREN				PERCENT COM- PLETELY ADJUSTED
	Showing this trait at time of admission to Public School 500	Showing no im- provement after two years	Showing some im- provement after two years	Completely adjusted after two years	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Inability to get along with others.....	26		13	13	50
Insistence on having own way.....	22	1	11	10	45
Dishonesty in work.....	36	1	8	27	75
Poor sportsmanship.....	27	1	14	12	44
Extreme selfishness.....	11		2	9	81
Extreme shyness.....	23		7	16	70
Quarrelsomeness.....	24	1	17	6	26
Discourteousness.....	16		10	6	37
Poor habits of:					
Cleanliness.....	26		17	9	35
Diet.....	23	3	10	10	44
Rest.....	21	3	10	8	38

Read table: Of the 26 children showing inability to get along with others at time of admission, none showed no improvement after two years, 13 showed some improvement, and 13 (or 50 percent) showed complete adjustment in this trait. Similarly read figures for other traits and habits listed in column 1.

* Only extreme cases have been included.

One of the first entries made in a teacher's log three years ago tells about a boy's throwing a book across the room in a violent fit of temper. A few months ago this same teacher was able to write, "Robert has changed so that I hardly know him. He never quarrels with the other children. In spite of his speech difficulty, he is anxious to enter into class discussion. He asks very intelligent questions." As the entries on this boy are followed, it is possible to trace a history of gradual changes in attitudes marked by frequent relapses but also by steady improvement.

Table 1 presents a summary of individual reports made by five of the teachers of slow-learner groups. Only ninety-one children who had been in their classes for at least two years are involved. Two classes were not reported because their teachers had been with the children for less than two years.

Growth in reading skills—In all but the oldest group most of the

children are reading above or near their mental ages. The exceptions are all children with serious behavior problems. These problem children have been receiving remedial reading instruction for two years with little effect because their behavior difficulties are deep-seated and will require years of treatment. Such is the case of Fred, who is a half-orphan living in an institution. He has a brother in a home for the feeble-minded, and his father is an epileptic and a typical "down and outer." At the child guidance clinic it was found that Fred is hounded by a constant fear of being like his father. The school is trying to help him overcome his fear and build up some self-confidence, but success is coming very slowly because the boy's difficulty is a well-established part of his personality.

In the oldest group the reading ages and the mental ages approached each other much more closely a year ago than they do today. Despite daily practice in reading, most of these children's reading ages, as measured by standard tests, have not been raised during the past year. The boys and girls seem to have reached a limit with respect to the type of concepts with which they are able to deal successfully. In the more advanced textbooks many paragraphs deal with highly abstract material and these children do not seem to have the mental ability to cope with such material.

As far as achievement in skills is concerned, all that can be done is to continue to study each child's problems and attack them from every possible angle and with every known device. In Public School 500, the slow learners are liked and respected because of what they *can* and *do* accomplish and are not condemned because of what they *cannot* do. The school is attempting to provide intelligent and sympathetic guidance so that each child will develop responsibility for making the most of his limited ability.

DEMOCRATIC society is committed to the program of educating all the children of all the people regardless of their intellectual level. Every child would be educated to develop his fullest capabilities so that he can live a happy useful life. This does not mean that the educational system can educate all by the same methods or to the same levels of achievement. Through appropriate education, however, even those at the lower intellectual levels can be aided.—Kirk, Samuel A., and Monroe, Marion, *Teaching Reading to Slow-Learning Children*, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1940, p. 13. (Quoted by permission of the publishers.)

AN EXPERIMENT IN THE IMPROVEMENT OF RETARDED AND MALADJUSTED CHILDREN

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A LLEGATIONS OF SHORTCOMINGS in the prevalent methods of preventing delinquency challenged the New York City public schools to work out some technics whereby anti-social boys would be given greater opportunity and encouragement to indulge in worthwhile conduct. Accordingly, in February 1937 the board of superintendents inaugurated, under the direct charge of Associate Superintendent Stephen F. Bayne and Assistant Superintendent Benjamin B. Greenberg, an experiment on a citywide basis in about twenty selected problem schools. The classes organized for this purpose were designated as Special Opportunity A, B, C, and D classes.

One of the schools selected for this experiment was Public School No. 5, Manhattan, enrolling 1715 children, all of whom are Negroes. This school includes sixty-three classes from kindergarten thru the sixth grade, the classes being coeducational thru the third grade only. The staff includes a principal, two assistants to the principal, and two teacher-clerks in addition to the classroom teachers. The average IQ of the pupils, based on group tests, is 85. Repeatedly, however, individual intelligence tests of a nonlinguistic character have shown the average IQ to be significantly higher.

Because of the many problems of retardation and delinquency in this school, four special opportunity classes—the greatest number of such classes in any one school in the entire city—were organized to participate in the experiment. Approximately 300 boys have had this special guidance in the last three years. Altho no time limit for placement in these classes exists, most boys have been in them for a comparatively short time. Thus far the average length of time spent in this atmosphere has been two terms and only one boy has been enrolled for more than two years. At present seventy-one boys are being taught in these rooms.

ORGANIZATION OF CLASSES

Pupil selection—The prime criteria for selecting these boys are concrete evidence of antisocial actions, retardation, and apathy or hostility toward schoolwork. A definite routine has been established for placing them in the special opportunity classes. Teachers of regular classes,

having made serious but unsuccessful attempts to adjust the boys, bring them to the attention of the principal or an assistant to the principal. The boys and the environment from which they come are then studied by an adjustment committee composed of the principal, assistants to the principal, social worker, school nurse, recreation-center worker, and attendance officer. A psychological test is administered either before or after the boys are admitted to the class. Achievement tests in arithmetic and reading are also given to ascertain the extent of the boys' retardation in these subjects.

Chronological age is an important factor in determining the particular opportunity class in which a boy is placed. The age range of the classes varies somewhat from term to term; at present it is as follows: Opportunity A, eight to nine years; Opportunity B, nine to ten years; Opportunity C, ten to eleven years; and Opportunity D, eleven to twelve years. Exceptions are always in order. Several grades are usually represented in each class. This term the grade range in Opportunity A is from I-B thru III-B and the median grade is II-B. In Opportunity D the range is from IV-A thru VI-A and the median is V-A. Within each of these classes wide ranges of ability and achievement are expected. Individual approaches are imperative.

The case history of each boy is recorded on a special form which includes data pertaining to his educational status and his behavior difficulties. Dated information on his school grade, intelligence quotient, mental age, reading age, arithmetic age, number of terms retarded or accelerated, special educational abilities, and special educational needs is reported. Under the heading of behavior difficulties, notations are made as to why the boy is recommended for special treatment, how long the type of behavior has been manifested, the parents' attitude, the recommendation of the psychological clinic, and the opinions of the truant officer, social worker, and assistant to the principal.

Teacher personnel—Securing adequate teaching personnel for these classes has been one of the greatest difficulties. Teachers must be able and willing to learn the remedial reading and arithmetic technics that are part of the work in these classes. They must have a broad background enabling them to carry on a modified activity program. At the same time they must be familiar and sympathetic with the principles of mental hygiene; otherwise they cannot cope with the apathy or truculence evidenced by many of the children who are placed in these classrooms. In addition, the teachers must be able to justify their work to parents who are suspicious of any departure from normal classroom situations. In other words, the program calls for superior teachers. Mere willingness to undertake the special teaching is not

sufficient; it must be accompanied by the proper emotional attitude and by the intellectual and artistic gifts necessary for conducting work of this type.

Several of these classes were supplied with a WPA remedial-reading teacher, trained by a reading specialist. Inasmuch as WPA assistance has been curtailed, the administration has prepared to continue this remedial work thru in-service training of regularly appointed teachers. As a result, these teachers have learned to use valuable materials and special technics in reading and arithmetic. These materials and technics are explained later in this article.

Room equipment—The classrooms are equipped in a distinctly modern fashion. Movable furniture of the most advanced type, a cabinet for records and case histories, a workbench or two, tools, paints, one moving picture camera for the four classes, and hundreds of slides are essential parts of their equipment. In addition, the boys have the facilities of a shop, a gymnasium, and a central library.

THE CURRICULUM

The curriculum in these classes is difficult to describe. What is presented here as a curriculum is a series of approaches which have been found valuable but which are still being tested by the teachers and by outside experts working with the principal. The general result at present seems to be a modified version of activity procedures with materials correlated with the course of study, plus definite class procedures in remedial reading and remedial arithmetic. Remedial reading and arithmetic are not incidental to the general work in these classes; they are definite assignments conducted during definite periods. Incidental reading and arithmetic are carried over into many of the activities of the class. For instance, deciphering a blueprint to build aircraft as part of a unit on transportation obviously calls for much reading and arithmetic.

Reading—Reading disability is one of the significant causes of maladjustment among the children in these classes. To eliminate this, a highly individualized procedure is followed. Each child is given a silent reading test and an oral reading test. Results from these tests give the teacher a basis upon which to do intensive diagnostic and remedial work. A pre-test, taken from exercises based on essential words, is then given. The number of errors made on these pre-tests indicates the particular level of exercises a boy is prepared to do, and he is subsequently confronted with material with which he can cope. Thus, his confidence in himself is often reestablished and a basic step has been taken to put him in a state of readiness for more advanced reading.

Arithmetic—Problem children are frequently retarded in arithmetic and, as in reading, the first step in the special classes is to find the causes. The goal is to increase the knowledge and skill of the boys so they will become independent in their approach to arithmetical problems. They are first given a standardized test and an individual pre-test according to their chronological ages and school grades. On the pre-test they are permitted to proceed until they are seen to be obviously floundering. They are then stopped and their work is checked to ascertain what they have done correctly. At the point where they began to make a few errors, a more intensive diagnosis based on a refinement of the general test is made. If it is apparent that practice is needed on a particular phase of arithmetic, the boys are referred to specific examples designed to provide drill in that phase. As soon as these are mastered, the boys proceed to the next set of materials. Further testing follows from time to time and the boys sometimes skip ten or fifteen units of work if it is clear that the barrier which had hitherto prevented them from progressing has been removed.

Activity approach—In these classes the day is roughly programmed to provide for activities growing out of large, clearly-analyzed units of work connected with the course of study. The class and the teacher plan these units around such topics as transportation or the New York World's Fair. The general progress of activity on such a unit is illustrated in the following paragraphs.

Transportation was chosen as the topic for one term's unit of work. Several published bulletins on transportation units were consulted by the teacher before objectives were set up and an outline was made. The usual class procedure included a discussion period from 2:30 to 3:00 each afternoon, during which the plans for the next day were drawn up; a morning work period devoted to reading, research, library work, and the writing of compositions; and another afternoon hour from 1:00 to 2:00 when the class was divided into small groups and engaged in various construction activities.

The teacher decided that the best way of introducing the unit was to contrast several dramatic stories on early methods of travel with stories of modern heroic exploits. Two books on transportation¹ were found to be of great aid in holding the interest of the boys; both the textual content and the drawings attracted attention.

Soon the class began to take over the storytelling, and group discussions ensued. Retelling of favorite stories refined them to the place where there was no objection to the teacher's suggestion that they be

¹Petersham, Maud, and Petersham, Miska. *Story Book on Transportation*. Philadelphia, Pa.: John C. Winston Co., 1933. 32 p. †Petersham, Maud, and Petersham, Miska. *Story Book of Wheels, Ships, Trains, Aircraft*. Philadelphia, Pa.: John C. Winston Co., 1935.

put in writing. A "Travel Book" was planned in which the written stories were pasted; then the boys immediately had the desire to illustrate the book. Sometimes a drawing was made to accompany a story; at other times the drawing came first and a boy would write a story to explain his picture. Thus, drawing and written composition were correlated.

The teacher discovered that two boys had unusual talent for drawing, and so they were frequently asked to make the outlines for pictures while the remaining pupils filled in the colors. Copies of plates in the storybooks supplanted the pictures of guns and gangsters that these boys had previously preferred to draw. After a trip to the Museum of Science and Industry and the Museum of Natural History, the use of murals to depict advances in civilization was pointed out. Thereupon, the boys decided to undertake mural painting and a committee was selected to lay out the scenes chosen by the class to show each stage of transportation. An outstanding mural depicting man's advance in transportation methods was done on wrapping paper and mounted on a wall of the classroom.

While the committee worked on the mural the teacher guided the rest of the class, in groups of three, in building actual models of transports. The necessity for planning before constructing was instilled in the boys and drawing periods were utilized for paper work. Frequent trips were made to the Museum of Science and Industry to study models and life-sized vehicles.

Results of the boy's efforts were exceptionally good. One boy, working best alone, constructed a primitive drag consisting of two poles held apart by two crossbars and tied with raffia to represent the vines used by early man for ropes. The first attempt at a wheel was shown by a model of an Egyptian god attached to rollers. Three covered wagons were built with cheese boxes for bodies and reeds for the canvas supports. An Eskimo sled was made and dogs were cut from "oaktag," colored, and fastened by thumb-tacks to a long strip so they would stand upright. A model of a Viking ship was built by one group after careful study of a large model at the museum. Tongue depressors supplied by the school nurse were used for oars, and copper wire was run thru the sail to give it form and the appearance of being filled with wind.

When it was discovered that several boys were building model airplanes at home, the teacher suggested that they bring their materials to school and add their hobbies to the class work on transportation. This appealed to many boys, and for weeks blueprints were spread out on tables and balsa-wood spars and struts were being glued to-

gether. Three hangars were soon built to house the planes and the need for a landing field arose. The three boys who made the hangars spent several afternoons looking thru aviation books for the layout of an airport.

The contrast between the covered wagons and the airplanes provoked class discussion. The group decided to work out a relief map of the routes followed by these old and new methods of transportation. History books were consulted for information regarding the Oregon Trail and the Mormon and Pony Express routes. Airplane folders secured from air-travel agencies were sources for determining the plane routes. A committee was appointed to place the models on the trails and routes, which were plainly marked in contrasting colors. Plaster of Paris formed the foundation and was painted blue for water and brown for earth. Thus, to a more limited extent, the stages of transportation were shown in three dimensions as they had been painted in two dimensions on the mural.

The development of this unit on transportation created a wholesome attitude in most of the previously antisocial boys. One boy, who had been with the group only a week and who had been a particularly difficult problem before admission, was observed to be voluntarily explaining his work to three superintendents who were visiting the special class. The trouble the boys went to in order to bring scrap lumber, cheese boxes, paints, and brushes to class was evidence of their interest. Ten boys spent from ten to twenty-five cents each for airplane models. When the type of boy found in these special classes voluntarily spends money for special school supplies, the teacher should be pleased with her accomplishment.

Reading periods became library periods for the class and the collection of travel and geography books saw much service. The writing of compositions was no longer an unwelcome assignment, but a means of putting in permanent form "the story about the first boat" or "how the primitive man may have discovered the idea of a drag." School took on a new significance for the boys, and their behavior difficulties became fewer and less serious.

Excursions—The excursion program in these classes has been a welcome departure from the traditional type of school activity that these boys so thoroly disliked. The classes have participated in two different types of excursions: (1) those that are definitely of a recreational type, with important byproducts in health and enjoyment, and (2) those with a particular instructional purpose. The four classes went to the Museum of Science and Industry 14 times, to Inwood Park for nature study 8 times, and to the American Museum of

Natural History 6 times. Altogether, 104 excursions have been taken, an average per class of about 26 trips. Lest the reader question the amount of time the children spend out of school, it must be emphasized that all the excursions are carefully planned, the boys and the teachers discuss what will be seen, and trip booklets containing written reports of observations are kept. As an outgrowth of some of the excursions to the American Museum of Natural History, the boys have seen many slides and traveling exhibits. These visual aids have added to the instructional value of the trips.

REPLACEMENT OF PUPILS IN REGULAR CLASSES

The success or failure of this experiment in special classes depends upon the ability of the boys to readjust in a normal classroom, since they are destined to return to the regular school organization by the time they enter the junior high school. A major purpose of the experiment, therefore, has been to try out these boys in normal classroom situations to ascertain whether the rehabilitation accomplished in the special class will carry over. It is obvious, however, that to plunge a boy immediately from one environment into another without any intervening period of adjustment is wasteful. Consequently, when a teacher of a special class feels that a boy has built up sufficient interest and ability in reading or arithmetic to warrant his replacement in the conventional atmosphere, the teacher informs the principal and suggests the particular class to which she feels this boy should adjust. The principal then assigns the boy to a regular class for a part of his work. If he adjusts satisfactorily, the time spent in the traditional atmosphere is gradually extended until a complete transfer to the regular class is effected.

In practically every case boys who have been returned to conventional classrooms in the same school where the experiment was being conducted have adjusted fairly well. On the other hand, there have been some recidivists. The reason for replacement in the conventional atmosphere is not necessarily that this atmosphere is considered superior, but that special class facilities are limited and a great many boys are in need of their therapeutic advantages. Boys cannot remain indefinitely in these classes but must pass on to make room for others who present greater problems.

RESULTS OF THE EXPERIMENT

As in all experiments involving the correction of maladjusted children, adequate objective measurement of improvement in attitude has not been possible here. Furthermore, since this particular experiment

has run but three years, little credence can be placed in reports as to the permanent adjustment of the boys. There are, however, some indications of temporary adjustment.

Investigation of the attendance records of boys who had been in the special classes for at least a year showed that in the great majority of cases the proportion of absences had been markedly reduced in comparison with absences during the years previous to placement in the class. Moreover, most of the boys who returned to the conventional classrooms had records superior to those they had made during the years previous to their special class experience.

Evidences of psychological adjustment are available also in the case studies reported by teachers. For example, James was a fidgety, disobedient, stubborn, and slow-learning child who was placed in a special class from Grade I-B. He had no interest in his schoolwork and objected to the simplest assignment. He was doing poorly in reading and number work. As soon as he received individual attention and instruction his attitude began to change. A little praise and encouragement spurred him on to learn to spell and write simple words. He was given a speaking part in the class play and performed well. The activity work, especially carpentry, appealed strongly to him. Soon he became a daily watcher of the progress chart and admitted that his new class work gave him much more satisfaction than he had experienced previously.

Peter was admitted to a special class from Grade I-B with a mark of *D* in deportment and in his schoolwork. He had the reputation of being extremely aggressive, fighting and bullying younger children. He became sullen when reprimanded and grumbled at any restriction or assignment. In the special class his interest picked up during the arts and crafts period. When allowed to work on his own, he developed enthusiasm for handicraft and soon asked for additional assignments. At the same time his arithmetic, spelling, and reading showed marked improvement. He was seldom provoked to the point of starting a fight and, if aroused, he would make an obvious effort to exercise self-control. His whole social attitude changed for the better after a short time in the class.

Many similar examples of apparent adjustment could be cited. Teachers concede, generally, that the number of boys who benefit by the special classes warrants their continuance.

CORRECTING THE READING DIFFICULTIES OF CHILDREN IN GRADES III TO VIII

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THE THIRD GRADE is one of the most critical periods in the course of reading development. It is critical for two reasons. First, it is a period of transition between primary reading habits and technics and the more advanced forms required in the intermediate grades. Second, it is a period during which preparations must be made to enable as many pupils as possible to clear the "fourth-grade hurdle." The fourth-grade hurdle was first demonstrated by Lee in 1933.¹ She found that if a child enters a typical fourth grade with a reading ability less than that represented by a grade score of 4.0 in a series of carefully standardized tests, he is almost certain to be handicapped in most of his school subjects thruout the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades. This is due to the fact that in a typical school the difficulty and amount of reading required for the various school subjects in these grades are considerably greater than in the preceding grades.

It seems advisable, therefore, to give particular attention to each pupil's progress during this transition period. In the early part of the third year the following reading characteristics or technics should be examined by means of standardized or informal examinations, or by observations, or both:

1. Ability to survey words and sentences from left to right
2. Technics of word perception and word analysis
3. Habits of phrasing and reading by thought units
4. Speed of reading
5. Accuracy and fullness of comprehension
6. Level or power of comprehension
7. Efficiency of single reading, rereading, and skimming of long selections.

It would also be highly advisable to reexamine the pupils, at least informally, near the middle of the year and again about two months before the end of the year. Thus, changes in status and needs may be detected and instruction adjusted to them. There are now available several series or batteries of diagnostic tests² which include devices

¹ Lee, Dorris M. *The Importance of Reading for Achieving in Grades Four, Five, and Six*. Contributions to Education, No. 556. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933. 64 p.

² Some of these diagnostic batteries are described in the following references: Betts, Emmett A. *The Prevention and Correction of Reading Difficulties*. New York: Row, Peterson and Co., 1936. 402 p. ¶ Durrell, Donald D. *Durrell Analysis of Reading Difficulty*. (A set of materials for testing and recording skills and habits in reading.) Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co. ¶ Gates, Arthur I. *The Improvement of Reading*. Revised edition. New York: Macmillan Co., 1935. 688 p. ¶ Harris, A. J. *How To Increase Reading Ability*. New York: Longmans, Green and Co., 1940. 403 p. ¶ Monroe, Marion, and others. *Remedial Reading*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1937. 171 p. ¶ Witty, Paul, and Kopel, David. *Diagnostic Child Study Record*. Evanston, Illinois: Northwestern University.

for diagnosing some or all of the abilities listed above. Most of these abilities may also be appraised by informal methods in combination with various reading tests.

If difficulties in these areas are not corrected in the third grade they often persist for many years. Pupils in Grades IV to VIII may therefore reveal the same difficulties and require similar treatment. The following suggestions for diagnosis and corrective instruction are applicable to pupils in any of these, or even higher, grades.

Ability to survey words and sentences from left to right—During the first two grades the typical child reveals some departures from the rule that a line or word must always be viewed from left to right. Several types of confusions, including reversal errors such as *was* for *saw*, or *own* for *now*, and other mistakes that look like wild guesses are common results. By the time the typical child enters the third grade he has fairly well established the systematic left-to-right procedure. Some children, however, need help in perfecting this habit. Defects in the direction of perception of words and sentences may be noted fairly well by observing and recording the pupil's errors in oral reading, as, for example, with the *Gray Standardized Oral Reading Paragraphs*.³ Some of the diagnostic batteries referred to above contain special tests for this purpose. These consist of paragraphs which include a number of words likely to be reversed or partially reversed by a pupil whose orientation is not perfected, or a series of independent words most of which form real words when reversed. A teacher can secure copies of one or more of these tests or find the substance thereof in one of the books on reading diagnosis. Such tests are readily administered.

For the pupils who are still faulty in the direction of their attack, several types of instruction may be employed. One type involves a careful explanation and demonstration of the correct direction of attack. This may be conducted first with materials on a chart or blackboard and later with a book of suitable difficulty. The teacher may continue the demonstration and to a certain extent lead the pupil's eye by moving a finger or pointer, at first slowly and later more rapidly, across the line and individual words. She may give some special instruction in moving consistently from left to right across a word which the pupil is trying to work out by phonetic or other clues. In a second type of instruction the pupil may use his own finger or pencil as a guide for a period of time. When he clearly gets the idea of moving from left to right, however, the use of such a crutch should be dropped. A third method which brings results includes giving the pupil actual experience in writing, printing, or typing materials. This

³ Published by the Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Illinois.

method is usually reserved for the more serious or stubborn cases. A fourth procedure involves the use of a variety of games and special exercises similar to anagrams.⁴

Technics of word perception and word analysis—In the primary grades children may work out the recognition and pronunciation of unfamiliar words by many devices. Some of these devices are adequate for primary needs, but they are either too superficial to insure consistent accuracy or too detailed and analytic to permit sufficiently quick word recognition as the child grows older. During the third grade it is important to note the way in which a pupil recognizes reasonably familiar words, the way in which he attempts to work out the recognition and pronunciation of less familiar words, and the way in which he studies a word in order to be able to recognize it later. Very little material is needed to secure this information. Most of the diagnostic batteries contain some type of graded word list which begins with simple words and extends to words that are very difficult and rarely recognized by third-grade pupils. The teacher may make up her own list by choosing five or ten words from each thousand of the first ten thousand in the Thorndike list.⁵ The child is handed such a list of words and is asked to read them. When he hesitates, he should be encouraged to try to work the word out. The teacher should observe his methods of attack and his procedure in studying the words missed. She should also note hesitations, repetitions, speed of word recognition, and methods of attack upon individual words when he is reading a selection orally, as in the *Gray Standardized Oral Reading Paragraphs*.

Suggestions for instruction or remedial work to improve word recognition can be found in a number of modern texts on reading methods and in most manuals accompanying basal reading books. The writer would particularly recommend such a program of activities as that outlined in the Thirty-Sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education.⁶

Habits of phrasing and reading by thought units—Deficiencies in phrasing and reading by thought units can usually be detected in one or more of the following ways:

1. Note the pupil's speed in silent reading. If his reading is very slow, he may be suspected of defects in phrasing and reading by thought units.
2. Note the pupil's phrasing and expression in oral reading.

⁴ See, for example: Russell, David H.; Karp, Etta E.; and Kelly, Edward I. *Reading Aids Through the Grades*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933. 90 p.

⁵ Thorndike, Edward L. *Teacher's Word Book of the Twenty Thousand Words Found Most Frequently and Widely in General Reading for Children and Young People*. Revised edition. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932. 182 p.

⁶ McKee, Paul. "Vocabulary Development." *The Teaching of Reading: A Second Report*. Thirty-Sixth Yearbook, Part I, National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1937. Chapter 9, p. 277-302.

3. Note the pupil's skill in getting the headings in a news sheet or in recognizing lists of phrases written on the board, printed on cards to be flashed at a distance, or typed on cards to be read at the pupil's desk. Compare the speed of pupils in the class.

4. Employ a simple tachistoscope or other rapid-exposure apparatus. Such a mechanized procedure, however, is rarely necessary.

When the reading speed of a child is represented by a grade of approximately 3.0 on a standardized test, several devices to develop phrasing and reading thought units can be safely used. A demonstration by the teacher of phrasing in oral reading and of reading phrases or thought units from cards at a single glance is often helpful. The exposure of phrases singly or in sequence by means of flash cards, lantern slides, or tachistoscopes is usually helpful but not always necessary. The teacher can guide the pupil in glancing quickly at phrases placed on the blackboard, on posters, or on the bulletin board, and she may encourage him to read headings or legends on pictures, billboards, or store signs. She must remember, however, that it is possible for a pupil to read flash cards and billboards at a glance without carrying the same skills over to the normal reading of books. The carry-over process may be facilitated by encouraging the pupil to read at a glance the headings and subheadings found in supplementary readers and in children's newspapers or magazines. As a next step the teacher may type for the pupil some material with longer blank spaces between the thought units than between the words in the units, or with every other thought unit underlined. Eventually the teacher must encourage the pupil to find and perceive quickly the thought units in typical reading matter.

Speed of reading—The speed of reading may be determined by the use of one or more standardized tests, or by noting the rates at which children in the class read, with reasonable understanding, easy materials from supplementary readers or other books. Unfortunately, it is very difficult to determine exactly the optimum speed for a given child. This is due to the fact that the optimum speed will differ with the difficulty of the material, and to the fact that some children seem to be "just naturally" slower readers than others. The most sensible thing to do is to give all the children in the class a standardized speed test and compare them with one another as well as with the national norms. The slowest quarter of the class should be studied for some time to see whether they are making some increase in rate or whether they have become habituated at a rather low level. In general, it may be said that a child should learn, during the first half of the third grade, to read silently at a rate equal at least to his natural speaking rate. Most children can learn to read more rapidly.

If the teacher has a reason to believe the child reads too slowly, it is important for her to discover the exact cause or causes of the low rate. Most prominent among the possible causes are deficiencies in the directional orientation, in the technics of word perception, and in the phrasing or reading by thought units. Where defects in these technics are found, instruction designed to improve them is the most important step toward making increased speed of reading possible. Other causes are to be found in the abnormal persistence of certain habits which children often establish in the first year and which they usually eliminate without special assistance. One of these is the use of the finger or pointer to lead the eye in reading. Another is the habit of articulating words too definitely, either semiaudibly or quite inaudibly in "inner speech." Still another cause of slow reading is failure to break away from the slow pace typical of first- or second-grade reading. This habit may exist without the use of the finger or without whispering or otherwise articulating each word. It is simply a matter of moving along at a slow pace.

After a suitable explanation of the facts, most children can learn to eliminate the use of a pointer and can reduce articulation. Artificial devices, such as reading with the tongue curled up or with a clean spoon in the mouth, are of assistance but are rarely necessary. When slowness in reading is due primarily to the fact that the child has not tried to advance his speed, good results can be obtained by encouraging him to read more rapidly and by providing him with a series of passages of similar length and difficulty and recording his time in reading these on successive days.

Slowness in reading is sometimes caused by factors which interfere with accuracy and level of comprehension. These factors are discussed in the next two sections.

Accuracy and fullness of comprehension—Accuracy of comprehension can be measured by using standardized tests or by comparing the number of comprehension exercises correctly answered by different pupils in the grade after they have read a passage of about third-grade difficulty.

All the reading difficulties previously mentioned affect accuracy of comprehension. In addition, difficulties in comprehension may be due to the fact that the pupil lacks an intelligible standard of accuracy. Some pupils attempt to be too accurate; they try to remember every detail and thus are unable to see the forest for the trees. Other children content themselves with very superficial understanding and recall. The cure for these difficulties is to provide the pupils with clear-cut checks upon understanding. The use of reasonable comprehension exercises or oral questions and problems after reading will serve the purpose.

Another cause of poor comprehension is failure to make much use of the material after it has been read. Such failure is sometimes found in classes in which the teacher is unduly concerned with the mechanics of reading rather than with getting and using the ideas. The remedy here is to plan more projects and enterprises, such as continuing conversations, developing plays, relating experiences, and drawing illustrations on the basis of the material read. The method of raising questions and problems *before* the pupil reads a selection and then discussing these questions and problems *after* the reading is an excellent device for encouraging pupils to focus their attention on the more important ideas rather than on the mechanics of expression or miscellaneous details of fact.

Level or power of comprehension—In the third and higher grades some children who are able to comprehend reasonably well materials of a low level of difficulty are unable to read satisfactorily texts of a higher level. A number of standardized tests are available for determining the approximate level of comprehension. A good test of this type consists of a series of paragraphs ranging from very easy to very difficult, for the reading of which the child is allowed as much time as he desires in order to reach as high a level as he can. In such a test the factor of speed is largely eliminated. If standardized tests are not used, informal ones can be made by selecting passages from supplementary readers or other books at each grade level from the second to the eighth or higher.

Like his accuracy of comprehension, a pupil's level or power of understanding may be limited by any of the deficiencies previously considered. Certain other factors also may contribute to difficulty in this phase of reading. A child who reads very little except what he is required to read in school is likely to be deficient because power of understanding is increased by wide reading of many types and on many levels of difficulty. An inquiry into the amount and kind of reading a child does out of school is therefore important.

Occasionally one finds a pupil who is very competent in reading one type of material but whose deficiency in vocabulary and concepts in other fields limits him when he tries to read a representative range of texts. Sometimes a child's difficulty results in part from his habit of reading only very easy books. The remedy here is to encourage him to read increasingly complex materials.

In some instances a low level of comprehension may result from lack of skill in making a thoro analysis of the content of the selection. Often, however, a limited reading vocabulary, especially one which is deficient in words and concepts seldom found in primary materials,

is responsible for difficulties in comprehending more complex materials. To distinguish between comprehension difficulties due to a limited reading vocabulary and those due to inability to make an effective analysis of the passage, it is advisable to give the pupil a vocabulary test. Such a test should consist of a series of key words combined with several possible synonyms of which only one is satisfactory in each case, rather than connected sense material such as sentences. If the teacher gives the pupil a vocabulary test and a level-of-comprehension test which have been standardized on the same population, she will be able to determine his relative position in the two. If the pupil's age or grade score on the vocabulary test is approximately as high as, or higher than, his score on the comprehension test, the indication is that the deficiency in comprehension is not due to a limited vocabulary alone.

If the vocabulary is deficient, one of the best ways of increasing it is to get the child to read more widely in a variety of fields and to help him give special attention to the meanings of words and concepts. If the vocabulary is not deficient, special attention should be given to the solution of problems or comprehension exercises based on the content of the selections read. The teacher should also review the pupil's responses to these exercises and work with him in rereading the selections to discover the data which bear on the points in question. A teacher should start with materials and exercises easy enough to guarantee a successful attack and should gradually increase their complexity as the pupil gains in power.

Sometimes a teacher may diagnose a pupil's difficulty as due primarily to lack of interest in reading. For an otherwise normal child to lack interest in reading when a good range of choice is provided is very unusual. The cause is almost always to be found in one or more of the deficiencies or deprivations of opportunity previously mentioned. Nevertheless, when interest has been dormant for some time, simply concentrating on the development of technical skill in reading is not always sufficient. In some instances, the teacher must take pains to find the areas of special interest to the pupil in order to start him on suitable materials and to find purposes which his reading may serve. It is often advisable to provide him with extra opportunities to feature socially the results of his reading by making reports to the class or preparing book reviews for the school newspaper.

Efficiency of single reading, rereading, and skimming of long selections—In history, geography, and general science, as well as in miscellaneous reading, it is important to be able to comprehend and remember the more important facts. Occasionally one finds pupils who

can comprehend a short selection very well but who become confused or indefinite in their comprehension and recall of a longer selection such as a chapter or article of ten to twenty pages. The latter ability may be tested by asking the pupils to read once at a sitting a selection of ten or more pages appropriate to the grade. Before the pupils begin to read they may be given three or more main topics, areas, or issues concerning which they are to find data. The teacher can get a record of reading speed by putting the number "1" on the board at the end of ten seconds, changing it to "2" at the end of the second ten seconds, and so on. The pupils should be instructed to write on their papers the number that is visible when they finish reading. The group is then given a series of true-false, multiple-choice, or other objective questions calling for pertinent details in the article. The score on the test gives a rough measure of fullness and accuracy of comprehension.

When the pupils complete this test, they may be requested to locate certain additional facts of a more difficult or subtle character. These should be items which most pupils will not get completely during a single reading, and should be so chosen as to require covering the entire selection. The pupils are told to locate these facts as rapidly as possible. As before, the time required to read or skim the article a second time should be noted and a test for knowledge of the items in question should be given.

These skills are obviously important in many types of study in school and elsewhere. They are valuable also in recreational reading, including fiction. Difficulty in them may result from weakness in any of the basic skills—word perception, phrasing, speed of reading, and accuracy or level of comprehension. It may also result from lack of proficiency in the specific technics of reading and skimming a long selection selectively. In the latter case, improvement may be effected by providing experiences similar to those outlined above for the purpose of testing. If the results of the first readings are made the subject of discussion, any disagreements or uncertainties which arise will provide realistic incentives for a rapid review. If the pupil has difficulty in breaking away from literal reading he should be encouraged to force the pace of skimming on himself. Gradually the ability to comprehend during the process will emerge.

It is easier to skim during rereading than during first reading. For this reason, it is suggested that skimming be undertaken at first during rereading. Once skimming during review has been achieved, ability to skim during a first reading may easily be accomplished. To assist the pupil it is admissible at first to give him, before he begins to read, some questions to be answered or points on which data are to be sought during the reading.

A PROJECT IN REMEDIAL READING

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and

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IN FEBRUARY 1938 the board of education of Alexandria, upon the recommendation of the superintendent of schools, authorized an experimental program of character education and personality adjustment in the schools of the city. The purpose of this experiment was to discover and demonstrate methods of meeting the personal and social needs of children so that they might live happily and effectively in their group relationships. From the beginning it was recognized that satisfactory personality adjustment depends in part upon successful progress in school, which in turn depends largely upon the ability to read. Many children with personality and behavior problems are failing to make adequate adjustments because they cannot read efficiently. Hence, much emphasis was placed on the improvement of reading in all schools.

Each elementary school was asked to develop its own program of attack on the reading problem, including the in-service training of teachers, the development of teaching methods, the selection of materials, the stimulation of children to want to read better, and the measurement of results. In the Jefferson School we decided to carry on a special remedial program for those pupils in Grades V, VI, and VII whose reading abilities did not measure up to appropriate standards. One teacher was relieved of regular classroom duties so that she could give her full time to this remedial work. Three problems then demanded consideration: (1) How were the pupils to be selected? (2) How was the program to be administered? (3) What methods were to be used in individualizing instruction to meet specific needs?

Selection of pupils—Consideration was given to three possible bases for the selection of children for remedial work, namely, teachers' judgments, the results of informal tests, and the results of standardized tests. In view of the limitations of the first two methods, the third method was the chief one used. The *Stanford Achievement Test*¹ was administered to all children of the three grades, and from each grade those children were selected whose reading ability fell below the indicated test norm for their particular grade status. These children were given intelligence tests, reading tests of different types, spelling tests, and arithmetic tests requiring reading. The remedial teacher then chose

¹ World Book Co., Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York.

the reading disability cases primarily on the basis of reading age scores. She first selected all cases whose reading ages were below their chronological ages, and then sifted these cases for those whose reading ages were below their mental ages. It was necessary to eliminate some of the poor readers in order to keep the group small enough for effective remedial teaching, and it was thought best to eliminate those who were least in need of such teaching as well as those who probably would profit from it least. When the final selection had been made, personal conferences were held with the regular teachers of these pupils to obtain a more complete picture of each child's personality.

Reading disabilities are usually the result of several contributing factors rather than one isolated cause. Among these factors a rather common one is poor vision. Consequently, each child was given an eye examination by means of the Keystone Telebinocular² and several whose vision proved a serious handicap to their reading were eliminated from the group temporarily.

Administration of the program—The next question was how to administer the program. It was realized that any kind of remedial work is most effective when given individually, but that such work can usually be given effectively to small groups if individual needs are not overlooked. Since there were practical difficulties in the way of wholly individual work, the pupils from each grade were grouped into small classes. A careful individual study was made of every case, and the remedial teacher sought to discover the specific difficulties of each child.

Remedial reading requires a supply of interesting and varied reading materials suitable to the child's particular needs and reading level. For carrying on this work a complete library was purchased, consisting of attractive books which combined easy reading vocabularies with more mature interests. Textbooks labeled for certain grades were avoided and attractive stories or informational materials of high interest value were chosen instead. Besides the storybooks a number of workbooks were acquired; the mimeograph and hectograph were used to advantage; a variety of teacher-made material was collected and kept for reference; and all school libraries cooperated by making available such books as could be used effectively and wisely by the remedial groups.

These groups were called "reading clubs" and met in the remedial teacher's regular classroom, which had been transformed into an attractive meeting place. The children worked around small tables in an informal, homelike atmosphere. Each one sought to improve his reading without feeling embarrassment because of his particular difficulty.

² Keystone View Co., Meadville, Pennsylvania.

Diagnosis of difficulties—To be effective, remedial reading must be preceded by careful diagnosis. So many factors have recently been brought to light by investigations of reading disabilities that teachers often become confused and uncertain in trying to reconcile conflicting theories and points of view. However, there are a few general principles of procedure, and these were used in making diagnoses of the children who could not read. Diagnosis and treatment went hand in hand, the treatment being based on the first tentative diagnosis, and the diagnosis being modified or confirmed according to the outcomes of remedial instruction.

The diagnosis of reading disabilities should include two types of analysis, the descriptive and the causative. In the first type the teacher detailed as completely as possible the nature of the child's reading disability and indicated something about his other characteristics and his background of experience. Both subjective observations and objective test data were recorded. The following plan of analysis was used:

1. *What reading level has the child reached?* This question was answered by means of data obtained from standardized tests.

2. *How far below expectation is this reading level?* This was answered by comparing the child's reading grade with his actual grade placement, his chronological age, his mental age, the number of years he had attended school, and his achievement in nonreading subjects.

3. *Is the child equally retarded in all types of reading?* This was answered by comparing the child's grade scores on different types of reading tests—silent reading, oral reading, word recognition, vocabulary, particular types of reading comprehension, and reading rate.

4. *What are the particular characteristics of the child's reading?* This question was answered by analysis and description of the child's most frequent reading errors, his errors as compared with typical errors at his own reading level, his eye movements in reading across the page, his articulation and phrasing in oral reading, and the methods of self-help he employed such as spelling, sounding, and pointing.

5. *How does the child respond to his reading difficulty?* This was answered by a description of the child's reaction to reading, such as aggressive dislike, withdrawal, compensatory activities, and discouragements.

6. *What is the child like as an individual, apart from reading?* This question was answered by a general description of the child, including his personality, his physical appearance, and his physical and social conditions.

7. *What has been the child's experience?* This was answered thru conferences with the parents and the regular teacher in which the remedial teacher obtained a personal, social, and school history of the child.

The next step was to discover why the child had failed to learn to read. In general, the factors which contribute to reading disabilities may be classified in five areas as follows: (1) constitutional factors, such as visual defects, auditory defects, difficulties in motor control, and other physical defects; (2) intellectual defects, such as low general intelligence and specific mental disabilities; (3) emotional factors, such as general emotional immaturity, excessive timidity, and predilec-

tion against reading; (4) educational factors, such as deficiencies in early preparation or in readiness for reading at the time reading was initiated, poor adjustment of reading material to the child's present level of achievement, poor adjustment of reading methods to individual differences, poor methods of motivation, and inadequate administrative arrangements for taking care of children who have disabilities; and (5) environmental factors, such as lack of cooperation between home and school, emotional or economic insecurity at home, frequent moves from one neighborhood to another with no stability of social life, and illiteracy or foreign language in the home, with inadequate reading interest or insufficient language background for reading.

After studying a particular case of reading disability, the remedial teacher found it helpful to list these five general causative areas and to itemize under them all the factors discovered which helped to explain the child's difficulties. Often one or more areas were ruled out at once as not contributing to the problem, while others showed numbers of listed items. Each item was then checked as to the possibility of its correction. Some factors were corrected at once while others, although questionable, were not hopeless and were modified as the work progressed.

Filing cabinets were placed in the room and complete data on the diagnosis and treatment of each child could be referred to at any time.

Correction of difficulties—The remedial teacher met the selected children from each grade for a forty-five minute period each day. The following types of data served as a simple and direct approach to the difficulties of each child:

1. Name
2. Chronological age
3. Mental age
4. Intelligence quotient
5. Average reading grade
6. Characteristic reading errors:
 - a. Vowel errors
 - b. Consonant errors
 - c. Reversals
 - d. Addition of sounds
 - e. Omission of sounds
 - f. Substitutions
 - g. Repetitions
 - h. Addition of words
 - i. Omission of words
 - j. Refusal to attack words

Several children making the same type of error were given similar training for the elimination of that type, even though the reason for

making the error may not have been the same in every case. Several children who made excessive consonant errors, for example, were able to profit from consonant discrimination exercises, even tho the difficulty in some cases was due to faulty visual discrimination of the letters, in other cases to faulty auditory discrimination of the sounds, and in still other cases to never having discovered that letters have any relation to sounds. All these cases were successfully taught together. The teacher set up exercises which required correct consonant discrimination, and then helped some of the children to listen, others to look, and a third group to form correct association of sounds and letters. Thus, while the exercises were prepared on the basis of the type of error involved, the method of presenting them was modified according to the reason for each child's confusion.

In all instances, appropriate exercises were prepared from original material on the basis of errors made by the pupils. These included exercises for correcting the faulty pronunciation of vowels and consonants, for eliminating the persistent confusion of consonant blends, for discriminating between long and short vowels, and for correcting the mispronunciation of "tongue twisters."

Reversals were often overcome by giving the child a kinesthetic cue to direction. Sliding a pencil or pointer under the text helped to keep the eyes moving to the right until the correct habit was formed. Oral reading in concert with the teacher or with the class also helped those children who made regressive eye movements.

The addition or omission of sounds, which consists of inserting or omitting letters and syllables in words, was overcome most effectively by word discrimination drills in which words were paired with or without the inserted or omitted sounds. The most frequently inserted sounds were *r*, *l*, *s*, and *n*, as these sounds are most easily blended with other consonants. Sometimes entire syllables were added or omitted, and in such cases specific work on syllables was helpful.

In word substitutions the substituted word is different from the one in the text but may be similar to it in meaning. Those substitutions which did not disrupt the meaning greatly were ignored by the remedial teacher as being ordinarily unimportant. Substitutions which changed the content, however, were corrected. Often the substitutions gradually disappeared with the correction of other errors thru the word discrimination exercises, since these exercises stimulated careful observation of words and their details.

It is fairly easy to supply unknown words from the context when the child recognizes a large majority of the words. The context method of attacking unknown words is a helpful and natural one, but it cannot

be employed successfully without a fair-sized context of accurately recognized words. In overcoming substitutions, therefore, the first requisite is to reduce the difficulty of the material until only a few words on each page are unknown. Then the child will have a fair chance of supplying these words correctly from the context. A review of phonics, particularly initial sounds, is also helpful in overcoming substitutions.

Repetitions of words or phrases reduce speed and interfere with fluency in reading. When a child encounters an unknown word he sometimes repeats the entire sentence in an effort to get a cue to its meaning. This often occurs when the text contains long, involved sentences which the child does not understand. In the Jefferson School, repetitions were overcome most effectively by concert or choral reading.

The addition or omission of words consists of inverting words, skipping words, or omitting whole lines in the text. Choral reading was found to be helpful in eliminating such errors. In endeavoring to harmonize his reading with that of the teacher or group, the child's attention was directed to those errors which caused discord. Moreover, in concert reading the child was relieved of sole responsibility for each word. He could drop out when he was not sure of a word or phrase and chime in again when he felt secure. All the time he was experiencing a more rhythmical and normal type of eye movement in following the group than he could have maintained alone.

Refusal or reluctance to attack words without help often indicates instability and a need for building up the child's confidence. Substitution of easier reading material frequently gave such children greater confidence and eliminated a number of refusals. Praise for an attempt as well as for success was also effective. When a child began to attack words, his method of attack was determined, his errors were analyzed according to the types previously mentioned, and appropriate exercises were used to overcome the errors. Sometimes the child simply had no method of attacking words and was intelligent enough to realize that fact. In such a case the instructor gave the child a method of attack, either contextual or phonetic, and usually succeeded in overcoming his habit of refusal.

While the teacher necessarily gave much attention to locating and overcoming specific difficulties in the mechanics of reading, she realized that a remedial reading program which leaves the child mechanically efficient but with no interest or zeal for reading falls short of its goal. Therefore, she also assisted the child in achieving other objectives in reading, including the development of a harmonious balance among oral reading, informational silent reading, and recreational

silent reading. A part of each class period was devoted to oral reading and a number of devices for giving practice were used. The reading of plays, with each child taking the part of a character, provided excellent motivation. Two children often enjoyed reading a book to each other. Choral reading provided a greater amount of reading than was possible when each child had to wait his turn.

Ample opportunity was given for silent reading and considerable emphasis was placed on developing proper habits of study. A number of reading workbooks were used for this purpose. By using a variety of such material and checking carefully the pupil's response to test questions, the teacher could locate any difficulties which the pupil might have in getting thought from the printed page. Recreational silent reading likewise was made available to all children in the remedial groups. A number of easy books were always left on the tables for browsing, and the children were encouraged to look them over during free periods. Occasionally a child enjoyed reporting to the class on a book he had read, but otherwise this type of reading was never checked.

Conclusion—At the end of the year a careful evaluation of this remedial project led to two chief conclusions: (1) that the project had been of definite value both to the pupils involved and to the entire school faculty—especially to the latter because the regular classroom teachers became more conscious of specific reading problems and ways of solving them; and (2) that remedial work of this kind should be a part of the regular class work rather than a separate program. The second of these conclusions was based on the following observations:

1. The segregation of pupils in remedial reading classes tended to give them the impression that reading was dissociated from other subjects.
2. Since the lowest reading scores were usually associated with the lowest IQ's, the pupils chosen for remedial work were usually among those who could profit from it least.
3. The remedial teacher did not have an opportunity to "follow thru" with her pupils in their regular class work.
4. Children who were not selected for the remedial groups tended to develop the idea that they had no reading problems.
5. There was considerable lost motion in having pupils go to and from the remedial groups.

In view of these facts, it was decided to transfer most of the needed remedial work to the regular classrooms and to make each teacher responsible for all such work in her own room.

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CHAPTER VII

PROVIDING FOR PHYSICALLY HANDICAPPED CHILDREN

EDITORIAL COMMENT

IN NEARLY every school there are children whose physical condition prevents their profiting fully from a program of activities planned for physically normal pupils. Among the most serious physical handicaps are poor vision, defective hearing, crippling conditions, speech defects, cardiac disease, respiratory difficulties, and low vitality due to a variety of causes. In many cases such disabilities can be corrected or greatly improved thru proper care. In any case the school should take steps to have the condition expertly diagnosed and adequately treated, and should adapt the child's educational program to his physical limitations.

Some types of physical handicaps call for segregation of the children in special classes. Whether or not such classes are provided, the teachers of regular classes have a responsibility for discovering physical handicaps and enlisting any expert assistance available. If there are no special classes, the regular teachers must also meet the peculiar needs of handicapped children in their own classrooms. Moreover, it is often desirable for pupils in special classes to do a part of their work in regular classes. Hence, a broad understanding of the symptoms and proper treatment of physical disabilities is needed by every teacher.

In certain types of special classes, and particularly in a special school, care must be taken to avoid a disproportionate emphasis on the therapeutic side of the program. While corrective treatment is important, a reasonable balance between physical and intellectual considerations is desirable. Physically handicapped children should not think of the school as primarily an institution for convalescence.

This chapter discusses school provisions for a wide variety of physical handicaps. Hollinshead gives a general review of such provisions. Butler describes a citywide program for diagnosing and treating all types of physical irregularities. Tenny points out the need for more special classes but stresses the responsibilities of regular class teachers. Each of the remaining articles is concerned with a particular type of handicap. Walsh outlines a program for deaf and hard-of-hearing children. Friesner tells how frail youngsters are cared for in fresh air rooms, and Phillips describes the operation of special classes for cardiopathic children. Riker tells of a special school for crippled children.

A list of other helpful publications on the topic of this chapter appears on page 527.—*Editorial Committee.*

TYPES OF PROVISIONS FOR CHILDREN WITH PHYSICAL HANDICAPS

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THE PHYSICALLY HANDICAPPED CHILD in the public schools may be defined as one who, because of his physical condition, is unable to profit fully by participation in the procedures of the ordinary classroom. Since the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection in 1930 the problems of physically handicapped children have been frequently set forth in the literature, and most educators now recognize the need for discovering and diagnosing the deficiencies of such children and for organizing special programs for their treatment and for the enrichment of their learning experiences.

It is not necessary here to review in detail the numerous types of physical handicaps. Roughly speaking, the children who have such handicaps fall within the following general classifications: (1) children with visual deficiencies, (2) deaf and hard-of-hearing children, (3) crippled children, (4) children with speech and motor disorders, and (5) children who suffer from such handicaps as chorea, epilepsy, and cardiac conditions. This article discusses briefly the characteristics and needs of each general type, and some of the provisions which are made for meeting these needs in the schools.

Children with visual deficiencies—Large urban communities have sometimes provided day schools or classes for blind children under the management of the local boards of education. As an alternate type of arrangement, private and state residential schools are available for these children. For the more serious cases in which there is still some residual vision, special classes have been organized in many public schools. Altho approximately one child in five may be said to have less than normal vision, only about one in five hundred would qualify as needing special sight-saving class attention. In these classes instruction in Braille is given, attention is paid to the provision of optimum lighting conditions, and special visual supplies and equipment are on hand. This type of situation offers a more adequate educational opportunity for these children than could possibly be furnished in the regular classroom. The sight-saving classes literally conserve sight, in that the strain placed on poor eyes in regular classes ordinarily tends to make for a diminishing acuity. The types of visual deficiencies found

¹ The writer has been assisted in the preparation of this article by the friendly advice of a committee of elementary-school principals and the supervisor of elementary education in the Elizabeth schools.

in the special classes are varied and the classes themselves are usually quite small, so that a great deal of individual attention is given to each child.

The selection of children for sight-saving classes is primarily a medical problem but the development of an educational program commensurate with these children's needs falls within the province of educational psychology. After a few years in a sight-saving class, some of these children are able to carry on a modified special program in the secondary schools, where they spend their time with seeing children and enter into as many of the socializing experiences of the high school as are appropriate to their physical conditions. There is little evidence that the child with poor vision has a peculiar psychology; therefore the learning problems of these children are to be met in the same manner as the problems of normally-seeing children.

Deaf and hard-of-hearing children—The totally deaf child is most frequently placed in a state or private residential school, altho some of the larger cities have day classes for these children. Thru the use of group and individual audiometric testing, it is possible to select for special classes those children who suffer appreciable hearing losses but who are not entirely deaf. With a group testing device such as the 4-A audiometer, it may be expected that from 6 to 10 percent of a school population will show a loss of serviceable hearing (nine sensation units or more). Of this group only a very small proportion will be found with hearing losses so great that they will profit by being placed in special classes. Special class experience of this type is usually profitable for about one of every thousand elementary-school children. For the larger group who have shown losses on the 4-A audiometer, a follow-up test with an individual clinical audiometer is indicated. Group lip-reading instruction should be available for all these children and they should be referred to an otologist for examination and possible treatment. In special classes for hard-of-hearing children, individual lip reading is stressed and considerable attention is paid to the development and conservation of normal speech. Group hearing aids are frequently installed in these classes.

There is not sufficient evidence concerning the personalities of hard-of-hearing children to indicate whether such children have a peculiar psychology. It is likely, however, that a hearing handicap will accentuate many unfavorable personality characteristics, and a great deal of the work of the teachers of these children should be directed toward bolstering up their morale and toward activities which fall under the general heading of guidance.

Experience shows that when a hard-of-hearing child has had the

advantage of special class training at the elementary-school level for three or more years, with a large amount of attention to lip reading and speech, he is usually equipped to go along "on his own" thru the secondary school, making the necessary adjustments with normally-hearing children. If he has sufficient ability he may go thru college, become established in a profession, and make a very satisfactory adjustment and a substantial contribution in his chosen field.

Crippled children—The physical limitations of the average school building loom as a great obstacle in the education of crippled children. The crippled child is not able to move around as actively or to participate in as strenuous a program of learning and recreational activities as do normal children. For such a child, segregation in a special class is usually a matter of expediency and follows naturally from the seriousness of his handicap. In classes of this kind the stress is placed upon corrective postural exercises and physiotherapy. It is important that each child have the best available medical attention. In many cases the child can be restored to normal or nearly normal condition thru operative procedures. It is not uncommon to see a badly crippled child spend his elementary-school years in a special class and then by virtue of his special school program, plus medical treatment, go on to the high school and fit in naturally with normal children. There are usually many agencies which work hand-in-hand with the psychologist in the guidance of these children; service clubs, fraternal organizations, and philanthropically-minded persons provide much needed assistance.

We should not leave this type of child without mentioning the physical handicaps which may be designated by the general term "cerebral palsies." Congenital and birth-injury factors are sometimes responsible for acute motor disorders of the spastic type, involving the arms and legs primarily. Children handicapped in this fashion frequently show mental retardation, and an elaborate program of physical and occupational therapy and exercises is indicated. Several states have set up treatment centers for such children, particularly for those of normal intelligence. It is difficult to provide for this kind of service in local communities because of the specialized medical resources which must be available. In all cases of crippled children the services of the public schools must be rendered in close cooperation with public and private medical agencies if the fullest results are to be obtained.

Children with speech disorders—Organic speech defects, as well as reading disability cases which illustrate the Orton-Monroe hypothesis with their characteristic confusions and strephosymbolias, must be included in any listing of physical disabilities. Remedial measures may be of the group type if the difficulties are discovered in the early grades,

but at the secondary-school level the disabilities are usually so persistent that individual measures must be employed. With these difficulties the aim is to restore the children to normalcy and their segregation in special groups is rarely indicated.

Small groups of children with speech defects may be given corrective exercises by special itinerant teachers who make periodic visits to various schools. The incidence of speech defects in a school population will vary from .5 to 9 percent, with the lower grades contributing the larger numbers. Preventive and corrective work with these children is very important and should not be left to the wisdom and leisure time of the typical classroom teacher. Remedial work should be scheduled regularly and the speech correction teacher must depend on the classroom teacher to watch for improvement in a child's speech and to see that he follows the remedial suggestions as he participates in the regular work of the class.

Other handicapped children—The resources of educational psychology likewise must be tapped to meet the special problems of other types of physically handicapped pupils. In the case of severe cardiac defects a lightened academic program is frequently necessary, and part-time assignment to a special class is sometimes indicated because of the difficulties which these children encounter in climbing stairs and in moving to various classrooms. The tendency here is to insist that the children take as much of their work as possible with regular groups in an effort to minimize their feelings of isolation. Children who are epileptic, choreic, or encephalic, as well as those who suffer from nervous disturbances of an organic origin, must have their needs met also. Usually there are no special groupings for these children because of their small numbers, but a modified program must be arranged for them according to their physical and personality needs. Children suffering from malnutrition present characteristic problems, and while these problems are not primarily psychological the educational progress of such children must be scrutinized from time to time. Factors of malnutrition and even of overweight must be taken into consideration when these children are placed in regular classroom groups.

Function of the visiting teacher—In meeting the special needs of pupils with physical handicaps, attention should be given to the work of the visiting teacher. Contacts with the home are extremely important in the cases of these children, as the parents often tend to be suspicious of special education programs. The visiting teacher helps to convince such parents of the value of special education facilities in the schools. In her role of social worker and liaison officer between the home and

the school, she brings an attitude of scientific friendliness to bear on the common problems of both institutions.

The program in Elizabeth, New Jersey—It is obvious that an adequate program for meeting the needs of physically handicapped school children cannot be put into effect over night. The development of this work in the Elizabeth schools, for example, has been quite gradual during the last twelve years. Elizabeth has a public school population of 16,000 children. A class for crippled children at the elementary level, a Braille class, a sight-saving class, two classes for the hard-of-hearing, and an advanced sight-saving group were established in that order. Careful surveys were undertaken before each group was set up. For instance, lists were established of those children who had vision of 20/50 or less according to the Snellen Chart, and the first sight-saving-class children were selected from this group. The hard-of-hearing classes were made up of children who had failed the 4-A audiometer test given to all the third, fourth, and fifth grades in the city and who had shown serious hearing losses when checked with the clinical 2-A instrument. In addition to the classes just mentioned, two speech teachers give weekly assistance to small groups of children organized as speech correction classes. The teachers selected for this work were encouraged to broaden their training not only in speech correction but also in the entire field of special education. The program as a whole has proceeded gradually with the result that the costs have not been felt prohibitively in the community. The results have borne out the conviction of the superintendent of schools that public acceptance of educational procedures of this sort is facilitated when one builds slowly and carefully.

Conclusion—It is possible to plan for the individual needs of physically atypical school children thru special class programs and thru individualized approaches in regular class situations. Local, state, and even federal aid is available to school systems in their efforts to provide for these children. Without an immediate and drastic reorganization of current practices and without a prohibitive outlay of funds it is possible gradually to organize the resources of the schools for an adequate program of special education. Such a plan entails no "segregation" of children in the unfavorable sense in which this word is frequently used. It is good mental hygiene, however, to group children according to their needs so that they may be given opportunity to function at their highest levels.

A DIAGNOSTIC AND REMEDIAL PROGRAM FOR PHYSICALLY IRREGULAR CHILDREN

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INDIVIDUAL HEALTH TRAINING is an integral part of the health program in the public schools of Rochester, New York. There is concerted action on the part of school administrators, the department of health education, trained school nurses, health education teachers, and regular classroom teachers to study the children as they participate in their daily activities, to note physical irregularities or defects, and to focus on ways of bringing about greater efficiency in each individual. Physical health is thought of not as a static thing apart from the rest of life but as a way of living—as something going along from day to day with the intellectual, emotional, social, and spiritual growth of the individual. The greater the degree of health, the better prepared is the boy or girl to meet the problems of today and those of an unpredictable future. Providing conditions conducive to desirable physical development is therefore a major responsibility of the Rochester school system.

TYPES OF PHYSICAL IRREGULARITIES FOUND IN SCHOOL

In the typical public school many types of physical irregularities and sensory disabilities are to be found. In one Rochester school of 645 children there are actually seen in classrooms some children with traces of spastic and infantile paralysis, hydrocephalus, club and pronated feet, twisted or shortened arms, legs bowed from rickets, curvatures of the spine, stooped or lowered shoulders and hips, prominent abdomens, wry necks, thyroid or other glandular difficulties, poor posture from malnutrition and other causes, lowered vitality, and poor muscular coordination. Many children, otherwise well, function less efficiently because of sensory defects, which include strained and crossed eyes, granulated eyelids, reddened or inflamed eyes, pink eye, muscle strain, and near- and far-sightedness. Ear difficulties include impairment of hearing in one or both ears, which is either congenital or caused by hardened wax or some foreign obstruction within the ear, running ears, and mastoid conditions. There are also many disorders of speech, such as stuttering, lisping, baby talk, and impediments caused by cleft palate, harelip, tongue-tied condition, tonsil and adenoid complications, or nervous tension.

Here and there are found a few cardiac cases, rheumatic fever victims, tuberculosis suspects, and children having single or double

hernia, to say nothing of those who bear the after effects of scarlet fever, measles, and whooping cough. Pitiabie are those who suffer from croup, asthma, hay fever, and other irritations of the respiratory tract, all of which may result in a lower level of physical efficiency. Two cases of epilepsy have been found in this school within a period of six years. Several cases of chorea have been discovered among excessively nervous children. Acne, hives, fruit rashes, impetigo, scabies, and other skin ailments as well as nutritional upsets are ever present and need individual attention also.

The school feels that it cannot afford to ignore physical irregularities any more than it can ignore differences in intelligence or antisocial deviations. Therefore, every available means is employed to discover physical handicaps and to promote improved conditions for each individual case.

PROCEDURES FOR DISCOVERING DISABILITIES IN THE INDIVIDUAL SCHOOL

At the opening of school each year and at short intervals thruout the year the school nurse in each school makes purposeful visits to all grades, beginning with the nursery school and kindergarten. With a keen eye she observes every child in each room and attempts to discern any physical irregularities. She confers with each teacher, and together they make notations for follow-up work, giving the most urgent cases immediate attention. A conference with the school principal and the health and physical education teacher ensues, and then the visiting teacher or nurse goes into the home for a friendly visit with the parents so that the school may obtain as much pertinent information as possible before further plans are made.

In some instances deformities are observed when a child appears for the first time in a gymnasium suit. The health and physical education teacher immediately makes a notation of such a problem, refers the case to the nurse, classroom teacher, and principal, and arranges for an interview with the parents. Often the parent or the child himself calls the teacher's attention to, or asks the nurse about, some hidden deformity or ailment.

It is the policy of the writer's school to have every new entrant visit the nurse on the day of his entry. At this time the nurse examines the child and records anything needing attention. In extreme instances children are excluded because of some physical ailment.

Whenever problems are noted, the nurse or the health and physical education teacher telephones or writes the parents to come to school for a friendly conference about conditions as she finds them. She is careful at all times to have the parents feel that the school is eager

to obtain advice and, if possible, to procure assistance in order that the difficulty may be remedied. Thru health talks given yearly to the school parent-teacher association, the nurse and the health and physical education instructor keep parents informed about available services and stress the desirability of parents' inculcating in the child a desire to be helped as well as a desire to help himself overcome his difficulty.

Occasionally notes from private physicians advise the school that strenuous exercises should be avoided or that rest periods should be planned for certain children in their care. These are authentic warnings which the school endeavors to heed. In addition, perennial visits of a staff of doctors and nurses employed by the Rochester Health Bureau, including specialists in eye, ear, nose, throat, cardiac, and orthopedic troubles, assist all schools in discovering the individual children who need glasses, nose and throat operations, and cardiac or orthopedic treatment.

During the annual visitation by the city Health Bureau staff all children in the city and parochial schools are inspected. The findings are recorded by nurses on the individual cumulative health cards kept in the school nurse's office. From time to time remedial measures also are recorded. When necessary, notices are sent home advising either hospital treatment or a more detailed examination by the family's private physician. Children also are urged by the nurse and the health and physical education teacher to see a physician. Special arrangements are often made by the school nurse for the care of indigent or borderline cases.

Immediately following this check-up by the Health Bureau in all schools the school nurse frequently goes into the homes—especially the foreign homes—to explain the advised procedure. Happily, there is a growing confidence in, and acceptance of, these helpful suggestions on the part of the parents. Proof of this fact is the increased number of telephone calls in the writer's school with queries such as these: "May I speak to the school nurse?" "When may I see the health education teacher?" "When can the nurse call at our home?" This mutual understanding makes it much easier to probe to the heart of school health problems.

Daily health inspection in all city schools, conducted intensively and thoroly but more informally than in preceding years, offers the classroom teacher an opportunity to detect any unusual conditions needing attention. These individual cases are listed by the teacher and the list is passed on to the school nurse. Further attention is focused on each case by the nurse, who, with the health and physical education teacher, develops a detailed plan for obtaining diagnosis and

corrective treatment. When a communicable disease is detected, the infected child is immediately sent home with an explanatory note signed by the nurse and the principal.

First-aid procedures are followed in all cases of accidents happening on the school premises. If a case is serious enough to warrant it, the child is taken to a hospital specified by the board of education for further diagnosis or treatment.

The individual health training program includes height and weight surveys by the health and physical education teacher with the assistance of the regular classroom teachers in all schools. Special plans in regard to diet, rest, and exercises are made for children who are 15 percent or more underweight, while special diets and exercises are suggested for those who are overweight.

A periodical examination of the feet of all children attending gymnasium classes discloses any diseased condition such as athlete's foot or any defect such as fallen arches. If serious foot conditions are found, they are listed and referred for diagnosis to the orthopedic consultant of the board of education. This service is available to all city schools which desire a consultant. A pedograph machine is employed to show the children and their parents a condition of falling arches. At intervals the child's footprints are compared with his former prints to check conditions after prescribed exercises have been followed.

Standard physical tests are given from time to time in all schools and a modified gymnasium program is arranged for individuals with special needs. Examinations by the health and physical education teacher also disclose individuals who need special help in attaining correct posture. Spinal or other orthopedic conditions needing attention are referred to the orthopedic consultant, who makes further examinations and recommendations.

COOPERATION OF VARIOUS AGENCIES IN DIAGNOSIS AND TREATMENT

All public school children of Rochester are particularly fortunate in having available many facilities for the diagnosis and treatment of individual difficulties. The services of specialists in the field of psychology, psychiatry, pediatrics, dentistry, nursing, and health education are provided either directly by the board of education or thru arrangements made with other local agencies. All these skilled workers help to safeguard normal development and to correct remediable physical defects.

The health education department, as a part of the regular health and physical education program in all schools, arranges special health-emphasis periods. One such period is "Eye Conservation Week," dur-

ing which the children, parents, and teachers meet to become familiar with eye physiology and eye hygiene, including the importance of proper lighting in the schoolroom and the home, the need for proper glasses, etc. This activity often leads to eye examinations and appropriate recommendations by either private physicians or clinics. The school nurse, the health and physical education teacher, and the regular classroom teachers all check to see that children who should be wearing glasses are doing so.

When a request is made by the health and physical education teacher to the director of health education, a temporary orthopedic clinic may be arranged for in any public school. Before the clinic begins, invitations are sent to parents urging them to be present and to consult with the orthopedic specialist in charge. At the clinic this specialist examines each child individually in the presence of his parents. He diagnoses each case and makes recommendations for corrective treatment. The following is the orthopedic consultant's report on thirteen children who were examined at such a clinic in the writer's school:

Name	Age	Complaint or diagnosis	Recommendations
Angelina V.	8	Pronated feet	Wedges ($\frac{1}{8}$ inch) inside shoes
Marion H.	5	Congenital torticollis—right	Operation advised as soon as possible (possibility of state aid)
Anna C.	9	Poor posture; pronated feet; had rickets; pot belly; old rachitic chest deformity	Exercises (posture, breathing, pronated feet); wedges for shoes
Mario D.	8	Poor posture; double pronated feet	Exercises (feet and posture); wedges in shoes
Augustine T.	10	Pronated feet; poor posture	Supports or wedges; exercises (proned feet; posture)
Angela R.	8	Pronated feet; fair posture; had rickets	Wedges; foot exercises
Ida T.	11	Poor posture; pronated feet	Wedges; foot exercises
Aldo D.	11	Poor posture	Postural exercises
Robert K.	13	Very pronated feet; anemia?	Arch supports and exercises; physical examination advised
Madeline O.	12	Second right dorsal lumbar rotary lateral curvature; also slight asymmetry of chest	Postural exercises; Dr. ——— to see her next year
Dean B.	11	Pigeon chest	Postural exercises
John B.	10	Double pronated feet; poor posture	Foot exercises; postural exercises
Harry C.	8	Short achilles' tendon—left—spastic	Surgery advised (possibility of state aid)

As the result of this clinic Marion H. had the suggested operation and is greatly improved. Some of the other children listed have been advised to attend an orthopedic school operated by the board of education.

In the school of which the writer is principal the importance of good posture is constantly stressed and classes are formed for children needing certain types of exercises. These exercises are carried on three times a week in school under the health and physical education teacher and daily at home with the parents' cooperation. Such a program is facilitated by a health coordinating plan in some schools. A school committee composed of four teachers, the principal, the school nurse, the health and physical education teacher, and representative parents holds meetings throught the school year to talk over health needs and to plan special emphasis periods.

This particular school and many others also have special foot classes, speech correction classes, and classes for underweight children. All city schools have traffic and safety meetings as well as the regular outdoor play and exercise program. In some schools, including the writer's, cots are placed out of doors (except in inclement weather) for extreme underweight, cardiac, or convalescent cases that need rest rather than exercise. The resting periods take place during the regular gymnasium periods. Rest periods are arranged also for children who are very inattentive or listless or who show excessive fatigue, nervousness, or excitability. These rest periods are under the direct supervision of the health and physical education teacher. In many schools all the children are trained to relax and to have regular and sufficient sleep habits, while the nervous individuals are helped to cultivate poise.

The child study department of the school system cooperates in many ways with the program of individual health training. Thru this department trained operators are sent to all schools to give audiometer tests to groups or individuals for the detection of hearing impairments. When cases of a serious nature are found, retests are given to assure absolute accuracy. An ear specialist later comes to the school to diagnose individual difficulties and recommend treatment. Both the school and the parents are notified as to the recommendations. The regular teachers follow directions given for special seating arrangements in order that hard-of-hearing children may obtain maximum benefit from regular class work. A teacher of lip reading comes from the child study department for a few hours each week where needed to hold lip-reading classes for children who have a substantial or growing loss of hearing. When the physician finds a child to be deaf or nearly deaf, that child is transferred to another school where a hearing-conservation class is held daily.

Upon request, a trained speech teacher from the child study department visits all schools to examine individually all children reported as having speech difficulties. This speech expert diagnoses each case and

furnishes to teachers and parents typed directions and exercises for the correction of minor impediments. She also arranges for a school physician to verify her examination and to make recommendations in more serious cases. In all cases the parents and teachers are invited to cooperate in furnishing past history or other necessary data.

The exercises prescribed by the speech teacher are used in speech correction classes and become a part of the health training program. The children are taught to relax, to speak slowly, to repeat certain phrases distinctly, and to do other simple exercises in the spirit of play. They are also encouraged to keep their own records of improvement. Each child is urged to help himself as much as possible and to report his progress or difficulties in practicing the assigned exercises. Assistance and encouragement are given by the health and physical education teacher and the regular class teachers.

Children with eye difficulties are urged by the school nurse in each school to have an eye examination by a specialist. Indigent cases obtain free examinations at hospital clinics when appointments have been arranged thru the school nurse. Glasses are procured for some indigent children thru the city Department of Public Welfare in cooperation with the Rochester Health Bureau, and for others thru private funds or thru a fund established by the board of education for that purpose.

Twice a year dental chairs and other necessary equipment for prophylactic service are set up in each public and parochial school in the city. This service is performed by graduates of the Rochester Dental Dispensary or by dental hygienists in training and is free to all school children thru the generosity of the late George Eastman. Following the teeth-cleaning process, notices are sent home with all children who need to see a dentist. Indigent children may have the services of dentists at the dental dispensary for the nominal sum of five cents per visit. In addition, a young woman comes to the schools from the dispensary, bringing pictures, puppets, and interesting stories to arouse in the children a desire to clean their teeth several times daily.

The dental dispensary also takes care of tonsillectomy and adenoid cases among borderline children for five dollars each. This fee includes short-time hospitalization.

The child study department makes arrangements whereby the frail, undernourished, and underweight child in any school may attend the open-air school which is a part of the city school system. At this school, classes and rest periods are held out of doors in an atmosphere conducive to well-being, and good food is advised and milk is provided as an aid to growth. The children return to their homes at night. For children with orthopedic defects still another source of help is available

thru the child study department, namely, the Convalescent Hospital, which is located near Rochester on the shore of Lake Ontario. Teachers are provided by the board of education to carry on a modified school program for these children.

All the Rochester hospitals have out-patient departments in which clinics are held for indigent and borderline cases needing medical attention. The school nurse in each school makes appointments, and when parents give their consent the hospitals notify the nurse as to diagnoses and recommendations.

Several other agencies are of great assistance to the schools. The Tuberculosis and Health Association, in connection with the Rochester Board of Health, furnishes many free appointments each year for examination of tubercular suspects in the schools. The Red Cross Society and the Shelter give aid in diagnosing the cases of children in whom they are interested, and they also furnish free clinical service. The Rochester Health Bureau furnishes full-time nurses in the larger schools and part-time nursing service in the smaller schools. It also furnishes school physicians who report to the school at least once a week, and a corps of doctors and nurses who make periodic health inspections. Clinics for children of preschool age are held thruout the calendar year by the school nurse and doctors, and all school nurses also accompany children of school age weekly to and from the dental dispensary for dental care.

CONCLUSION

If presented rightly the subject of good health has a universal appeal. A sound program of education for health performs wise magic. In conducting such a program one of the largest tasks of the Rochester public schools is to discover and diagnose physical defects in children, to reeducate handicapped children in new health practices, and to provide favorable environment, opportunity, and encouragement for the continued exercise of these practices. The facilities and procedures described in this article, we believe, are contributing substantially to the successful accomplishment of this task.

CARING FOR PHYSICALLY HANDICAPPED PUPILS IN
REGULAR AND SPECIAL CLASSES

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RELATIVELY FEW SCHOOL SYSTEMS provide special class facilities for physically handicapped children and only a small percent of such children are cared for in special day or residential schools.¹ Evidently a large number of children with more or less serious handicaps either are receiving no educational opportunities at all or are in classes with normal children. In the latter case, most teachers lack the necessary training to care for the atypical children or they are so heavily loaded with large classes that little time is available for meeting the needs of these children. To overcome these difficulties two steps seem necessary: (1) to increase the number of special classes, and (2) to increase the knowledge and skill of regular teachers so that they may care more adequately for those atypical children who are enrolled in their classes.

ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF SPECIAL CLASSES

The need for more special classes, particularly in the smaller cities and towns, may usually be met best by organizing special education departments or classes in school buildings which house normal children rather than by constructing new buildings for handicapped pupils. Such departments or classes are less expensive than special schools and they make it possible for a considerable number of handicapped children to attend some classes with normal children. The second of these considerations is important from the standpoint of mental hygiene. Handicapped children want very much to be normal and to be considered so by others. Usually the greater portion of their lives will be spent in association with normal individuals and they should be helped toward this adjustment rather than hindered, as is likely to be the case if they are housed in isolated schools.

During the past several years the writer has had charge of a special education department in a building housing a junior high school of 1000 pupils and an elementary school of 500 pupils. The special education department of 150 pupils includes classes for the crippled and cardio-

¹ White House Conference on Child Health and Protection. *Special Education: The Handicapped and the Gifted*. New York: Century Co., 1931. 604 p. ¶ Foster, Emery M., and Martens, Elise H. "Statistics of Special Schools and Classes for Exceptional Children." *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States: 1934-36*. U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin, 1937, No. 2. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1938. Vol. II, Chapter 6, 179 p. (Advanced pages.)

pathic, the deaf and hard-of-hearing, the partially sighted, and the mentally retarded. Transportation and care under the direction of proper medical specialists are provided in the manner prescribed by the Michigan State Department of Public Instruction. As nearly as possible the course of study prescribed for normal children is followed.

In these special classes it has been found increasingly desirable to send certain of the handicapped children to regular classes for a part of their work. This is always done with the advice of the specialist concerned and under the immediate direction of the special class teacher. The latter determines the classes which each pupil may safely attend with normal children, makes the necessary arrangements with the teachers involved, and keeps constantly informed of the situation to insure a satisfactory adjustment on the part of the pupil. There is hardly a regular class in the school that has not been found suitable for some handicapped child who is regularly enrolled in a special class.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF REGULAR CLASS TEACHERS

Regular class teachers who receive handicapped children from special classes must understand and appreciate the needs of such pupils so as to guide them wisely and prevent harmful situations from arising. Moreover, such understanding is necessary for the detection of handicapped children and for their proper care when a special class is not available or when their handicaps are not sufficiently serious to require transfer to a special room but do require some modification of the regular classroom situation.

General activities—When a teacher receives a new group of pupils, she should take a careful inventory early in the semester to determine the physical characteristics and needs of each pupil. Health and school records should be carefully studied and the knowledge accumulated by previous teachers of the group should be freely used. In addition, the teacher should make frequent and painstaking observations of each child, particularly after an illness. The high fevers accompanying many childhood diseases frequently leave disabilities of the heart or of hearing and vision.

If the teacher discovers or suspects the presence of a physical disability, she should quickly inform the school nurse or the proper school authority. In small schools it may be necessary for the teacher to contact a social agency or the proper division of the state department of education or of public welfare. In no case should she be indifferent to the situation and she should always be free to offer her suggestions about pupils to the proper authorities. On the other hand, no teacher is qualified to diagnose a case and it is usually unwise to force an issue

against indifferent parents. If a child is evidently neglected there are local officials in a better position than the teacher to bring the issue before the juvenile court. A teacher confronted with a handicapped child in her class should feel free to call upon the division of special education in the state department of public instruction. Thru that division suggestions may be obtained for proper care of the child or contact may be established with a special class nearby.

Partially-seeing children—The teacher should ever be on the lookout for behavior which may indicate visual difficulties. She may reasonably suspect such a difficulty if the child

1. Is irritable, has temper tantrums or crying spells.
2. Is inattentive during reading lessons, map study, blackboard presentations, and discussions of excursions.
3. When reading, holds book at distance from face, holds face close to book, moves position of book frequently, pauses frequently, tends to lose place, blinks eyes frequently, shuts or covers one eye, tilts head to one side, looks cross-eyed, guesses, or screws up face.
4. Prefers to read rather than play.
5. Appears to brush away a blur.
6. Holds body tense, screws up face, or thrusts head forward when looking at distant objects.
7. Rubs eyes.
8. Does not write in straight lines.
9. Confuses reversible letters, such as b-d, g-q, n-u, and m-w.
10. Confuses similar letters, such as o-a, e-c, n-m, h-n-r, and f-t.

Suspected visual difficulties may be checked with the Snellen letter charts.² Most parents will secure professional advice following a report of unsatisfactory school progress and failure on the Snellen test.

Individual pupils should be taught to avoid rubbing the eyes, wiping them with dirty towels, using the eyes strenuously after an illness, looking at bright lights, and reading while riding on a train or streetcar. They should be taught to read with a good light coming over the shoulder, with the reading material at a right angle to the line of vision, and with occasional periods of rest. In administering her room with the thought of protecting the children's vision the teacher should

1. Arrange seats so that no window is in the field of vision of any child (so that he cannot see out of a window unless his head is turned).
2. Eliminate highly polished, reflecting surfaces (a blotter may cover the polished desk of a pupil sensitive to light).
3. Provide adequate light. Ten foot-candles of light is a minimum, and light meters may usually be borrowed from electric light companies. Shades should be drawn only to exclude direct or reflected sunlight. To insure adequate light on the corridor side of the room the top portion of the windows should not be covered unless absolutely necessary. In addition, the row of lights nearest the corridor wall will usually be needed except on the brightest days.

²These charts may be secured from the C. H. Stoelting Company, Chicago, Illinois, or from the National Society for the Prevention of Blindness, New York City. See the description of this method by McCloy in Chapter II.

4. Avoid the use of books or writing materials made with glazed surfaces.
5. Keep blackboards clean and write with soft chalk in a large, clear style.
6. Never stand on the window side of the room when conducting recitations. Such a position forces the pupil to look at the bright expanse of window space and places the teacher's face in a shadow.

Deaf and hard-of-hearing children—Deaf children (those with no usable hearing) will be unable to get along in a regular classroom without the help of a special teacher. They must be taught to read lips, to acquire a language sense, and to speak as clearly as possible. With such training by a special teacher and with the understanding and sympathy of the regular teacher, a deaf child may participate successfully in many situations with hearing children. He should, however, be enrolled also in an oral class for deaf children.

The hard-of-hearing child (one with some usable hearing) may, even with a serious hearing loss, avoid detection by an untrained teacher and perhaps be classified as dull or queer. The writer has had experience with a hard-of-hearing pupil who attended classes for an entire semester under regular teachers without detection altho she was considered a poor student and queer because she sometimes failed to respond to questions. With the consent of her parents she had declined available assistance from a special teacher and had developed such a complex over her ailment that she preferred to be considered a poor pupil rather than publicly acknowledge her hearing loss. She had some self-taught lip-reading ability.

Hard-of-hearing pupils may often be detected by one or more of the following signs:

1. Poor speech, lacking inflection and tending to omit certain sounds
2. Turning head to favor the better ear
3. Tendency to watch speaker intently and frequent failure to respond when speaker's face cannot be seen (self-taught lip reading)
4. Earache and running ears
5. Requesting that questions and statements be repeated
6. A dull, sometimes stupid, appearance.

Suspected cases may be checked by a voice test in the following manner: Have the pupil stand twenty feet distant and face at a right angle to the examiner. Have him tightly plug, with his finger, the ear away from the examiner. Questions should then be asked in a normal speaking voice. If necessary, the distance should be gradually lessened until the child can respond accurately to all understandable questions. The second ear should be checked in a similar manner with the child facing in the opposite direction. The child should not be permitted to look at the examiner. The closer the child must stand in order to make successful responses, the greater his hearing loss. If there appears to

be a hearing loss the parents should be advised to have the child examined by a medical specialist.

Teachers may assist hard-of-hearing pupils in the following ways:

1. Seating them in the front of the room near the teacher or in the middle of the room for class discussions
2. Standing in such a position when speaking to the child that the speaker's face will be in good light
3. Speaking distinctly, with good enunciation and reasonable slowness
4. Checking vision to make sure there is not a double handicap. Good vision is necessary for good lip reading
5. Advising the child's parents and other associates to give equal consideration to the above suggestions.

Crippled children—A crippled child is usually quite easily identified. Often he comes to school following an illness or disabling injury. There are, however, certain postural defects, including spinal curvatures, which may first be detected by the teacher because of the contrast with other children. The school nurse should be consulted in such a case or the parents should be advised to see their family physician. If a child is known to be crippled the teacher should acquire as complete information about the case as possible, particularly as to restrictions in activity. Teachers may assist crippled children in the following ways:

1. Restricting activities in accordance with the physician's instructions.
2. Not attempting any corrective physical exercise unless definitely requested to do so by the physician. This is usually the work of a specially trained person, the physiotherapist.
3. Providing regular rest periods if prescribed by the physician.
4. Adjusting the desks to support the body properly in comfort. This may involve leg rests and modifications in the form and height of the seat.
5. Arranging for classes on the ground floor.
6. Arranging a plan of assistance during fire drills or emergency exits.
7. Encouraging other children to assist in avoiding further injury to the crippled child.
8. Helping the child to acquire and maintain a normal emotional attitude. Many crippled children have been so pampered that they are quite unadjusted.
9. Emphasizing the child's strength rather than his weakness, and thinking constructively of what he can do rather than of what he cannot do.
10. Securing vocational guidance if the child is past twelve years of age. If there are no competent local agencies, the state department of rehabilitation can be very helpful.

Epileptic children—Epilepsy is usually evidenced by convulsions, which fortunately occur more often at home than at school. Children who have frequent or severe attacks have no place in the regular school-room because of the detrimental effect upon other pupils. Many epileptic children are excellent students and appear perfectly normal between seizures. Mild cases have been known to continue in a regular school, but others have been generally excluded from public schools because

of the lack of special class provisions. Exclusion from public school has usually meant private care at home or enrolment in a private school or state institution. The city of Detroit has established a special school (the White School) for epileptics which has aroused national interest. The writer is personally acquainted with a student enrolled in this school who is making a very excellent adjustment. Incidentally, the state of Michigan has included epileptic children in its special education program and gives financial aid for their special care.³ Epilepsy is a condition that requires careful medical supervision and no teacher should attempt its care in a schoolroom without definite advice from the physician in charge of the case.

Delicate children—Heart disabilities are classified as crippling conditions in Michigan.³ Usually, however, they are classified with other conditions of lowered vitality such as the malnourished, the anemic, and the tubercular. These conditions are difficult for a teacher to detect unless health records based upon thoro periodic physical examinations are available. In the absence of such records those children whose appearance or actions indicate reduced energy and vitality should be referred to the family physician or the local social service agency. Since good health is essential to happiness and good schoolwork, the first consideration with children of lowered vitality should be restoration to a condition of good health. Schoolwork should be entirely secondary. Teachers may assist such children by

1. Becoming thoroly informed of the physician's diagnosis and recommendations for care
2. Modifying the regular school program freely to meet the child's needs
3. Limiting the child's activities
4. Providing daily rest periods, preferably with the child in a reclining position
5. Attempting to insure good nourishment and warm, comfortable clothing
6. Providing good ventilation in the room
7. Avoiding need for stair climbing
8. Providing substitute recreation for recess and gym periods that is not too strenuous.

Children with speech disabilities—Speech disorders are easily detected but are not always easily corrected. A few of the more common types are stammering, stuttering, lisping, nasality, thick speech, hoarseness, baby talk, and foreign accent. Some conditions are physiological and others psychological. A cleft palate will result in nasality, as will an improperly functioning soft palate. Disorders of the vocal cords will result in hoarseness or other abnormalities of voiced speech. Partial paralysis or faulty muscle structure may result in thick speech or lisping. Baby talk will usually be overcome thru association with children

³ Elliott, Eugene B. *A Statement of Policies and an Interpretation of Act 319 of the Public Acts of 1927 as Amended*. Lansing, Mich.: State Department of Public Instruction, 1939. (Mimeo.)

with normal speech and the constant pressure for good speech on the part of the teacher. Foreign accent may be overcome in a young child but is likely to persist in an older pupil to a certain degree.

Regardless of whether a speech correction teacher is available or not, children with speech defects will spend most of their time in regular classrooms under the care of regular teachers. If a speech correction teacher is handling such a case the regular teacher should cooperate fully with her. If there is no speech correction teacher and the child has a serious speech defect, assistance should be sought from a qualified physician or an available speech clinic. If none are known, advice is usually available from the division of special education in the state education department. In dealing with speech correction cases a regular classroom teacher should

1. Try to develop a sympathetic attitude on the part of other children. Teasing and ridicule should be avoided.

2. Encourage the handicapped pupil to participate naturally in classroom activities. His recitations should be voluntary and he should not be corrected publicly.

3. Give correction exercises individually, secure relaxation, speak with absolute clarity, develop exercises for teaching correct sounds, and praise the child freely for effort and improvement.

CONCLUSION

In closing, it should be reemphasized that even a high degree of understanding and skill on the part of regular classroom teachers cannot take the place of adequate special class provisions for certain types of physically handicapped children. Yet there is much that regular teachers should do in discovering and caring for such children, whether or not special classes are provided. If special classes are available, it is often desirable to send some of the children in them to the regular classes for part of their work. If there are no special classes the responsibilities of regular teachers are obviously much heavier. In any event, these teachers must share the task of detecting the disabilities and needs of individual children, meet such needs as adequately as possible while the children are in their classrooms, and enlist whatever expert assistance is available outside the regular classrooms. The need of most teachers for special study and training in this field, as well as for sufficient time to discharge their responsibilities effectively, should receive the careful attention of administrative and supervisory officers.

PROVISIONS FOR DEAF AND HARD-OF-HEARING CHILDREN

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THE JERSEY CITY BOARD OF EDUCATION is striving constantly to place its educational provisions for all handicapped children on a high plane. It adheres as closely as possible to the democratic ideal of an equal opportunity for every pupil. The common aim in the education and care of all types of handicapped pupils is to prepare them to live successfully with persons who are not handicapped. This article deals with the provisions made for deaf and hard-of-hearing children.

MEASUREMENT AND CONSERVATION OF HEARING

Essentials of the program—The Jersey City program for the measurement and conservation of hearing is based on that promulgated by the eminent otologist, E. P. Fowler, and advocated by the New York League for the Hard of Hearing. Its essential elements are as follows:

1. A preliminary hearing test of all pupils with the 4-B audiometer.¹ This test is given to groups of forty pupils or less, in a quiet classroom, by a competent tester and assistant. The history of each pupil is obtained as required on the test sheet.
2. An inspection of these test papers on the same day in order to determine which pupils should be retested.
3. A retest on the following day of those showing a certain hearing deficiency.
4. A tone range (2-A audiometer) test of those still found to be low in hearing capacity.
5. A careful otological examination and diagnosis of each case of marked hearing deficiency by an otologist employed for the purpose. (Professional otologists have their own procedures for examination and diagnosis.)
6. The recording on a prepared sheet of all the important data from the above tests for each hard-of-hearing child.
7. A note to teachers, thru the principal, directing that front seats be given to the hard-of-hearing children.
8. A note to the parent or guardian of each hard-of-hearing child stating that the child is slightly, moderately, or markedly hard of hearing in one or both ears, and that he should be sent to a reputable otologist or a recommended ear clinic to determine what, if anything, can be done to improve his hearing and prevent the progress of his condition. The parents should know that a seat near the front of the classroom will be provided for the child. Such a statement will aid in impressing on them the fact that the hearing difficulty is a real one.
9. A check-up to learn whether the child has been cared for as prescribed above. If this has not been done, a duplicate notice is sent to the parent or guardian.
10. The careful filing of records so that any changes in a pupil's condition may be noted thereon from time to time. This provides cumulative information on the progress of difficult or promising cases.
11. The regular yearly testing of the school population by the foregoing procedure.

¹ This instrument is essentially the same as the 4-A audiometer (mentioned by McCloy in Chapter II) but is a newer model.

The staff in Jersey City consists of two testing technicians (one for group testing by the 4-B audiometer, and one for individual testing by the 2-A audiometer), six trained teachers of lip reading, and a school otologist.

Administration of the program—A marked hearing deficiency is readily recognized, yet it is surprising how often a child may be considered dull or inattentive when the real trouble is that he cannot hear. To guard against such mistakes the hearing of all children should be tested annually. Severe illnesses, mastoid operations, and accidents can cause a serious loss of hearing within a year.

Altho Jersey City has not as yet been able to give annual tests to the entire school system, all pupils from Grades III-A thru IX-B are tested every two years. In addition, any pupil suspected of having a hearing loss, regardless of grade, may be recommended for a 2-A audiometer test. Many of the pupils in the lip reading classes are examined annually upon the otologist's recommendation.

The 4-B audiometer test is conducted by a school nurse who is a trained technician. The close cooperation of the school principals has resulted in as near ideal conditions for the testing program as it is possible to attain. By arranging for a quiet room in the building, changing the schedule of school activities for a day or two, notifying pupils at assembly that a hearing-test program is going on, and scheduling the classes efficiently for the program, the principal may have his school tested quickly and accurately.

The technician marks all papers on the day of the test and pupils showing a loss of nine sensation units or more in one or both ears are scheduled for a retest. If they still show this deficiency their names are sent to the administration building, where a 2-A audiometer or individual hearing test is arranged.

The individual hearing test is given in a sound-proof room. It is conducted by a school nurse who is a trained technician but who gives only part time to this work. An audiogram is plotted for each pupil and all pupils showing a loss of nine sensation units or more, in one or both ears, are scheduled for an examination by the school otologist.

The otologist consults the pupil's history, which has been recorded in advance by the school nurse, and then gives him a thoro examination. Parents are notified when the otological examination is to be given and it is their privilege to be present. Records of the examination are made out in duplicate. One copy is kept in the school and the other goes to the administration building to be filed with the child's audiogram.

In a majority of cases the otologist gives some medical recommenda-

tion such as the removal of impacted cerumen or of septic tonsils and adenoids. The child may be referred to his own physician or a clinic for treatment for adhesions or chronic catarrh. It is the duty of the school nurse to notify parents who are not present of the results of the examination, and if they cannot afford to take the child to a physician, preferably an otologist, they are asked to take him to the ear clinic. In cases where the parent is working and cannot accompany the child to the clinic, a school matron will go with him, provided the parent signs a consent slip.

When the medical recommendations are carefully followed, many children are saved from complete deafness in later life. A considerable number have been restored to normal hearing after medical treatment by competent otologists, both private and in clinics.

EDUCATIONAL PROVISIONS

On the basis of the amount of hearing loss, the type of deafness, and the family and medical history of each individual child, the otologist makes recommendation as to the type of class instruction needed.

Classes for deaf children—In the case of the child who is congenitally deaf or who became deaf before speech was acquired, the usual recommendation is a class for the deaf. There are four such classes in Public School No. 6, each under the guidance of an especially trained teacher. Forty-four pupils are enrolled in Grades I-A thru VIII-B.

Hard-of-hearing pupils in regular classes—Deafened or hard-of-hearing pupils constitute the majority of those examined. These children can speak and can understand language but they have developed, thru illness or accident, an impairment of hearing. They are sound-conscious and have a normal, or almost normal, attitude towards the world of sound in which they live. The otologist recommends that they not be put in special classes but that they remain in the regular grades of their present schools and receive instruction in lip reading. It is especially advisable that these pupils remain in the normal classroom. In this environment they can preserve a normal mental outlook, normal speech, and customary social relations.

In order to carry out the program of instruction in lip reading, four itinerant teachers have been appointed. They teach in each of the thirty-seven elementary schools and the four high schools. The deafened pupils in all the schools receive one lesson a week. In the lower grades the instruction lasts for one-half hour and in the higher grades, for one class period of forty-five minutes. No group has more than twelve pupils; the average class has eight to ten.

There is a special teacher of speech correction in every school, and as soon as a child is assigned to lip reading instruction he is given a special speech test. Most of these pupils were originally in the speech correction classes and were recommended for a hearing test by the teacher, who suspected impairment of hearing.

Careful attention is paid also to the vision of the deafened children. An inadequate sense of hearing places an added strain on the eyes of these boys and girls, and the teacher of lip reading must frequently check to see if they need glasses. If they have glasses, the teacher must insist that they wear them. Cooperation between the nurse, the class teacher, and the teacher of lip reading is necessary to insure the proper seating of the pupil in the front of the room, correct lighting conditions at all times, and a favorable speech environment—all of which are essential in lessening the handicap of deafness.

Hearing conservation classes—Among the deafened pupils there are some whose hearing loss is so great and for whom the otological prognosis is so poor that the otologist recommends them for a hearing conservation class. These pupils come from different parts of the city and are transported by bus at public expense. They usually have school histories of grade repetition, but there are some in the lower primary grades whose histories are purely medical.

There are two hearing conservation classes in Public School No. 22, one for the primary grades and the other for the intermediate grades. Both classes are conducted by trained teachers of lip reading. A Sonotone Group Hearing Aid² for fifteen pupils has been installed in one of the rooms. Each pupil has been fitted with an earpiece, either air or bone conduction, according to his particular need. The teachers arrange their schedules so that each one has use of the machine for one class session each day. In addition to the use of the electrical group hearing aid, the pupils have daily instruction in lip reading and special help in speech correction.

These hearing conservation classes are the homerooms for the severely deafened pupils. The schedules of these children are arranged so that they go to regular grade classes for some of their studies, and in these rooms they are obliged to make use of their lip reading instruction. They report to their respective grades for arithmetic, history, and geography. They go to the domestic science rooms, manual training shops, and to the gymnasium for special activities. All other subjects are taught by the conservation class teacher, who must keep in constant touch with all regular teachers to ascertain just where

² An apparatus manufactured by the Sonotone Corporation of Elmsford, New York. It is equipped with microphones and earphones to amplify class discussion so that all participating pupils can hear their own voices and the voice of the teacher.

her pupils need the most help. Thus, she can correlate her work with the pupils' regular grade work.

It is always desirable for these pupils to mingle with children of normal hearing, to live with hearing members of their own families, and eventually to take their places in a hearing world. Thus, it is one of the aims of the hearing conservation classes to prepare the deafened children to be expert lip readers. Thru the use of the electric hearing aid and a special radio, a world of information and beauty has been opened to them. The training and reeducation of their residual hearing will be a lifelong asset.

A staff of well-trained teachers of lip reading is most essential in carrying out a successful program of hearing conservation. The Jersey City board of education, realizing this need, has adopted a resolution making it mandatory for a candidate wishing to take the written examination for the teacher-of-lip-reading certificate to have three year's experience as a teacher and 124 credit hours in the theory and practice of lip reading instruction, speech correction, and the psychology of the exceptional child. Our six teachers in this field have taken their work at Teachers College, Columbia University, and at the New York League for the Hard of Hearing.

Since the testing program is continuous and progressive in nature, new pupils are being recommended daily for lip reading instruction. The educational department does not dismiss these hard-of-hearing pupils from lip reading as soon as feasible, but arranges the general program so that they will continue in these classes until they graduate. Thus, it is hoped that thru constant practice these handicapped children will become skilful lip readers who can cooperate and compete socially and economically with normal, hearing people.

THE hard-of-hearing form the largest single group of the handicapped in the country. The extent of this handicap varies greatly between individuals and also from year to year. The hard-of-hearing have made such valiant and successful efforts to accomplish their own rehabilitation that their vast numbers are unrealized. But the cost to them psychologically, spiritually, and economically has been greater than anyone can ever know who has not been hard of hearing and traveled the rough road with them.—Frampton, Merle E., and Rowell, Hugh G., *Education of the Handicapped—Vol. II—Problems*, World Book Co., 1940, p. 217. (Quoted by permission of the publishers.)

FRESH AIR ROOMS FOR PHYSICALLY HANDICAPPED PUPILS

GLADYS M. FRIESNER

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THE MARION COUNTY, INDIANA, TUBERCULOSIS ASSOCIATION was responsible for the establishment of the fresh air program for physically handicapped children in Indianapolis. For ten years this association paid the costs of food, carfare, nurses, a cook, cots, blankets, and the special suits necessary for children in open-window rooms. At the end of that time the work was taken over by the city board of health and the board of school commissioners. At present all such classes are under the control of the school department of special education. One entire building is devoted to this work and seven other rooms are set aside in those schools of the city where the need seems to be greatest.

The first two fresh air rooms were established at the Lucretia Mott School (School No. 3) in 1913. These original rooms were organized for physically normal children by people who believed that any child would benefit by placement in such a room, but in 1916 the arrangement was changed to provide an opportunity for anemic children to regain their health. In 1914 an entire school for anemic children was opened. This school is now known as the Theodore Potter Fresh Air School and it cares for physically handicapped children from the second grade thru the first two years of junior high school.

Five other rooms have since been organized: one at School No. 26, one at School No. 22, and three at School No. 12. The work of these various rooms is successfully conducted despite the fact that they are in buildings organized for traditional classes. Close cooperation between teacher, principal, and the children is necessary for the success of such a program within a regular building. The following account of the set-up at Lucretia Mott School shows how fresh air rooms may be successfully conducted in buildings organized for a regular school program. Here the two original fresh air rooms are still being operated with good results. At present the personnel consists of two teachers, a nurse, a doctor, and a cook, all under the direction of a principal who is especially interested in this phase of schoolwork.

PURPOSE AND GENERAL PLAN

The purpose of these rooms is to provide opportunity for physically debilitated children to regain their normal physical and mental vigor

and at the same time to maintain their normal progress in school. Teachers in these special classes attempt to help frail boys and girls develop into strong, healthy children who know how to care for themselves, how to live together in an organized group similar to a good-sized, well-ordered family, how to share pleasures and shoulder responsibilities, and how to build normal, cheerful attitudes toward the environment. In stressing the principles of personal hygiene that are necessary for the well-being of these children, academic study and the elements of healthful living are integrated in a balanced education.

The types of children admitted to these rooms include those who are definitely undernourished and have a history of absence due to illness, those experiencing a retarded recovery from an operation or recent illness, those known to be tuberculosis-contact cases but who have no symptoms of the disease themselves, and those suffering from asthma, chorea, or minor nervous tendencies. To enter a fresh air room each child must undergo a complete physical examination before or immediately after school opens in the fall. A parent or someone else close to the child is requested to be present at this examination since recommendations for correction are made by the examining doctors. If parents are financially unable to pay for recommended medical attention or hospitalization, this is taken care of thru the city clinic. If a parent refuses to allow the necessary treatment, the child is not allowed to enter the special class. Every effort is made to secure the intelligent cooperation of the parents in order to carry out an effective program. A qualified nurse is appointed to visit the homes, obtain family histories, and learn what cooperation can be expected.

The children whose parents are financially able pay a small fee which helps to provide the necessary food. The board of health makes up any deficit in the cost of grocery supplies. Other school needs are taken care of thru the social service department of the school system. Each child is furnished with one woolen and one cotton blanket, a cot, an open-window coat, and an eye band to be used when resting to protect the eyes from the light. Since eye bands have been used the children respond much more quickly to rest and relaxation.

The air in the rooms is always fresh, the room temperature being held at about 68 degrees Fahrenheit. Each child soon learns that he is responsible for his own physical comfort. If he feels the need of more air, he may open a window; likewise, if he feels chilly, he may get his open-window coat or close a window.

Teachers for these rooms are selected from the regular licensed group in the Indianapolis public schools. The qualifications expected of these teachers are alertness, resourcefulness, a wholesome personal-

ity, willingness to work, cooperativeness, tact, and recognition of creative ability. The teacher must be patient and must have the ability to adjust herself to whatever situations arise. Emergencies often upset a well-ordered program in these special rooms.

PROGRAM OF ACTIVITY AND REST

Each child is weighed and measured in September and each month thereafter until June. Records showing losses and gains are kept. If a child is losing weight the cause is sought. Such cases must be checked for home cooperation and the rest program at school must be supplemented by a similar extra rest program at home. Many of these children are taken to the city clinic at regular intervals. The fresh air nurse looks after hospitalized cases and follows up each case after the child is returned home.

The number of children per teacher is limited to twenty-five, since it is necessary to have several grades in a room and all the essentials required by the regular school curriculum are part of the schedule. The program includes a mid-morning lunch and a substantial noon meal, preceded by a thirty-minute rest and followed by a fifty-minute period of relaxation. There is no physical training and no recess except to eat and sleep. As soon as a child arrives in the morning he takes up an unfinished task from the day before. The following is the daily program for the children in Grades II-B thru IV-A:

- 8:30- 9:40 Social studies¹
- 9:40-10:15 Morning lunch (hot soups or cereals)
- 10:15-11:20 Language arts
- 11:20-12:00 Supervised rest
- 12:00- 1:00 Supervised lunch period
- 1:00- 2:00 Supervised rest
- 2:00- 2:45 Formal arithmetic and arithmetic drill
- 2:45- 3:00 Reading or writing

SOME TYPICAL CASES

Case 1—Margaret had a heart affliction caused by rheumatic fever. She hated to stay at home in bed, taking the proper nourishment and following the doctor's orders, and she begged to be allowed to come to school. Finally, with the assurance that she could recline all day, doing all schoolwork in this position, she was permitted to enter the fresh air room. Without complaint she pursued all school activities from her reclining chair, morning and noon lunches being brought to her. She was happy and contented. Not being deprived of the companionship of other children, yet getting rest, relaxation, and

¹ Part of this period may be used for music or extra reading activities.



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extra nourishment, she gained twenty-two pounds in less than six months. In the early spring the family moved to the country and so a complete follow-up of the case was impossible. However, several years later she returned to visit the room which she had enjoyed so much. She was married and appeared to be well.

Case 2—David lacked coordination; in fact, his muscular control was so bad that after writing a word or two all further efforts were illegible. He was about ten years old when he was placed in the fresh air room. He was thin and undernourished, having been unable since early babyhood to take milk and other foods necessary to build bone and nerve structure. He had not been in the special class many months before he was taking cocoa and soups made with milk. In two years he was of normal weight, looked the picture of health, and showed much improvement in muscular control. He is now in high school and doing very well. He returns every year to visit the fresh air room. More grateful parents than his could not be found.

Case 3—Albert was a tuberculosis-contact case, very much underweight. He began his experience in the fresh air room with a rebellious spirit, for he did not like to lie down and there were many required foods which he refused to eat. An attitude of selfishness and a lack of home training were evident. When told that he was growing to be different from all the other children, he soon began eating everything without complaint. His room attitude became one of helpfulness. He had a constructive mind and soon proved to be a leader in the group. He gained in personality as well as in physical health. The half-hour rest before the noon meal, along with the mid-morning lunch, brought this boy to normal weight, ready to enter the junior high school in September with his physical handicap removed.

Case 4—Gene entered the fresh air room when in Grade II-A. He came from a large family and his food habits were very poor. He had tantrums when certain foods were served for morning lunch, but otherwise his disposition was rather sad and unresponsive. Now that he is in Grade IV-A he has good table habits and eats anything which may be served. He has developed a pleasing sense of humor, rests quietly on his cot during regular rest periods, and is doing good school-work.

Case 5—Norma was in Grade II-A when she entered the fresh air room. She was a very nervous, underweight child, doing average work for her grade. After she was fitted with glasses her nervousness disappeared and her work improved. Her general health is better and she cooperates in all the activities of the class.

Case 6—Barbara entered the class when in Grade II-B and is re-

peating the grade because of absence due to an attack of diabetes. She has a speech defect which is being given special attention and treatment once a week by a speech teacher. She would not talk when she first came, her muscular coordination was poor, and she could not write. This semester she talks a great deal and is able to write plainly. She reads fairly well and understands what she reads. Her scholastic improvement seems to be due to her gain in weight and her adherence to rigid rest procedures. She rests well, eats all foods served, and does fair schoolwork.

These and other cases indicate that, for the most part, children in the fresh air rooms are happy, improving in health, and progressing in their schoolwork. The rest and relaxation, plus the extra nourishment which they get each morning, have continued to produce satisfactory gains in weight. Figures kept for nineteen years show that when the rest period was increased from one hour to two hours per day the average gain in weight increased. The average gain per year during this entire period was 6.7 pounds, while the highest average gain in a single year was 15.5 pounds. It is generally believed that extra rest is of more value than extra food, since the children have shown greater physical improvement with the extended rest period.

FOR some years stress was laid upon fresh-air classes. They seemed to obtain certain advantages as compared with the unsatisfactory ventilation of the average schoolroom, where fresh air, properly conditioned, was not available in proper quantity or quality. . . . As air conditioning of classrooms has improved, less and less stress has been placed upon open-air projects for normal children. The issue, at present, is considered controversial. However, fresh-air classes continue to exist in certain urban communities in which they receive enthusiastic approval. In any case, the values of rest periods and superior classroom hygiene cannot be questioned.—Frampton, Merle E., and Rowell, Hugh G., *Education of the Handicapped—Vol. I.—History*, World Book Co., 1938, p. 152-53. (Quoted by permission of the publishers.)

SPECIAL CLASSES FOR CARDIOPATHIC CHILDREN

JOSEPH PHILLIPS

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FOR BOYS AND GIRLS who deviate so markedly from the average that regular class procedures are unsuitable for them, special facilities must be provided to permit equality of educational opportunity. However, a special educational program for atypical children should not brand them as different from their fellows or as recipients of special favors. Regardless of the type of program offered or the cost of providing it, if children are thereby enabled to develop their powers and capacities to the maximum, it is a normal type of education for them. In accordance with this philosophy the needs of cardiopathic children in a large section of Brooklyn are met by providing special classes in a regular building, Public School No. 205.

CLASSIFICATION OF CARDIOPATHIC CHILDREN

Children with heart disease are classified by the division of physically handicapped children in the New York City public schools as follows:

Type I (organic)—Includes pupils with organic heart disease who are able to perform without discomfort any physical activity ordinarily expected of a pupil with a normal heart. Ordinary physical activity should not cause undue fatigue, dyspnea, palpitation, or chest pain, nor should the pupil show physical signs of congestive heart failure or signs of active heart infection. These pupils attend regular classes.

Type II (organic)—Includes pupils with organic heart disease who are unable to perform ordinary physical activity without discomfort. They are subdivided into two groups, A and B. Group A includes those whose physical activity is slightly limited and in whom ordinary physical exertion causes undue distress. Pupils in this group rarely show physical signs of congestive heart failure or symptoms of active heart infection. However, they are assigned to classes of cardiopathic children.

Group B under this type includes those pupils whose physical activity is greatly limited. Less than ordinary physical activity causes fatigue, dyspnea, palpitation, or chest pain. Children in this group usually show one or more signs of congestive heart failure or symptoms of active heart infection. In general, they are not permitted to attend school.

Type III (organic)—Includes pupils with organic heart disease who have symptoms or signs of heart failure while at rest. They are unable to perform any physical activities without discomfort and they show marked symptoms of congestive heart failure or signs of active heart infection. Such pupils cannot attend school.

Type IV (nonorganic)—Includes pupils who show abnormal signs or symptoms referable to the heart (possible heart disease) but in whom the diagnosis of heart disease is uncertain. These pupils may attend regular classes or, depending upon the etiological diagnosis, may be assigned to open-air classes.

Type V (nonorganic)—Includes pupils without heart disease whom it is advisable to keep under observation due to the presence or history of an etiological factor which might predispose to heart disease. These pupils attend regular classes.

Special classes in the regular school building are provided for children with organic heart disease who cannot engage in ordinary physical activity but who do not show marked signs of congested heart failure or symptoms of active heart infection. Boys and girls who have symptoms or signs of heart failure are given home instruction. All other cardiopathic children are general school health problems but attend regular classes.

DISCOVERY OF CHILDREN WITH CARDIAC DISEASE

The New York state education law requires every child entering school for the first time to present a certificate of physical examination signed by a licensed physician. As an additional precaution, the school medical inspectors make regular routine physical examinations of all pupils thruout their elementary-school lives. Altho many children with heart disease are discovered thru these two methods, by far the largest number of cardiopathic cases are reported by parents.

When a cardiopathic case comes to the attention of the school, it becomes the duty of the principal to furnish the parents of such pupils with an official hospital and clinic card. This card is presented to the child's physician, who answers the various printed questions. These relate principally to the child's ability to indulge in physical exercise, to the presence of other physical defects, and to the state of nutrition. The physician is asked to give his opinion as to whether or not the child should be in a hospital or in a convalescent home, whether school attendance is advisable, and if so, whether a special class for cardiac cases is prescribed. Answers to these questions are based on the physician's appraisal of the pupil's condition in terms of the cardiac-type classification presented above.

The hospital and clinic record cards are sent directly to the assistant director of health education in charge of handicapped children. He in turn interprets and administers the doctor's recommendations. The school principal is then instructed in the procedure for the care of the pupil in school. He places a red-colored seal, indicative of heart disease, on the pupil's record card and enters the child's cardiac classification and date on the seal. One copy of this card is kept in the teacher's desk and another in the principal's office.

ORGANIZATION AND OPERATION OF CLASSES

The policy of the board of education of New York City has been to place cardiac children requiring a modified activity program in special classes in regular schools so that they may have, as far as possible, the same contacts as the normal child. In this way transition to regular

classes later can be accomplished constructively. The theory is that these contacts will help a physically handicapped child to take his place in the community in which he will live after leaving school.

Classrooms and equipment—The special classrooms for cardiopathic children are generally located on the ground floor near emergency exits and playgrounds. In Public School No. 205, since there are no rooms on the ground floor, the children are accommodated on the second floor. Corner rooms with southeast or southwest exposures have been selected to give cross ventilation and to provide maximum sunshine.

Each cardiac class is provided with twenty-five adjustable desk chairs which can be moved for group work or to provide space for the rest period; there are also twenty-five reclining rest chairs. Blankets are furnished to each of the children for use during the rest period. Also the following clinical equipment is found in each room: 3 clinical thermometers, 25 test tubes, 2 quarts of medicated alcohol, 2 pounds of absorbent cotton, 250 temperature charts, 1 test tube rack, 1 quart of green soap, and 1 box of tongue depressors.

Pupils and teachers—The cardiopathic classes are generally composed of children from several different grades and the enrolments are limited by law to a maximum of twenty-five pupils each.

These special classes are considered transitional groups. Children with weak and damaged hearts may here continue their education under special supervision and protection until they are able to perform the activities of regular classes. If their condition does not improve, they may be transferred to home instruction. In a similar manner, home-bound cardiopathic children may be transferred to these transitional classes when their physical condition improves instead of making an abrupt change to a regular class which might bring disastrous results.

The teachers of such physically handicapped children are selected thru competitive examinations. Special qualifications are required of them and they are paid higher salaries than regular grade teachers. Most of them have had wide experience in teaching regular classes in all grades and they are technically trained to supervise, guide, and instruct the special types of children to which they are assigned. These teachers not only should understand children but should have a special aptitude for this type of work in order to be successful in it. They need to be in excellent health, cheerful, sympathetic but firm, and resourceful to a very high degree.

Curriculum and daily schedule—In planning the courses of study for children in special classes, stress has been placed upon a thorough elementary education in the basic subjects studied by children in regu-

FIGURE I—TYPICAL DAILY PROGRAM FOR A SINGLE CLASS

Time	Group One (Grades I-A thru III-A)	Group Two (Grades III-B and IV-A)	Group Three (Grades IV-B and V-A)
9:00 - 9:10	Daily morning inspection and opening exercises		
9:10 - 9:25	Individual remedial instruction in arithmetic and reading		
9:25 - 9:45	Arithmetic - oral	Arithmetic - written, or study tables	Arithmetic - written, or study tables
9:45 - 10:05	Arithmetic - written	Arithmetic - oral	Study spelling or reading
10:05 - 10:25	Study spelling 1/	Study spelling or read- ing	Arithmetic - oral
10:25 - 10:35	Recess and quiet games		
10:35 - 11:05	Spelling 2/	Spelling 2/	Spelling 2/
11:05 - 11:25	Reading 2/ and memory work	Reading 3/ and memory work	Reading 3/ and memory work
11:25 - 11:35	Preparations for lunch		
11:35 - 12:20	Lunch		
12:20 - 12:30	Placement of rest chairs and distribution of blankets		
12:30 - 1:25 6/	Rest period		
1:25 - 1:35	Removal of rest chairs		
1:35 - 2:05 7/	English composition 3/	English composition	English composition
2:05 - 2:10	Game		
2:10 - 2:20	Reading - oral	Reading - silent	Study
2:20 - 2:30	Reading - silent, in workbooks (or coloring)	Reading - oral	Reading - silent, in workbooks
2:30 - 2:40 3/	Reading - silent	Study	Reading - oral
2:40 - 2:50	Preparations for departure		
3:00	Dismissal		

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Grades I-A thru II-A study workbooks in library.
Groups rotate oral and written work.
Includes reading games and work with health books.
History substituted on Monday and Tuesday.
Geography substituted on Wednesday and Thursday.
Slides, 1:15 - 2:00 on Thursday (entire class).
Health period, 2:00 - 2:30 on Thursday (entire class).
Sewing on Tuesday; puzzles or bead-stringing on Thursday.
Assembly, 2:30 - 3:00 on Thursday, and yard, 2:30 - 3:00 on Friday (entire class).
Time is also allowed for speech improvement Monday afternoon, handwork on Wednesday,
and library work on Friday.

lar classes. These courses of study permit transition from the special to the regular classes in an orderly and continuous manner without destructive breaks to retard the children. In the cardiac classes the curriculum must necessarily be modified and adapted to suit the needs of the individual child.

The daily program must be flexible, permitting frequent adjustments. Teachers are free to make changes in their plans and time schedules as the need arises. Usually class schedules must provide for children of different grade levels; not infrequently a teacher must plan simultaneous activities for three groups of children. A typical daily program for a single class is shown in Figure I.

A constructive and successful health program to aid in the rehabilitation of the children is in operation in all of the special classes. Thru the helpful cooperation of family physicians, specialists from children's heart clinics, and the nurses affiliated with the special classes, physical defects found upon examination of the children are corrected as far as possible and all foci of infection are removed in order to lessen the tendency to a recurrence of cardiac disability. Thru a program of health instruction under the supervision of the division of physically handicapped children, the children are taught not only to practice good health habits but also to understand the methods of maintaining their improved physical condition after they leave the special class.

Class procedures—As a method of instruction in the special class organization the contract system has proved to be most successful. Each Friday afternoon the following week's contracts for each grade, and for each subject in grades above the third, are posted on the class bulletin board.

Each day, upon completion of the opening exercises, salute to the flag, morning inspection, and pulse-taking, the child consults his contract in arithmetic. New work is denoted by a red star which means "see your teacher about this." If the class has been divided into groups according to ability or is composed of different grades, the child must wait the turn of his group or grade. If the teacher is occupied in helping another group, the child automatically studies his tables or some other subject. After the new work has been explained, the child proceeds with his arithmetic contract.

As a child studies his spelling he may ask a friend in the same grade to dictate words to him. In this way children test each other to see what words need further attention. The dictionary is frequently consulted for pronunciation and meaning, and words are used in original sentences.

A child of normal reading ability consults his contract for his work in reading. He is expected to read certain assigned pages, to consult a glossary for new words, to write answers to questions on what he has read, and to do parallel work in the reading workbook. Opportunity is also given to correlate reading with art work done with wood or on paper.

After lunch there is an hour's rest period when the child may sleep, recline, or do some light recreational reading. After this hour the pupil may read his assignment in history or geography, or the class as a unit will have a common composition lesson. Once a week all children visit the auditorium for an assembly program.

Thru this method of individualized instruction, the cardiopathic child

is enabled to progress at his own rate of speed. If he is forced to be absent frequently because of poor health, he does not "get behind" but merely begins again where his work was interrupted. A rapid learner has free time to spend on his own projects and supplementary work or to help his slower classmates.

Transportation to school—Cardiopathic children residing at great distances from the school must be brought to the special classes. Bus service is therefore provided by the New York City board of education for those children who live more than five blocks away. Transportation schedules are planned so that no child need spend more than thirty minutes on a bus. The conveyances are especially selected to insure the comfort and safety of these frail boys and girls.

CONCLUSION

Each cardiopathic child is receiving individual attention and care at Public School No. 205, Brooklyn. Subjectmatter, schedules, and administrative procedures are properly subordinated. The children in the special classes are happy because they live in a school atmosphere of sympathetic guidance. This environment serves to build personal satisfaction and self-confidence.

It is gratifying to note that, despite the unavoidable irregularity of their school attendance and the reduction of time allotted to school subjects because of the required daily rest period, the children in these special classes show as great progress on standardized achievement tests as do the boys and girls in regular classes. Of the cardiopathic children, those who have normal mentality usually make achievement scores equal to the grade standards and those with superior mentality make scores from six to twelve months above the norms for the grade.

In helping these handicapped children to become useful, happy, self-supporting citizens, the city of New York is turning her liabilities into definite assets and is contributing to equality of educational opportunity for all boys and girls.

A SCHOOL FOR CRIPPLED CHILDREN

JEANETTE RIKER

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IN VIEW OF THE FACT that even young people who are physically normal find it difficult to secure a place for themselves in the economic world today, the preparation of a crippled child for self-support and social adjustment has become a difficult problem. While it is true that most communities are interested in the welfare of their physically handicapped children, in many instances providing especially equipped schools for their training and treatment, it is also often true that these same communities prefer, as a rule, to employ only the physically fit to work in their offices and factories. This is a natural tendency in these days of speed and keen competition.

Consequently, in educating crippled children it is particularly necessary to begin a wise guidance program early. Such a program should be designed to discover and develop in the children latent talents on which they may capitalize in the future, to discourage the choice of occupations for which they cannot qualify as adults, and to inculcate in them a wholesome attitude toward their handicaps.

In special schools the educational program is not infrequently hampered by overemphasis of those features that relate to the child's physical development. If therapeutic treatments are allowed to have precedence over all other activities, the child is quite apt to underestimate the academic side of school life and to feel that the school exists chiefly as a convalescent institution with the learning of the three R's only an incidental part of its regime.

The maintenance of a proper balance between the physical and intellectual phases of the school, the adherence to reasonable academic standards, and the development of those social abilities which make for well-rounded personalities present administrative problems that are not easily solved. Only constant vigilance on the part of the school principal and his entire staff can prevent the whole educational plan from being unwittingly sidetracked in favor of the physical therapy provided by the school.

General character of the school—At the James E. Roberts School in Indianapolis, that clause in the Indiana state law which allots state funds for the education of the crippled child has been accepted literally. An attempt is being made to meet, as nearly as possible, the academic requirements established for the regular elementary and junior high-school groups and to set up as normal a school situation as time and existing conditions will permit. Established in 1925 as a one-teacher

unit of twenty children, the Roberts School grew steadily until 1935 when a modern, thoroly equipped special school was built to accommodate 225 children. The present enrolment is approximately 200 and the staff consists of a principal and nine teachers, four physiotherapists, one occupational therapist, a dietitian, a nurse, three matrons, one male attendant, and two cooks.

The school accepts for enrolment infantile paralysis and cerebral palsy cases, inorganic heart and orthopedic tuberculosis cases, and children with congenital deformities or deformities resulting from accident, malnutrition, or illness. Referrals for admission come thru school or private doctors, hospitals, school nurses, principals, teachers, and school patrons. The school nurse visits the home of each child so referred and the physician's recommendations are secured before the child is enrolled in the school. When doubt exists as to the ability of a child to profit from an educational program, a psychological test is given by the school psychologist. When there is no conclusive evidence of low mentality, the child is enrolled for a trial period.

Transportation and lunches—According to the provisions of the state law, school corporations are permitted to establish special classes for physically handicapped children who "cannot be taught advantageously in the regular classes" and to provide both free transportation and lunches for the children in these classes. The law further provides that:

Any school corporation which establishes, organizes, and maintains special classes as provided for in this act shall be entitled to be reimbursed by the state in an amount equal to three-fourths of the cost of instruction in such special classes in excess of the cost of instruction of the same number of children in the regular classes of the schools of such corporation, based upon the average daily attendance.¹

As a result of this law, free taxi transportation is provided for all children attending the Roberts School and free lunches are furnished to those unable to pay for them. Recommendations for free lunches are made after an investigation by a home visitor from the social service department of the public schools. Care is taken to keep lunch fees from being a financial burden for any family but it is felt that parents should assume as much of this responsibility as their circumstances will permit. The actual cost of lunches is the maximum amount charged any child, regardless of the financial status of his family.

Children are served a mid-morning or a mid-afternoon milk lunch and a substantial, well-balanced noon meal planned and supervised by the school dietitian. As a part of her service, the dietitian confers

¹ Baldwin, William E., and others, editors. *Indiana Statutes, Annotated, 1934*. Cleveland, Ohio: Banks-Baldwin Law Publishing Co. (3730 Euclid Ave.), 1934. Chapter 34, Article 6, Section 6081.

with the parents of children who for some reason have developed an aversion to certain wholesome foods. The psychological effect of permitting children to make a choice between two foods of equal value has been noticeable. Many children who refuse to eat certain dishes when no choice is given, voluntarily choose those same dishes when allowed to make their own decisions.

Plan of time distribution—To minimize interruptions in classroom routine and to provide periods when teachers may have their entire groups of pupils together at one time, Roberts School has established time blocks of approximately an hour and a half each, during any one of which physical and occupational therapy may be scheduled only for children from rooms assigned to that period. Teachers have expressed their complete satisfaction with this plan of procedure, which has proved advantageous in the following ways:

1. Those subjects that can best be presented to the whole group in an unbroken sequence can be definitely programmed.
2. A more efficient use of time is possible since much repetition of material is not necessary.
3. Individual remedial work can be arranged during those periods when a part of the group is absent for treatment.
4. Program planning is much simplified because important subjects need not be juggled from one period to another in order to include all children at least a part of the time.
5. A keener interest in group projects in social studies and language arts comes from having all children present at the time the planning takes place.
6. Work habits show a decided improvement since the children are not continually disturbed by the coming and going of their classmates.
7. A closer check-up of group and individual accomplishment is possible, and children who may be inclined to offer a slipshod piece of work are denied the usual alibi for a poorly prepared assignment.

There is no doubt that this system of time distribution has facilitated a smoother and more effective functioning of room activities without interfering with any other phase of the school program. Adjustments have been necessary on the part of both teachers and therapists, and the success of the program has been due largely to the cooperative spirit displayed by all concerned.

Remedial work in basic skills—Children whose physical handicaps have caused frequent absences from school often need remedial work, particularly remedial reading. It is not always possible, however, for the regular class teacher to devote as much time to retarded individuals as the severity of their reading disabilities would require. Thus, some special arrangements have been made.

Limited transportation facilities make it necessary for the children to be taken to and from school in two groups. This means that no teacher has her entire class present during the first period in the

morning or the last period in the afternoon. These two periods are given over to individual or small group drill work and every child who needs special help is cared for to some extent at these times. Further individual instruction is given by several of the regular teachers when they are relieved of classroom responsibilities by Scout leaders or special shop, home economics, and art teachers.

Speech improvement drills are included in the daily word-study lessons in Grades III thru VI. The speech of many children is vastly improved by this daily practice, and both interest and pride in individual accomplishment are developed. There are, however, children whose speech defects are too marked to profit by remedial help in the regular classroom. Working under the guidance of the speech correctionist, several teachers have assumed responsibility for specific corrective treatment of some of these cases. Periodic recordings of the speech of these children are made to indicate difficulties and show progress. These records are valuable both to the teachers and to the children who have made them.

Use of public address system—A public address system given to the school by an Indianapolis citizen has opened many avenues for training and appreciation. Actual pupil broadcasts from one school group to another have proved invaluable in developing poise, clear enunciation, and ability in self-expression and reading before an audience. The director of radio in the city schools has given generously of her time in order to instruct the children in the technics of broadcasting, the writing of radio scripts, and the appraisal of their own performances or those of their classmates. It has been possible to have recordings made of some of the programs, and critical studies of these recordings are sometimes made in the English classes. In such studies both the good and weak points of a program can be emphasized and subsequent broadcasts can thus be greatly improved.

All classrooms are granted opportunities to give radio performances for the rest of the school. Even the very timid children are anxious to try out their talents on an invisible audience. These programs have furnished an incentive for some excellent original efforts in poetry, music, social studies, and safety education. In fact, practically every phase of school life has been incorporated in some way in these weekly appearances before the microphone.

Out-of-school activities—Because physically handicapped children are frequently denied participation in the out-of-school activities of the normal child, there is a place in the school program for some of these activities in modified form. Both the Girl and Boy Scouts have school troops. The children's eager response to the opportunities these

organizations offer and the apparent carry-over of the principles they advocate are convincing proof of their worth as service clubs, socializing agencies, and promoters of healthful mental attitudes. A local department store and the Red Cross have cooperated with the Scout leaders by sending trained persons to give the Scouts instruction in home nursing, child care, and life saving. Last summer an enthusiastic group of girls spent a period at the Girl Scout camp. They took an active part in the general camp life and, even tho they had to substitute certain quiet activities for the more active sports, they had a rollicking good time with girls who were physically normal. The mental hygiene value of such an experience cannot be over-estimated.

Additional educational opportunities available to the girls and boys at the Roberts School include excursions to the Children's Museum, to the Art Institute, and to downtown stores to see special exhibits; weekly visits of a city librarian who provides the children with books for home reading; and a school orchestra in which members and parents alike are very much interested.

Articulation with the high school—Unfortunately (or perhaps fortunately, since in time the crippled child must take his place on an equal footing with the normal child) this school makes no provision for the education of its pupils beyond the eighth grade. The children must transfer from a school that provides every facility for their comfort and convenience to large high schools which are planned for the physically normal. Ordinarily, a transition from elementary school to high school presents some problems even for those with no handicaps. Realizing the possible difficulties incident to a change as drastic as this one, an attempt has been made to bridge the gap between the sheltered environment of the special school and the new environment in which all children must make their own way.

The first efforts are concerned with the children themselves. Group discussions, personal conferences followed by conducted tours of the high schools, and careful guidance in the selection of their high-school studies help to prepare these boys and girls for their new environment. Intelligence, achievement, and personality test records are sent on to the high school together with any information that will help the high-school counselor to have a better understanding of the children's abilities and needs. Special consideration is not requested for these boys and girls in the high school because it is felt that they need to develop independence and an ability to meet and solve their own problems. The staff of Roberts School, however, does try to make the adjustment to high school as easy as possible, and in most instances the graduates

have been able to adapt themselves to their new environment very successfully.

Conclusion—Aside from the fact that there are some irregularities in daily programs to allow for physical care, there is little that differentiates the Roberts School academically from any of our city schools. We use the courses of study of the regular groups and our extracurriculum activities are much the same as theirs, physical limitations being the only reason for any curtailment. Parents have expressed surprise as well as gratification at the rapid progress made by their children when they are placed in a school environment where their physical disabilities are accepted in a matter-of-fact manner and their learning opportunities and abilities emphasized. Maintaining academic standards that approximate those of the regular schools, we believe, helps to create a feeling in our children of the importance of school achievement as preparation for a rich experience in later years.

THE education of the crippled child is not philanthropy—it is enlightened self-interest.

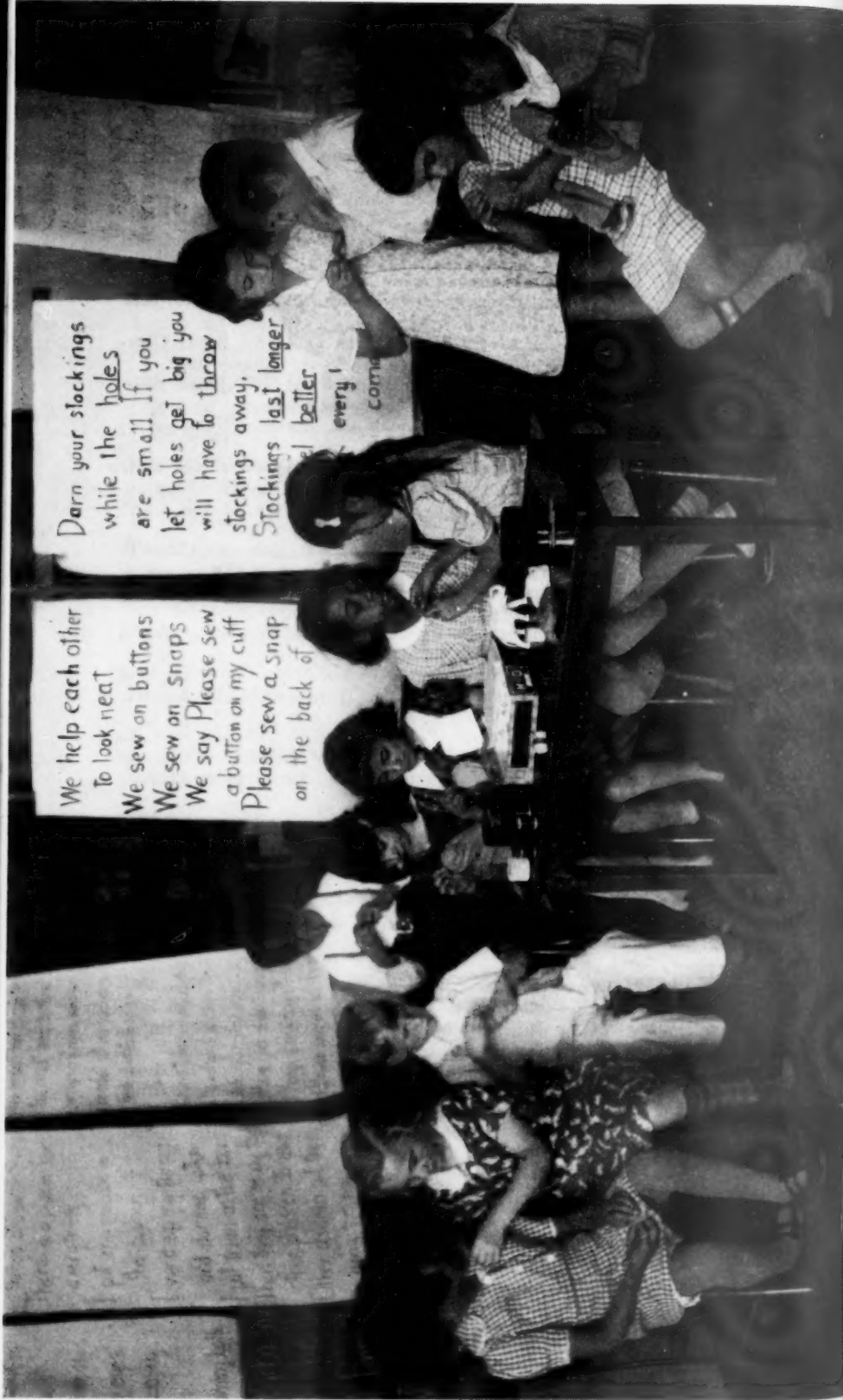
This statement made more than thirty years ago by an English barrister, during a campaign to arouse interest in the education of crippled children, expresses the spirit of the movement in behalf of these children which has swept this country during the last ten years. Slowly but surely, the responsibility for their care and training is being shifted from the shoulders of clinics, hospitals, convalescent homes, and private schools, philanthropically supported, to agencies maintained at public expense. The most effective of these, experience has shown, are special schools and classes for crippled children organized within local public school systems.—White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, *Special Education—The Handicapped and The Gifted*, Century Co., 1931, p. 19. (Quoted by permission of the publishers.)

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We help each other
To look neat
We sew on buttons
We sew on snaps
We say Please sew
a button on my cuff
Please sew a snap
on the back of

Darn your stockings
while the holes
are small! If you
let holes get big you
will have to throw
stockings away.
Stockings last longer
if you mend them
better every
time you come



CHAPTER VIII

PROVIDING FOR CHILDREN WITH CULTURAL AND ECONOMIC HANDICAPS

EDITORIAL COMMENT

MENTAL and physical disabilities are not the only handicaps which children may bring to school. Economic, cultural, and social limitations also create problems of pupil adjustment. Children who lack adequate food, clothing, or shelter, whose parents are poorly educated and indifferent or antagonistic to the school, or whose close associates habitually ignore generally approved standards of conduct—these need special attention no less than do pupils who are mentally slow or physically deficient. Unless such environmental conditions can be improved or counteracted, they may seriously impair the child's schoolwork, his health, and his behavior.

From the standpoint of mental health, cultural and economic handicaps are most likely to be detrimental when the child's own status contrasts sharply with the standards of a group in which he is placed. The effect of such a contrast depends, however, on the attitudes of other people toward the child and on the child's interpretation of the total situation. One handicapped pupil may be accepted by his more fortunate fellows while another child of similar status is ridiculed or ostracized by the group. Likewise, one child may be stimulated to succeed in spite of his handicaps while another becomes discouraged or disgruntled and rebellious. The school should try to discover the reasons for such differences and then adjust its program accordingly.

Often the school can do something to improve the child's out-of-school environment. In addition, the child needs sympathetic understanding, encouragement, and wise guidance in school. If necessary, he should be provided with extra food and suitable clothing. Curriculum adjustments should help to compensate for his lack of cultural advantages at home. If the entire school community is underprivileged, the program for all children should take account of their common handicaps.

This chapter reviews the problems of underprivileged children and shows how certain schools have attacked such problems. Baker analyzes the needs of these children from the psychologist's point of view. Sweet describes school health activities in an underprivileged area. Rosenson outlines a broad program for underprivileged children whose physical and mental health has been seriously affected. Learned tells how his school attempts to meet the needs of transient pupils.

The interested reader will wish to examine also the publications listed on page 557.—*Editorial Committee.*

THE PROBLEMS OF SOCIALLY AND ECONOMICALLY UNDERPRIVILEGED CHILDREN

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SOCIALLY AND ECONOMICALLY UNDERPRIVILEGED CHILDREN do not constitute a group which needs special segregation for instructional purposes. They may exist as occasional individual cases among children who are more favored, or they may constitute entire groups or classes in certain sections of cities or other areas. In either case they merit special study and consideration.

In considering the problems of underprivileged children there is usually less need for emphasis upon adjustments of curriculum and teaching materials than for understanding their social and psychological problems. Therefore, this discussion is aimed toward the characteristics and needs of the child rather than toward the curriculum.

Our first point of interest is the individual case found among children who seem to be more favored in material and personal ways. In practically every classroom there are one or more children who do not and cannot measure up to the economic standard of the immediate area. In the average neighborhood there are always a few who "live over by the railroad track." Even in very well-to-do districts there are a few who meet only an average or moderate standard. All these children are economically and socially underprivileged in comparison to the group with which they are associated. This idea may serve as a convenient steppingstone for a general understanding of the entire problem. Being underprivileged is a relative matter whose effects upon children may be profound at all economic and social levels.

Acceptance or rejection of the individual pupil by his class because of these handicaps seems almost unpredictable. At one extreme is the malicious and cruel practice of children in making complete outcasts of such unfortunates. The teacher often finds it practically impossible to bring about favorable changes, and sometimes the rejection is practiced in such subtle forms that only the pupils know about it. At the other extreme are cases in which children of equally poor social backgrounds are accepted wholeheartedly by the group. In such cases the teacher and the school administration have a much less difficult problem, and one of their chief concerns is to determine what factors have operated to bring about such a happy situation.

The writer recalls what now appears to have been a pathetic case—that of a brother and sister in the small country high school which he attended, whose family was completely ostracized. None of the high-

school pupils would ever discuss the matter. The reason was not clear; possibly there was no good reason. However, the ostracism had become a tradition and no one dared to break it. Even tho the school teachers may have known about it, it is doubtful if they could have brought about any change. In fact, offers of substantial sums of money would scarcely have affected the pupils' attitude. Many similar cases could probably be found. Social stigma is a realm comparatively not understood and the ways of overcoming it are not well developed.

Evidences and results of economic handicaps—Fortunately, the cases of many underprivileged children are less difficult to understand than the one just mentioned. For example, clothing below standard in quality and condition is a tangible evidence of economic handicap. Other children quickly notice such evidence and begin to form their opinions accordingly. Unless the underprivileged child shows some social characteristics which compensate for his deficiency he loses ground and never establishes himself with the group. In this respect dirty and torn clothes are quite different from clean and repaired clothes even if both are of low quality. Proper care of clothing indicates a determination to make the best of a bad situation, whereas a lack of such care suggests the opposite. Frequent drives to get clothes for underprivileged children tend to improve these conditions. In such drives the practice of exchanging the collected clothing with another school building before distribution may help to prevent embarrassment on the part of the recipients.

Getting parents and children to accept gifts of clothing requires tact. Privacy and the absence of a patronizing air are the first rules of procedure. When the giving is most successful the teacher or principal is held in esteem for doing it as a personal service rather than as an indefinite and impersonal service which a school or social agency might otherwise seem to render. The writer has heard many parents pay high tribute to individual teachers and principals in this connection.

A curious yet common type of economic handicap is found at all economic levels when younger children must always wear only the "hand-downs" from older brothers and sisters. Altho the quality and condition of these clothes may be good, the effect of such charity is often very unpleasant. The insult is increased manyfold when jealousies and rivalries have already existed between older and younger children. Teachers and principals with good foundations in mental hygiene often perform invaluable services to children in tactfully interpreting these effects to parents. The amount of money saved by the hand-down procedure is probably outweighed many times by the unfavorable social and psychological effects on the children.

A second obvious handicap to economically underprivileged children is a lack of sufficient clothing for very cold days and of umbrellas or raincoats for stormy days. When such a child must sit at home and watch his fellow pupils come and go as usual, the psychological effect of his economic handicap cannot be overestimated. Any situation, no matter how trivial, which prevents children from "belonging" or doing what the group does leads to poor mental attitudes, discouragement, feelings of inferiority, and a host of related troubles.

Children of this general status are likely to be kept at home more often than others to help take care of younger brothers and sisters and to help with housework when parents are ill. While these practices are not usually carried to such extremes as to cause court action, they constitute a potential hazard to promotion or effective scholarship. Many such children may easily miss a total of one year's school time in a period of six or eight years. Altho some who are less favored mentally may be required to repeat a semester or term in the upper grades, this repetition does not make full amends for units or lessons missed in the first or second grades. Only the most gifted pupils are able to withstand chronic poor attendance, and even they can do much better scholastically and otherwise if their attendance is more regular.

Among the less extreme results of poor economic status is lowered vitality from inadequate and unsuitable food. In some school systems the children with such deficiencies are placed in special classes as a health measure. Their home diets are supplemented by school lunches, and rest periods are provided as an additional safeguard against over-exertion. In small schools where the provision of special rooms for groups of such children is impracticable, principals and teachers should find ways of caring for them individually. Altho deficiencies and difficulties due to faulty diet are spread rather thinly over a large number of children so that they do not constitute a spectacular problem, the effects of all these minor deficiencies in terms of pupil inefficiency, discouragement, and failure would, if added together, make an appalling total.

Social handicaps—There are some children whose handicaps are primarily social rather than economic, altho many children have both types of handicaps. The psychological problems are essentially the same for both types.

In the field of social handicaps poor personality, poor personal looks, bodily abnormalities, slow motor reactions, unusual emotional reactions of fear, anger, and excitement, selfishness, poor sportsmanship, general untidiness of dress and person, and similar characteristics cause many difficulties. To this list may be added the occasional haughtiness and

silly importance of the newly rich, the too immaculate dress of over-protected children, the defense reactions of children whose parents are outcasts in the neighborhood or whose fathers are in jail, and similar evidences of nonconformity. While many of these traits are personal or individual they all have important social consequences.

Problems of the individual pupil—In the preceding paragraphs the predicaments of pupils suffering from social and economic handicaps have been discussed in a general way. These problems will now be considered from the point of view of the individual child—his behavior and attitudes. Naturally all handicapped children are not affected in the same way and for convenience three types will be sketched.

The first type of child is the one who surmounts all obstacles and is highly successful in school and social adjustment. The odds against him are a challenge and he rises to meet them. He may develop even greater strength of character and purpose than others who are more favored. We marvel at him often without really knowing upon what factors his success is based. A small proportion of the children who are socially or economically handicapped achieve this happy ending.

The second type of child is probably the most common. He accepts his undesirable conditions in a more or less resigned manner and in the main he tends to drift with the tide. Discouragement and feelings of inferiority often hold the balance of power so that he is inclined to be cowed and defeated. The therapeutic practices of psychology and mental hygiene could swing many of these doubtful cases to the favorable side of the scales if such practices were more widely known and practiced by school staffs under the guidance and direction of competent specialists.

The third type of handicapped child makes the poorest adjustment. His case is often known as the worst behavior problem in school. He reacts to rejection and to lack of social approval by rebellion. He must have some recognition, which is a universal need of all children. If he cannot get it by acceptable behavior he resorts to unacceptable forms of conduct. Lying is to him an obvious way of presenting himself as better than he is, and it seems useful in tearing down and bringing to his level others who seem to be more favored. Imaginative lying in which he was the best dressed person at some distant party or the victor in some physical combat is a natural temptation. Stealing also serves similar ends by taking something away from the more favored children and giving him temporary benefits which he could not ordinarily have. Stolen money is often used to treat others to candy, ice cream, and the movies so as to buy acceptance and goodwill. Truancy from home and from school needs no more explanation than running

away from unpleasant realities. Jealousy, cruelty to smaller children and to animals, setting fires, and similar deeds are part of the same general picture. Many of these outlets apparently arise from subconscious and unrecognized drives, which do not yield to punishment but to understanding.

It is exceedingly difficult for many teachers and school administrators to accept the principle that these outbursts should be dealt with not in terms of discipline and bad behavior, but in terms of deep-seated urges and drives which the child himself does not understand. Long and patient analysis and understanding together with sound measures for rehabilitation form the more difficult but effective way. Methods of study and treatment are considered in detail in the next chapter of this yearbook.

Group problems—In addition to the problems of the individual child, there are problems when entire groups or classes are distinguished by social and economic handicaps. Certain entire sections of large cities as well as rural communities and small cities are sometimes characterized in this manner. While the whole group may have a vague and indefinite feeling of inferiority and inadequacy, the same phenomenon of individual comparison observed elsewhere works to bring discomfort to the least favored among the group. At this point, however, we are interested in the group aspects of the problem.

An unsatisfactory level or standard of general culture, schooling, and neighborhood citizenship is apparent. The school is often the only agency which reaches and affects all the people and their children. Under favorable conditions it sets a standard of good living, cleanliness, orderliness, and general culture which promotes better conditions in the homes and the community. By contrast, schools in the more fortunate areas usually have difficulty in competing with individual homes in these matters, particularly in furnishings and in experience materials for children. In the less favored areas the school has a much better chance to exercise leadership.

More specifically, such material aids as free or partly free lunches, clothing, shoes, and more liberal allowances of textbooks and auxiliary supplies comprise a part of the school's possible contribution to such children. All of these matters must be handled in such a diplomatic manner that there is no feeling of patronage. This end may be accomplished by developing the concept that the school will furnish the material things if the children will develop and furnish good habits of school and community citizenship. Emphasis upon the contributions of the children will minimize attention to the material contributions of the school. At best the task is not an easy one.

General school adjustments—Since the problem of handling socially and economically underprivileged children is not usually one of special segregation, it concerns all teachers and school administrators. A more thoro and workable knowledge of child psychology and the application of the principles of mental hygiene are the most important needs from the standpoint of professional training and preparation. A sympathetic understanding of, and personal interest in, these problem children are essential if the children are to be rehabilitated. Obviously, these qualities are desirable also for any teacher who is so fortunate as to have no problem children.

In matters of curriculum adjustments, materials, and teaching methods the most important principle is that these factors must be governed in such a manner that the children in question may get a taste of success and approval in place of rejection, discouragement, and failure. The application of this principle has many ramifications. There should be two sources of help in making such adjustments: (1) some type of special bulletin or handbook of suggestions for teachers, and (2) the individual resourcefulness of the teacher herself.

The problem of school-home relationships is a much wider question than can be adequately considered in connection with this group of children alone. It involves a whole new and promising movement which has undoubtedly been stimulated by individual maladjustments and their solutions. This movement will be successful if it achieves the goals of replacing disciplinary measures by genuine understanding of children's problems, of bringing the school and the home to a common ground of helpful and mutual understanding rather than distrust and hostility, and of making the child rather than the curriculum the central concern of education.

Conclusion—Altho socially and economically underprivileged children do not constitute a class or group in need of special segregation, they merit individual study and rehabilitation equally as much as the blind, the deaf, or the crippled. The problem concerns every teacher and every school. This discussion has attempted to sketch the most important features of the problem with the hope that when the principles are understood, correct solutions will be applied thru the originality and resourcefulness of the teaching profession.

HEALTH ACTIVITIES FOR UNDERPRIVILEGED CHILDREN

MAYME SWEET

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HEALTH IS BASIC to the good life and must be emphasized in any school program. The baffling problem in health education is how to make it real to children. Much of the teaching has been lip service to a few ideals. Emphasis on outward appearances has frequently led to a superficial regard for sound health practices. "Haven't you a handkerchief?" queried a teacher of one child who had a bad case of sniffles. "Oh, yes, but I'm saving it for health inspection," the child responded. How can such absurdities be avoided? While there is a close cause-and-effect relationship between the health habits and physical condition of children, physical breakdowns which are the result of poor health habits do not usually come until later years, when the man or woman is forty or thereabouts. How can such a remote end be made of immediate concern to children so that their interest and cooperation may be enlisted?

The problem of guiding children in the establishment of good health habits is exaggerated in an underprivileged community where parental encouragement and resources are limited. It is true that the school cannot do the whole job but the principal and teachers should ask themselves these questions: Are we doing all we can? Are the commonly accepted limitations real? Some of the health activities carried on in a school of socially and economically underprivileged children are described in the following pages.

THE HEALTH EXAMINATION

A health program fittingly begins with a health examination in order to give the program direction. Enough cannot be said about the importance of this initial step. In the first place, the principal, teachers, children, and parents must be prepared for it and must be led to see its significance. It should not be regarded as an interruption of school routine but rather as an opportunity for effective school service. In the elementary school, and particularly in the school located in an area where this is the *only* health examination a child receives, one parent should be present. The examination is of little value from the standpoint of fixing responsibility for treatment and improvement unless a parent *is* there. So important is this matter in our school that only 5 percent of the children have been examined without the presence of their parents. Mothers frequently give the excuse of a "sick baby,"

daily washings, or "can't speak English," but these can all be overcome by sympathetic understanding and by arrangement of the examination schedule to meet the individual parent's convenience. To have the school nurse relay the doctor's findings to the home is no adequate substitute for a parent's firsthand observation. The nurse's time is better spent in following up the doctor's recommendations—in securing glasses, arranging for tonsillectomies, caring for dental defects, or advising with parents on rest and diet, as the case may be. Teachers also should be present at examinations as far as possible—at least at the examinations of those children who have apparent health problems.

Some school examinations have unfortunately been perfunctory and not as thoro as they should be. Not only should the heart, lungs, ears, eyes, nose, teeth, feet, and state of nutrition be examined, but also tests for venereal disease and tuberculosis should be given and toxins for smallpox, diphtheria, and the like should be administered when advisable.

The doctor's attitude is of utmost importance. It is essential that he be sympathetic with the problems of the people with whom he is working. Would that all doctors might be students of psychology! They should recognize that only as the need for and the plan of treatment are made clear can we hope to have cooperation among parent, child, and teacher. A doctor's explanation of his recommendations takes time but it is not costly for it brings the desired results.

A CLASS PROJECT STRESSING ADEQUATE FOOD AND REST

The health examination in the first-grade room of our school revealed malnutrition, weak hearts, infected tonsils, persistent colds, headaches, and dental caries. The teacher¹ proceeded to use the health reports as a basis for classroom discussion. She believed that the children would enjoy setting up helpful ways to take good care of their bodies if the health problems were meaningfully presented. The following questions were among those which arose as a result of the examination and were used to guide discussion: "What is nutrition?" "I have 'fair' nutrition; does that mean 'good'?" "What makes us grow?" "Why do teeth decay?" "What makes headaches and stomachaches?" "Why do we need rest, play, and sunshine?" These questions led directly to plans for improving the children's general health. The plans were that all the children should (1) eat the lunch served daily by the WPA; (2) eat different vegetables and fruits regularly at ten o'clock in the morning; (3) rest twenty minutes before lunch and go to bed at night at eight o'clock; and (4) play in the sunshine twenty minutes during the

¹ Katherine Allgire, first-grade teacher, Twenty-Fourth Street School, Denver, Colorado.

day and before and after school. A chart showing the respective heights and weights of all members of the class was made for use in checking monthly improvement.

The children were enthusiastic about the plans but soon discovered that they could not carry these plans out by themselves. They needed the cooperation of their parents, and so the following list was made of the ways mothers could assist:

1. Help children prepare their fruits and vegetables every morning
2. Wash glasses, plates, and cups every day
3. Help children earn money for milk
4. Help children earn money for vegetables and fruit
5. Serve at home the fruits and vegetables children eat at school
6. Make sleeping mats
7. Check children's sleep charts accurately.

Contributions of parents—Letters were written to parents inviting them to come to school for a conference. The response was gratifying. Nineteen mothers, four of whom could not even speak English, came to participate. The children seemed to feel a responsibility for seeing that their mothers understood the seven ways in which their help was needed. Each child showed his record on the height and weight chart and thus demonstrated his own individual need for working to develop better health habits. The mothers, after hearing the plans, agreed to do all they could to help.

After discussing the importance of rest, the mothers agreed that their first worthwhile contribution would be to make the sleeping mats. Those mothers who were unable to come to the school were given materials to make the mats at home. It was each child's responsibility to instruct his mother how to make his mat. Six layers of newspaper were placed inside a heavy wrapping-paper cover, which was folded over on all sides and sewed with string or yarn. To make hanging possible each mat had a handle of cloth sewed on each end. All the mats were neatly made. Some had fancy stitching around them; others were bordered with colorful material to make them stronger as well as more attractive. Some mothers stitched their mats on a machine.

Also the mothers volunteered to help with the food servings. Committees of three were formed for each day of the week. They came to school at nine o'clock to prepare the fruits and vegetables and then remained to wash the dishes that were used. They all seemed interested and eager to do the things they realized were helping their children. Frequently they would stay and watch class activities during the rest of the day.

Obtaining fruits and vegetables—Buying seasonal fruits and vegetables every day was the most expensive part of the experiment. How-

ever, this expense did not exceed three dollars per week and often it was less than that, depending on the kinds of food served. Dried fruits such as prunes, raisins, and peaches were the cheapest; dried apricots cost more. Carrots were not as expensive as cabbage, spinach, or lettuce. Apples and oranges were served only when they were cheap. Market prices were watched each week so that the more expensive foods could be bought when the market price was favorable. The children saved their pennies and contributed almost \$5 to the cost of food during the semester. It was suggested that each child bring a penny a week but if he didn't he still received the same food as those children who made a contribution.

Lunch and rest periods—The children looked forward to the ten o'clock period when they ate the fruits and vegetables, some of which they had neither seen nor tasted before. No point was made of the vitamin content but the fact that each food helped build their bodies in certain ways was stressed. Time was spent in learning how to chew food properly. Conversation was encouraged and the children frequently told how their mothers had prepared food at home according to recipes used at school. The practice of washing hands before eating was emphasized daily and encouraged as a regular habit. Scrub brushes and plenty of soap were always available in the "keep clean" corner. Toothpicks were used as finger-nail cleaners.

There was a definite need for a rest period after the morning session and several children consistently went sound asleep. All the class looked forward to that quiet twenty minutes every day when the tables and chairs were pushed against the walls, mats were placed on the floor, window shades were drawn, and all activities were suspended. Everyone rested in the way most comfortable to him, but care was taken to keep children from lying too close to each other.

The sleeping charts brought from home showed that the children did not get enough hours of restful sleep. Many children had to sleep with other members of the family. Some families had only one room and a child going to bed at seven o'clock got very little rest amid family confusion. The sleeping charts did influence some children to get to bed earlier, however, and the result of this added sleep was noticed at school.

Results of the project—The health experiences were recorded from day to day and this became an interesting activity. Many new words were added to the child's vocabulary as the months passed. The children enjoyed reading the various charts to one another, and some phase of health education permeated the whole program during the semester. Anemic and malnourished children showed evidences of better health;

only one skin infection in the entire room persisted. Altho no marked changes in weight and growth could be noted in so short a time, there was a distinct improvement not only in physical appearance but also in attitude. The children seemed much more alert. The doctor's statement was gratifying and the assistant director of the health service for the Denver public schools was high in her praise of the project. The outstanding feature of the experiment was the great interest shown by parents in the health examinations and in the discussion of health habits. They seemed eager to have their children's defects corrected as soon as possible and the children were thereby stimulated to cooperate in all the classroom experiences. One little boy who had suffered from St. Vitus dance and whose tonsils had been removed on recommendation of the school doctor was so proud of his improvement in health that all trace of nervousness left him. He volunteered, "I like to eat vegetables and fruit now. I like to rest, too."

ACTIVITIES STRESSING PERSONAL CLEANLINESS

The emphasis in other activities was on personal cleanliness. Cleanliness is very much dependent on the facilities at hand. Automatic hot water heaters and electric washing machines make possible a degree of cleanliness far greater than that usually attained where the laundry tub is still in use and the water is heated on the back of the stove, especially if fuel for the stove must be picked up on the railroad tracks. However, if a home cannot guarantee the minimum degree of cleanliness essential to good health, necessary facilities should be offered by the school or community.

Bathing—Because many of our children apparently did not have satisfactory bathing habits a shower program was inaugurated at school. A letter describing this service was sent to parents urging their cooperation as a matter of public health. Most parents were glad to have their children make use of the facilities offered, but where there was resistance and embarrassment much skill and tact had to be exercised. Fear that their children would take cold was the chief objection, but gradually the plan was accepted. Each child in Grades IV, V, and VI was made chairman of a committee and was assigned four or five children in the lower grades to help in the shower. These upper-grade children were also expected to take a shower themselves. Each committee had a fifteen-minute period and a regular schedule was worked out.

The teachers discussed ways and means of taking a "good" shower, and the examining pediatrician cooperated by giving specific directions to the boys. He called attention to the dirtiest parts of bodies—elbows,

knees, and heels. Brushes were provided and the children learned to scrub vigorously these particular spots. As the weather grew warmer and short socks and short sleeves were being worn, the girls became especially sensitive to clean elbows and knees. All had formed the habit of cleaning fingernails daily with toothpicks and so it was not hard to get them to clean their toenails after showers. The program was carried on by the children alone with only occasional supervision until an NYA youth was assigned to the building as a general supervisor of this activity. The school paid for the soap and the laundering of the towels.

Care of clothing—One teacher,² sensitive to the needs of the children as revealed thru the shower program, carried on with further activities pertaining to the neatness and cleanliness of her pupils. The families from which the boys and girls came were large, sometimes with more than eight persons, and they lived in two to four housekeeping rooms or in poorly-equipped cottages. They frequently knew little of certain standards of decent living. The children's clothing was provided by social agencies and little attention was given to the care of it. Crowded conditions and lack of sanitary facilities hindered any attempts at bodily cleanliness in many homes. Children frequently came to school with soiled clothing pinned on with safety pins. Usually they wore sweaters under their shirts or dresses. When stockings were worn they were rarely darned and almost as rarely washed; there was also a very apparent absence of garters and shoestrings.

The need for clean stockings being apparent, a pair was bought by the school for each child in the class. After his shower, if his own stockings were not clean, he put on the "school socks," and then washed his own and hung them on a rack in a sunny room. The last thing in the evening each child put on his own stockings, washed the school stockings, and left the latter to dry overnight. Thus washing stockings became the "opening exercises" and the "finale" for each day. Preparing and emptying water was done entirely by the children.

Shoestrings were sold for a penny a pair and enough elastic for garters was available at the same price. The children bought shoestrings and garters not only for themselves but for their brothers and sisters as well. A growing sensitivity to laced-up, well-tied shoes and to stockings without wrinkles became apparent.

The director of home economics was asked to show the class the easiest methods of darning and she gave helpful suggestions on the general care of stockings. Most of the holes in the stockings were much too large for the children to try to mend. In fact, they had been neglected

² Carol Suddith, second-grade supply teacher, Twenty-Fourth Street School, Denver, Colorado.

so long that the stockings should have been discarded. Personal notes were written to the parents asking their cooperation and inviting them to school. Seven mothers and one father came. They were enthusiastic about the school's interest in their children. They agreed to come every week and darn the biggest holes so their children could assume the care of their own stockings. They did not need to come many times, however, for the big holes began to disappear, and "heelless" stockings began to be discarded for new ones. The growth in appreciation of clean, whole stockings was satisfying. The children took great pride in showing their freshly washed stockings each morning and they were always eager to darn the holes. The number of stockings to be washed at school declined. The activity was never abandoned, however, because of circumstances preventing a certain number of children each day from caring for their stockings at home. A few children did washing and darning regularly in school.

The children also began to collect buttons. A box was put on the desk with the caption "Our Button Box." Soon there were buttons for all needs. A few needles were brought from home, and some thread, cards of snaps, and hooks and eyes were provided. Scraps of colored yarn were collected to mend sweaters. Safetypins were "on the spot" at once. The boys were as ready to discard them as the girls. It soon became a part of the routine of the day to sew all buttons on cuffs, collars, overalls, coats, and even underwear. If a button was missing at a point inaccessible to the wearer he solicited the services of a friend. This mutual assistance furnished an excellent social situation. Some of the older girls became very skilful with the needle; they learned to sew rips and tears in their dresses and to match colors in thread, darning cotton, yarn, and buttons.

One of the most difficult habits to establish was that of caring for materials. All the children profited by the teacher's insistence that they put away the things they used. There was a container and place for everything.

When it became evident that many children lacked space in their homes to keep their clothing, the class undertook the job of making wardrobes. Large corrugated boxes were found, a frame of laths was glued inside each box for reinforcement, and a pole for hangers was fastened to the top. Some of these containers were made with one door and others had two doors fastened together in the middle. Spools were used for knobs and tiny hooks held the doors shut. Several wardrobes had extra boxes glued to the top to provide a compartment for hats and shoes. In decorating these boxes the children had an opportunity to express themselves artistically; they painted and papered with all-

over designs on a fiber paper and applied decorative panels, borders, and stencils.

Rules for cleanliness—As the project progressed the boys and girls made a list of rules for cleanliness. They posted the following principles where they could constantly refer to them:

If you want to look neat you must:

Be clean

Keep buttons, snaps, and hooks sewed on

Avoid use of safety pins to fasten clothing

Wash your stockings every day

Darn your stockings

Wear good garters that hold up your stockings

Have good shoestrings and keep them tied

Brush and shine your shoes

Comb your hair whenever it needs it

Wash your hair every two weeks

Take one bath at home each week besides the shower at school on Wednesday.

CONCLUSION

The benefit of these health activities for our underprivileged children can scarcely be measured. The least that can be said is that as a result we have many cleaner, neater, healthier, and happier boys and girls. Furthermore, enlisting the assistance and cooperation of parents has stimulated wide community interest in the entire school program. Mothers found common ground as they worked at school in the friendly atmosphere of service to their children. Nationalities were forgotten; Spanish Americans, Chinese, Japanese, Greeks, Jews, and Anglo-Saxons prepared vegetables or mended stockings side by side.

In the words of Lawrence Frank, "The problem of child health is part of the general problem of creating a frame of mind receptive to the newer knowledge of hygiene and health, especially mental health, on the part of parents, teachers, and others caring for children. A hopeful indication of the future is the growing interest of school authorities in child welfare and in the need for better health, physical and mental, of the school teachers themselves. They are also coming to recognize the home and parents as essential factors in the child health program. A successful program must be based on cooperation."³ We at the Twenty-Fourth Street School feel that we have made some contribution to a sound child health program.

³ Frank, Lawrence K. "Childhood and Youth." *Recent Social Trends in the United States*. Vol. II. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1933. p. 767.

A SCHOOL PROGRAM FOR CHILDREN WITH SOCIAL AND CULTURAL HANDICAPS

LILLIAN ROSENSON

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PROVIDING FOR CHILDREN with social and cultural handicaps can be a routine matter consisting of an imposed curriculum, inflexible courses of study, and subject-centered programming, or it can be a high adventure. The writer, teacher in one of New York City's underprivileged areas, has attempted to make it the latter. Because of the results in terms of human values which have come from her experiences and those of her children in the classroom, the school, and the community, she feels that some of these experiences may be of interest to others.

Characteristics of the group—The writer's class ordinarily consists of twenty-five children selected on the basis of poor physical condition. Technically it is called an open air class. Because of the large number of children on the waiting list and the limited number that can be admitted at one time, only the most urgent cases find their way here. On the physical side, these children include tuberculosis contact cases, arrested tubercular cases, and cases of marked malnutrition ranging from 10 to 22 percent underweight. These physical conditions have their concomitant factors on the emotional and mental side. A lack of interest and a conviction that failure is inevitable—leading in some instances to maladjustment, retardation, and truancy—are frequent. Many children come into the class in a highly nervous and overworried state, and are easily fatigued and discouraged. They seem to have lost the zest for life.

These children are of varied racial and religious backgrounds, including Italian, Polish, Slovak, Irish, German, and Turkish, with Italian predominating. The parents are chiefly foreign-born. The children feel the pull between their foreign homes and the American process at school. Many feel ashamed of their parents because they do not read or write English or because they speak with an accent. The parents in turn often repudiate the culture inherent in their European backgrounds, and they have very little opportunity because of their circumstances to assimilate the American way of life. The families are in the lowest income brackets, many of them on relief, and a majority of them are known to almost every social service agency, private or public, in the city. The family of one child in the class had histories in fourteen such agencies. These people live in overcrowded tenements, some with toilets in the hall. One family of eleven persons lives in three rooms.

Many of the children carry to school the burdens and worries which surround them at home. They see at home the pattern of failure and this is reflected in their attitudes at school.

The intellectual equipment of children entering the class is extremely meager. Those who have been tested usually rate between 75 and 90 IQ. Standardized achievement tests show retardation of from one to several terms. Reading for pleasure is unknown; earlier association with books has been unpleasant in most cases. A paucity of experience is evident in the written and oral work. Most of the children have never been out of their own neighborhood. Few have visited the museums, the zoos, or the larger parks, even in their own boroughs. Only occasionally is there one who visits the neighborhood library regularly. In one group the question, "What did you do yesterday afternoon?" or "How did you spend last Saturday and Sunday?" elicited the following responses:

"Went to the movies."

"Sat around the house—did nothing."

"Had a fight with my mother and slept in the hallway."

"Went out shoe-shining to get money for 'eat'."

"Stayed in bed—I didn't feel like getting up."

"Took a walk by myself along Tremont Avenue and looked in all the windows and saw such beautiful toys. I wish I had some like that."

"Took care of the baby—helped my mother."

"Sat around the house and waited for my mother to come home."

"Mother, a widow, works till 7:00."

"Went out with my gang—had a fight with the Tremont gang—the Tremont gang gypped—they had guns."

Special needs of the group—The needs of these children as a group are clearly indicated. On the physical side there is need for a program that provides for the following:

1. Rest and a moderate amount of activity
2. Additional nourishment
3. Relaxation from pressure and nervous tension
4. Establishment of normal mental attitudes
5. Individual guidance—medical, social, emotional, and educational.

A way of living must be developed which will lead to a normal social and emotional adjustment, including confidence in oneself, rehabilitation of self-respect, satisfaction in achievement, and a sense of security.

On the academic side there is need for a program which will provide for enriching experiences, well-planned, intensive remedial work, mastery of basic skills, and development of critical thinking in a happy environment free from excessive nervous tension and fatigue. On the cultural side the program should provide for the following:

1. Understanding and appreciation of different cultures (tolerance)
2. Appreciation of art, fine music, and good literature
3. Self-expression thru creative activities
4. Pleasurable experiences in reading and writing
5. Participation in worthwhile leisure activities.

What type of program can best provide for these needs? It must be informal and free from tension and strain if it is to meet the health needs of the group. It must be flexible if it is to provide for the varied and unique needs of each individual child. It must be rich in experiences and in subjectmatter content if it is to meet their needs on the academic side. It must be in accordance with child nature and thus be acceptable to the child if it is to build up pleasant associations with the learning process and overcome the feelings of hostility which these children have had toward learning in the past. A way of living such as an activity program provides seems especially suitable for meeting these needs.

Planning the program for individual children—Within the limits of the general needs for the group as a whole, each child has his own individual needs depending upon his abilities, interests, physical condition, and cultural background. These factors are studied in the following ways:

1. Medical examinations at school, at the neighborhood settlement house, and at clinics
2. Mental and educational testing at the Educational Clinic, College of the City of New York, and at the Bureau of Child Guidance of the Board of Education
3. Achievement testing at school
4. Individual conferences with the child
5. Listening to discussions and conversations of the child in his group
6. Observing the child's choice of activities
7. Examining the children's logs or diaries
8. Visiting the home and talking with parents
9. Taking neighborhood walks with the children.

In studying the individual needs of one group of sixth- and seventh-grade children (ten to fifteen years of age), the names of the families were put thru the Social Service Exchange. The information thus obtained was very helpful and pointed the way toward further guidance in many cases. The following excerpt from the teacher's diary is pertinent in this connection:

Today the visiting teacher lunched with me to talk over the children. I had previously given her the identifying material so that she could clear the children's names thru the Social Service Exchange. She now reports that children in this group are known to over twenty different social agencies. It is gratifying to know that there are so many resources at our disposal. The visiting teacher plans to confer with these agencies, report to them on what the school is doing for the children, and find out what the agencies are doing for the children's families. Then, together we can make plans for each child. Here are some of the agencies to whom these children are known:

1. Home Relief Bureau (we are hoping that special allowances for diet may be obtained for these children and that in Freddie's and Johnnie's cases better living quarters may be provided)
2. Bronx House (provides after-school activities and summer care either thru the day camp, summer play school, or vacation camps outside the city)
3. Bureau of Child Guidance of the New York Board of Education
4. Association for the Aid of Crippled Children
5. Bronx Tuberculosis and Health Committee
6. Community Service Society
7. Magistrate's Court
8. Family Court (Children's Division)
9. Board of Health (dental clinics, eye clinics, x-rays, etc.)
10. Bellevue Hospital (psychiatric social service)
11. Henry Street Visiting Nurse Service.

In the case of Walter F. I have asked the visiting teacher to delve into the cause of his apparent inability to write, altho there is no evident physical disability; also to look into the question of Morris' infantile behavior. She will arrange for complete physical, psychological, psychiatric, and educational checkups so that we can begin to follow recommendations and suggestions as soon as possible.

The visiting teacher reported about Freddie. His general conduct, including his cigarette smoking, is not so inexplicable when one knows about the dark, dirty three rooms where Freddie's mother lives with his so-called stepfather, the fifth in the three-year period since his own father's desertion. (This house was subsequently condemned and boarded up as unfit for habitation after the visiting teacher had reported it to the Board of Health and the Tenement House Department.)

The children were examined at the Educational Clinic of the College of the City of New York and the findings and recommendations were carefully noted. This examination included a complete physical checkup as well as a psychological examination. All recommendations and suggestions for treatment were followed as closely as possible by the visiting teacher and the class teacher. Following is a pertinent excerpt from the latter's diary:

Today we (children and teacher) made individual health and weight charts. We listed the doctor's findings and the clinics to be attended. We will make a note of the dates on which the clinics are to be visited and check them off as the visits are made. Each child will be responsible for his or her own follow-up altho the health committee, it has been decided, will check up as a routine matter. This check-up, as impersonal as the arithmetic progress charts, will enable us to meet our health needs without becoming too much involved and concerned over our own state of health.

Mrs. Bishop, the school swimming teacher, has arranged for the girls to use the pool twice a week for swimming lessons. The girls come back to the class looking bright and spic and span. It is interesting to see how well this type of exercise agrees with them; other large-muscle activities seem too fatiguing at present, but not this. The boys, too, enjoy their swimming period and are envious of the girls' two periods to their one. I have put up a mirror on the wardrobe door and both girls and boys are beginning to take an interest in their appearance. Today Fred came with a pocket comb. He has certainly "spruced up" and now looks quite different from the disheveled boy who came to us just a month ago.

The daily class program—A daily program for the group mentioned above was developed as follows by the children and teacher together:

Morning

1. Conference

- Reporting our work
- Planning our work
- Selection of centers of interests
- Organization of materials
- Social studies (what is happening in the world around us; includes history, geography, current events, nature study, and appreciation of art and music)

2. Skills (learning how to do what we have set out to do as need arises in connection with each activity)

- Remedial work
- Reading
- Arithmetic
- Other skills as need arises (how to saw a straight line, how to sew a fine seam, etc.)

3. Recreation and health education

- Rhythmics
- Dancing
- Games
- Swimming

4. Language arts

- Reading
- Writing
- Stories
- Poems
- Plays

Afternoon

5. Rest period (followed by music appreciation or story)

6. Creative activities

- Arts
- Crafts
- Hobbies
- Sewing
- Woodworking

No definite time allotments were made for the various parts of this program. It was kept flexible and subject to change at any time in order to provide for a trip, a visit to the library or auditorium, a radio program, an exhibit, or any other matter of immediate concern.

Learning experiences—The work in social studies is organized around large centers of interest. The selection of these is based first on the needs of the group and second on the children's interests. Since health needs are usually predominant in open air classes, a unit is often developed around some phase of health or health care. Some of the centers of interest selected and developed by the sixth- and seventh-grade group already mentioned were as follows:

1. Homes
2. Exploring our community
3. Health service (first aid to the injured, baby clinics, etc.)
4. Health puppet show; health exhibit
5. Romance of medicine
6. Building America
7. Our grandfathers (investigating our cultural heritage)

The procedure followed in initiating the units is well illustrated by the one on health service. After an approach had been made in terms of the health needs of the group, a trip was taken to the Mott Haven Health Center. The physician in charge of the center gave a brief talk on "keeping fit" and then conducted the children on a tour of inspection, including the dental clinic, the child care clinic, the prenatal care clinic, and the exhibit on protection of workers from occupational diseases. The boys were very much interested in the masks worn by miners, the gloves provided for workers in chemical plants, and similar devices. Booklets on the prevention of disease by immunization, dental care, rules of diet, personal hygiene, and other pertinent topics were distributed. The group had prepared many questions to ask the physician and among them was this one: "How can our class start a health clinic?" He looked startled at this question but explained how Mott Haven Health Center had been started, as well as the other centers of the project. The next morning there was little doubt in the minds of these children as to how to proceed. They were going to start a health center of their own and they eventually did so with considerable success.

At another time a radio program stimulated an interest in the study of housing. The children wrote to Washington, D. C., for government publications on the subject and gathered some information from other sources as well. In designing and painting a mural on "Building America" they learned much about America and the American way of life.

The program as a whole involved a great deal of reading. There were weekly visits to the school library and to the public library. Interest in good literature grew rapidly. A remedial reading group gathered daily in the library corner. No child was forced to read before he was ready for it; reading was learned as the need arose and no other stimulus was needed. Intent upon carrying out his plans, each child welcomed reading experiences because they were purposeful.

Groupings of pupils were based on interests as well as needs. Children often worked with more than one group at a time. Thus Johnny, who was editor of the "Weekly Splash" (our own newspaper), was also a member of the Hammer and Saw Club, the Mural Committee, and the First Aid to the Injured Service. Children contributed to each group according to their abilities.

Contacts with parents and the community—Parents are cordially invited to visit the classroom and they usually become much interested in the work the children are doing. Many a parent has said, "I wish we had had a school like this when I was young. Maybe my life would have been different." Parents are also asked to contribute to the school life from time to time and many of them do so very effectively. Another excerpt from the teacher's diary indicates the children's general reaction to the presence of visitors:

Company is good for the children. They are gaining in poise and other desirable aspects of personality. They have learned to be socially gracious and to go about their work in a most unselfconscious fashion when visitors are present. I, in turn, find that I am able to give more attention than formerly to parents and to the social workers who come from the various agencies to see me about the children. I feel free to sit down and discuss the children with them and to work out plans, for I know that the children are all engrossed in whatever they are doing, will ask and receive help from a classmate if they need it, and will bide their time if it is something they must see me about.

Thru frequent walks the children become acquainted with their neighbors in the community. Talks with the Italian vegetable man, the old Jewish grocer, and the woman who sells Russian candy and *halvah* at the corner have made these people seem very real. The group has become familiar with Bronx House, which is a settlement house a few blocks away. There the children have taken an interest in the afternoon clubs. The visits to Bronx House have resulted in a project whereby that institution is developing a program of leisure activities for the children and is thus supplementing the resources of the school with those of the settlement house. The Tremont Library and the Bronx Tuberculosis and Health Association also have been very cooperative.

Outcomes of the program—The following statement of results attained thru the program outlined above is based on a combination of objective data and the teacher's careful observation and judgment:

1. Remedial physical defects have been corrected or are now under treatment. The children have acquired a substantial knowledge about proper diet and hygienic practices and they have built up many good habits with respect to cleanliness, eating, resting, and attending clinics. Mentally they have happier and more wholesome attitudes.

2. Truancy is nonexistent.

3. Wider and more desirable interests have been developed and these are reflected in the after-school activities of the children. Several children have joined clubs at Bronx House. Trips to the public library are frequent and some youngsters go regularly to the Saturday morning story-hour period. Many revisit the museums with their parents on

Saturdays and Sundays. Often a group will arrange to meet on Saturday or Sunday for a walk in the park or for games.

4. Most of the children now read for pleasure and are learning to appreciate good books. Kate Seredi, Dorothy Lathrop, and Lois Lenski are among their favorite authors. *Story Parade* is their most frequently read magazine. Written work reflects their many new experiences. These children who formerly found it difficult to write two or three consecutive sentences now pour out large quantities of material, including stories, poems, and reports. They have acquired skill in writing letters and they obtain much enjoyment from this activity.

5. The children have learned to love and know really good music. They show considerable discrimination in the selection of radio programs and often prefer a high-grade musical program on station WQXR to the more popular ones on other stations.

6. The essentials of the course of study have been learned in addition to much other information. Several children have made three semesters' progress in a year. This does not necessarily mean that they have gone beyond their actual grade levels altho two children have done so. It means, rather, that in one year they have progressed three half-grades beyond the point from which they started.

7. The children are generally friendly to one another. Evidences of personal or race prejudice are fewer than before. A very wholesome relationship exists between the boys and the girls and there is a kindliness that was lacking earlier.

8. The children are inclined to assume and carry out responsibilities. Leadership has developed in many cases and all have learned to participate in a large cooperative undertaking and to help bring it to a successful culmination. They work harder than before and have more fun doing it. They have learned to live together and like it. They have lost their prejudices and built up a fine respect for one another's differences and special contributions.

9. The children now have a different attitude toward their parents and their homes. They seem glad to have their parents visit the school and encourage them to do so. The parents in turn seem friendlier to the school and more willing to cooperate. Above all, the boys and girls seem to have found a way of living that affords satisfaction to all concerned.

ADJUSTING THE TRANSIENT CHILD

ROY E. LEARNED

Principal, Washington School, Sacramento, California

TWENTY YEARS AGO, when the Washington School was new, it served the children of leading residents of Sacramento. Today their once-beautiful homes are subdivided into cheap-rent apartments occupied by ever changing tenants. It is the old story of an encroaching industrial section coupled with the more recent story of an economic depression and migratory families.

Transiency, practically unknown to this neighborhood a decade ago, began in earnest in 1932 and has progressed at an increasing tempo until today Washington School has by far the most mobile population of any school in the city of Sacramento. Not long ago it was discovered that fewer than 135 children of nearly 500 in Grades II thru VI had received their entire public school education at Washington. In a second-grade class of thirty-one pupils all but five had already attended two or more schools.

The school staff has become so accustomed to the wide and unpredictable fluctuations in enrolment that it is not disturbed when a new group of children awaiting registration crowd the school office every Monday morning for several consecutive weeks. Furthermore, the office is only mildly surprised to have thirty children appear for transfers on the same Friday. When four out of every five new pupils consistently apply for admission to the same grade, or, as if prompted by a conspiracy against their teacher, half a class takes flight within a few days, routine is upset but administrative adjustments are made as quickly as possible.

The problem of the transient child—What of these transient children who often spend only a few months with us and, at best, seldom more than two or three years? Their lot is one of bewildering insecurity in the most acute form. Washington School may be the eighth or ninth school they have attended while their parents or guardians have wandered about the state in a futile attempt to find regular employment.

The occasional pupil smilingly faces this life of uncertainty and makes the most of it. Such was the case of a little twelve-year-old boy who assumed the role of a tourist and made it a point to learn all he could about every city and town in which he chanced to sojourn. One morning about ten o'clock, only a week after he had arrived, his mother came to the school and announced that the family was moving before noon. He greeted the news with a big grin which portrayed his expectation of adventure.

The majority of these wanderers, however, are worried little urchins, aged beyond their years, restless and emotionally disturbed. Not infrequently their homes are broken and they have been the victims of a rapid succession of guardians, a situation which inevitably tends to create unwholesome social attitudes.

Washington School has accepted the plight of these youthful nomads as a great opportunity for service. Over a period of years, thru a constant process of refinement, it has developed a technic for absorbing them rapidly into school life and has been reasonably successful in keeping them happy.

Welcoming and appraising the child—Since it is believed that a child's first impression of a school is vitally important, a sincere welcome is extended to the new entrant, and to his parents also if they are with him, as soon as he steps into the office to register. With such a steady stream of strangers it would be easy to fall into that indifferent, detached attitude of "here's one more to put thru the grind." However, this attitude is never assumed. Friendly inquiry about the child's previous school experience and the community from which he has just come, an invitation to the mother to attend the next parent-teacher meeting, and other pleasantries all help to make the newcomer feel at home.

From the office the new pupil is sent to the "receiving teacher" of his grade, who welcomes him in the same cordial manner. At present there are three teachers for every grade and the one who is designated as the receiving teacher assumes the responsibility of rapidly diagnosing the school needs of each new entrant. She studies his social reaction to the other pupils and notes his physical development and his age. She gives him the *Los Angeles Primary Word Recognition Test*,¹ the *Los Angeles Primary Reading Test*,¹ or the *Los Angeles Elementary Reading Test*,¹ depending upon his grade classification. These tests are easy to administer, correlate highly with other standardized reading tests, and are of diagnostic value for instruction. The results not only are significant in determining the child's reading ability, but also serve as an excellent indication of achievement in other subjects such as social studies and science which require considerable reading. In addition, the receiving teacher informally checks the child's spelling and arithmetic. On the basis of all this information, which she is able to obtain rapidly and accurately because of her continuous practice, the teacher assigns the child to the class where he will have the best prospect of academic and social success.

Grade placement and grouping within grades—Sometimes the en-

¹ Published by the California Test Bureau, Los Angeles, California.

trant is placed in a higher grade than the transfer or report card indicates. Also, with the consent of the child and the parents, he may be placed in a lower grade. This initial adjustment is very important as a preventive measure. Usually the teacher's recommendations are readily accepted for the school has been able to impress parents with the thoroughness of its findings and the sincerity of its purpose.

Three levels of instruction have been set up for each grade. In the sixth grade, for example, one class contains about forty children who seem socially well adjusted and have the general mental ability to take advantage of an enriched program. They are rapid, intelligent readers and possess considerable potential creativeness. In another class approximately thirty-five pupils of average ability carry on the regular sixth-grade work. A third class includes about twenty-five children who are low in achievement, emotionally unstable, and socially immature. Few of this latter group can read above a standard fourth-grade level and most of them are over-age.

The significant factor in this plan of grouping on three levels is that in actual practice teachers can accept these children where they find them and begin their training at that point. The school is materially assisted in its program of pupil adjustment by the fact that the Sacramento curriculum in spelling, reading, and arithmetic is set up on an individualized basis.

The process of pupil adjustment—As soon as he is settled with a permanent homeroom teacher the process of the new pupil's adjustment to the school goes into full swing. Individual adaptation to the class work is not difficult for the majority of pupils because of the flexibility of the program. A committee of pupils immediately sets to work to familiarize the newcomer with the traditions, customs, and rules of the school in order to prevent him from making mistakes which would cause embarrassment or conflict with others.

The new boy or girl is urged to participate in the numerous extra-curriculum activities. Intramural baseball contests are popular before school and during the noon recess. Talent shows are frequently held in the auditorium under the auspices of a committee of upper-grade pupils. If a boy or girl can dance, sing, impersonate, or play an instrument he is invited to share his accomplishment whether he has been at Washington five days or five years.

The mobility of the school population constantly creates vacancies in classroom and student-body positions such as those of motion-picture operator, mimeograph and "ditto" operator, office messenger, and member of the junior traffic patrol. The homeroom teacher guides promising pupils toward these positions which require regular at-

tendance, courtesy, and dependability. Recently one of the new boys so quickly proved his responsibility, popularity, and leadership that he became assistant junior traffic chief within eight weeks after his registration.

Not infrequently the transient children who have attended so many schools and who register with a belligerent, "just-watch-me" attitude respond favorably to the regular procedure at Washington within a short time. However, many boys and girls defy ordinary methods of adjustment. The homeroom teacher scrutinizes such children for contributing physical defects. She looks for symptoms of defective eyesight, for evidence of malnutrition or cardiac difficulty, for skin infection, and for bad teeth, adenoids, and tonsils. The nurse is notified and the pupil in question receives a thoro examination. Frequently the cause of maladjustment is found to be of a physical nature and steps are taken immediately to correct the condition. Each month of the year several needy pupils secure glasses for the first time in their lives. The city clinic gives the examination, the local optometrist association prepares the glasses on a cost basis, and the parents of the children and the Washington parent-teacher association share equally in the payment. It is advisable for the parents to participate in the purchase of glasses even tho they must make great financial sacrifices to do so. Such parents are more likely to see that the glasses are worn regularly and that breakage is prevented.

When underrested and undernourished children are found, the nurse assigns them to a rest and nutrition unit in the building. It is the only one of its kind in the city and is operated by the Charity League, a civic welfare organization composed of young women, principally the wives of professional and business men. These women provide the funds and supervise the project which furnishes an abundance of cod-liver oil, fresh milk, and bread and butter to supplement the lunches of forty undernourished children each day. This group also sees that each child takes an hour's nap every day in a quiet, well-ventilated room. This treatment has frequently worked magic in an irritable, distraught child when all other guidance technics have failed. Lack of adequate, regular sleep at home and overattendance at lurid, thriller-type movies are the curses of far too many of these children. There is little that the school can do as yet to prevent this home situation but a good midday rest is a helpful recourse.

The principal keeps in close touch with all these elements of child adjustment thru frequent informal conferences, especially with the homeroom teacher. In some of the more refractory cases a conference is held between the principal, the teacher, and the child in an attempt

to convince the child of the school's sincerity in aiding him and of his social responsibility for cooperating with the school. Occasionally the problem of maladjustment cannot be settled until the parents are called in around the conference table.

Washington School is always on the alert for new tools of diagnosis. For more than a year the *Durrell-Sullivan Reading Capacity Test*² has been used to study the retarded pupils who are in the small, low-achievement classes in each grade. It is frequently found that these children are potentially very capable but are working two, three, or four years below their capacity. Once these pupils and their parents are made conscious of possibilities which have long lain dormant, their enthusiasm is aroused. This enthusiasm, coupled with specialized classroom methods of instruction, produces results that are often amazing.

Conclusion—The adjustment of this steady stream of transient children to their new school is never altogether complete. Often such children have great difficulty in doing concentrated mental work. They require patient understanding as well as placement in a flexible school program. If these boys and girls with motley backgrounds and uncertain futures can be given some scholastic advancement and opportunity for pleasurable school contacts, Washington School is making a worthy contribution to their unsettled lives.

² Published by the World Book Co., Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York.

ONE of the ways in which tension can be relieved in classrooms for these children is to have each room in the building take on some of the desirable characteristics of a one-teacher school. There should be no feeling of strict grade lines in a school serving the needs of children of seasonal workers. Miss Smith's room and Miss Brown's room should be the accepted way of designating classrooms rather than third grade or fourth grade. The child himself will feel more at home in a group of his own size and age, and he belongs where he will fit best socially. Each room above the third grade should have the variety of material that is commonly found in an ungraded school.—Potter, Gladys L., in *California Journal of Elementary Education*, February 1939, p. 140.

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Courtesy of Public Schools, New York City (from "All the Children")

CHAPTER IX

PROVIDING FOR CHILDREN WITH PERSONALITY PROBLEMS

EDITORIAL COMMENT

WHILE the yearbook thus far has emphasized other aspects of pupil growth, scarcely a chapter has failed to mention the child's personality development. Chapter II has discussed procedures for appraising personality and the influences which affect it. Chapter III has described school guidance programs in which good personality adjustment is a major objective. Portions of Chapter IV have dealt with methods of improving social attitudes and habits of conduct in heterogeneous classes. Subsequent chapters have pointed out that, owing to social pressures, children markedly handicapped in mental ability or in physical, cultural, or economic status are somewhat more likely than other children to develop serious personality problems. In general, the earlier chapters have been concerned with the prevention of maladjustments thru adapting each child's school program to his capacities and needs. This chapter focuses attention on the study and treatment of children with relatively serious behavior difficulties.

In the opening article Block reviews major causes of maladjustment and tells how a child guidance department helps to solve the problems of maladjusted pupils. Silverman discusses the adjustment of behavior difficulties in schools having a traditional type of organization and administration. The next two articles show how groups of teachers have cooperated in the study of personality problems in their classes. Bacon describes a project carried on by all teachers in a small city, while Burleson summarizes the work done at one school in a large city. Both authors conclude that under proper supervision teachers not only can profit personally from a study of pupils' maladjustments but also can help correct such maladjustments.

The last two articles deal with certain factors closely related to poor behavior. Schmitt reviews a study of seventy-nine maladjusted children who were unusually susceptible to fatigue. Special rest and play periods produced marked improvement in the behavior of these children. Parker gives examples of behavior problems associated with reading disabilities. She shows that a personality problem may be either the cause or the result of a reading disability, and that effective treatment depends on the nature of the case.

Four years ago this Department published an entire yearbook on the personality adjustment of children. The reader will find that book as well as other helpful references listed on page 611.—*Editorial Committee.*

A COMPREHENSIVE APPROACH TO THE SOLUTION OF BEHAVIOR PROBLEMS

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MALADJUSTED CHILDREN are found in every school. There is always a Jimmy who insists upon using profanity, a Mary who takes things which do not belong to her, a Peter who seems to delight in prevaricating, or a Helen who apparently enjoys inflicting physical and mental pain upon those smaller than she. Also, teachers are confronted with Grace who antagonizes others by her "tattle tales," Tim who lives in a world of daydreams, Jean who is almost obnoxiously aggressive, Nancy whose shyness and retiring behavior make her unpopular with others, and Bill who will not face reality. Schools are becoming increasingly aware of their responsibility for helping children to overcome such behavior problems.

In the past, and unfortunately to some extent today, the attention given maladjusted children has taken the form of punishing their antisocial or undesirable acts, rather than of discovering the basic causes underlying their behavior and of applying treatment to these causes. Recently, however, there has been a healthy tendency in education, as well as in other fields of human interest, to shift emphasis from the act or symptom to an understanding of the individual involved. Criminology, for example, has transferred its emphasis from the crime to the criminal. Juvenile courts are working on the philosophy that delinquency cannot be treated unless the delinquent is first understood. Social workers, in the use of their casework methods, are more concerned with the building and utilization of positive attitudes and habits than in the mere distribution of relief money or food. Physicians consider the patient in relation to his difficulty rather than the patient's disease alone. Education has shifted from the teaching of subjectmatter per se to the teaching of children. We are realizing the need for getting at the causes of inadequate behavior and for treating children sympathetically and individually in an effort to remove or minimize these causes.

THE BASIC PHILOSOPHY OF GUIDANCE

The economic pressure of the day, the rapidly developing technological changes, and the uncertainties of social living are imposing stresses and strains beyond the adjustive capacity of many individuals. The school is faced with this problem on the child's level and is challenged and privileged to fashion a program for each pupil in terms of his pecu-

liar mental health needs. Such a program must be designed to help the child become a comparatively happy, well-adjusted, and useful member of society. To accomplish this aim, the school must study the needs of each child in order to stimulate and guide him in the solution of his problems. The more the school can do to shape the environment and provide experiences which will give the basis for sound mental health, the better. Such a program requires that the school staff agree upon a basic philosophy of education and work cooperatively to help the child experience the satisfaction of being a happy, interested, and efficient member of the group in various activities.

In spite of all that may be done in school to *prevent* maladjustments, some children will develop undesirable personality traits. Then the approach must be curative and the school needs to consider a program of clinical adjustment. In attempting any diagnosis or recommending any treatment of behavior maladjustments, it is essential that the whole child be as thoroly understood as the evidence at hand will permit. Expert study and analysis of his physical and mental health, his motor coordination, his likes and dislikes, and his interests, abilities, and needs must be made. Furthermore, information as to his home conditions, successes, failures, plans, frustrations, and difficulties is essential in order to identify the reasons for his behavior. As emphasized above, any diagnosis and treatment should relate to the causes underlying the behavior, and not to the symptoms alone. Also, a given cause may require different treatment for different boys and girls because of other complicating factors.

If we are to help the child make a better social and personal adjustment we must enlist the cooperative effort of the home, the school, and certain community organizations. Above all, we must gain the confidence and respect of the child. In school and out of school, situations must be provided which will be favorable to positive satisfaction of the basic needs revealed by his behavior. We need to help the child select a goal to which he attaches importance and in which he has possibilities of success. He must be given opportunity to participate in activities in which he is vitally interested and which challenge him but also help him gain a feeling of security. He may require help in obtaining the affection he craves from those close to him. School situations must not be excessively complex and the child should experience the feeling that he has an important place in the group activities. He and his situation must be studied together, and highly specialized services should be enlisted for diagnosis and treatment when necessary. Also it is of utmost importance that all adults working intimately with the child be well adjusted and emotionally stable.

MAJOR CAUSES OF MALADJUSTMENT

Why do some children exhibit undesirable personality traits? There are three basic causes which should be considered as possibilities in any case of maladjustment: (1) lack of security, (2) lack of proper amount of attention, and (3) lack of satisfaction.

Lack of security—Every child needs to feel that he is wanted in his home, school, or community—that someone cares and is really interested in his welfare. The economic situation in the home, the marital adjustment between parents, or the absence of either mother or father, the overindulgence or neglect evident in the parent-child relationship, and the attitude of other children toward him all do much to influence the child's feeling of security.

Johnny Jones' behavior showed his lack of security. Johnny was a healthy, lively youngster of nine years. For two years he had caused his parents much worry by teasing his schoolmates mercilessly, frequently being untruthful, and taking small amounts of money from home. His mother was at a loss as to what caused these tendencies, especially since she and the father were trying their utmost to do everything for him. Johnny was a child of more than average intelligence. His home environment was good and his personality had been pleasing.

When Johnny entered the office of the director in the child guidance department he looked about and said, "What a dirty looking place!" It was true that the offices needed painting and the interviewer explained that the department was moving at the end of the month. Holding his coat in his arm, the boy then asked, "Where does a guy put his coat?" The interviewer explained that the coat rack had been moved and he could put his coat on the table. He ran his hand across the table and complained, "What dust! If I had a janitor like that I'd fire him." After a few more critical remarks Johnny sat directly in front of the interviewer, put his elbows on the desk and his head in the palms of his hands, and stared straight into her eyes. Without shifting his gaze he said, "Well, shoot. What do you want?" In the interviewer's mind the question arose, "Why this defense? What was causing the child to garb himself in this coat of veneer?"

Just then the fire engines came down the street and stopped outside the window to extinguish a fire in a car. Johnny's eyes virtually popped out of his head. In rapid succession he asked, "Do you know the volume of water coming out of that hose? Gee, did you ever see the hose on the fireboat? And have you been to Coulee Dam?" The child knew the actual volume of water in the hoses and gave a remarkable account of the Coulee Dam project.

The fire over, the interviewer felt that she had gained the confidence of the child and invited him to call again. As Johnny went to the door he said, "Miss X, do you know why I'm a bad boy?" The interviewer said, "But John, you are not a bad boy." "Oh, yes, I am!" he retorted. "And you'd be, too, if your Mummy and Daddy didn't like you, if the teachers thought you were a 'pain in the neck,' and if the kids thought you were good when you were bad." When the interviewer asked the child how he accounted for his mother's bringing him to the clinic if she didn't like him, he said, "I never thought of that. The reason I know that she doesn't like me is because I heard my aunt say several months ago when my mother was in the hospital having a new baby, 'Isn't it too bad that John and Ellen adopted a child and named him after John and now have a little boy of their own'." At this he burst into tears. The interviewer saw her chance and took advantage of the situation. When she explained how much parents must love a little boy in order to adopt him as his parents did, and how much they must have cared for Johnny in particular to choose him from among so many others, his face brightened and he said, "Then they *do* love me!"

Some work with the parents and teachers helped to establish the child's feeling of security, and Johnny is now much happier.

Lack of adequate attention—Children must receive their due share of attention and recognition. The amount depends upon the needs of the individual child. Too much attention may negatively affect behavior as readily as too little. Often adults are aware of the necessity of satisfying this urge in children, but they fail to gratify the child's desire because they have not discovered the avenues along which attention can be satisfactorily given.

Helen's behavior resulted from her desire for attention. She was one of seven children, a rather unattractive, ill-kempt little person of eight years. She had been brought to the attention of the clinic because of the exaggerated tales she was telling and her mounting tendency to take such things as books and small sums of money which did not belong to her. The other children in the school did not particularly like Helen as a playmate but at noon crowds would gather around her to hear the wild stories she told and to share in the candy she frequently had to give them. Before long she began to exhibit other types of unaccepted behavior. She would make faces or comical remarks to attract other children and would pass notes during class sessions.

A study of the home situation revealed that Helen was the fifth child. The family was on relief and the parents paid little if any attention to Helen. She was not always clean, her clothes were unattractive, and the other children in the school seemed to resent her. Helen was hungry for

affection and a little recognition. She could get the latter by bribing children with candy, engaging in antisocial activities, and cutting capers. Altho this behavior usually ended in some type of punishment for her, she was willing to endure anything for the sake of attention.

Lack of satisfaction—Children need to experience certain satisfactions. They should know the feeling of being better than most children in a few things and as good as some children in most things. Likewise, they should learn to appreciate the fact that others will surpass them in many accomplishments. However, children who are continuously challenged beyond their abilities in social situations, physical activities, or academic work, who never experience the satisfaction of being at the head of the class or of winning the race, or who receive blame for lack of achievement and fail to get praise when working to capacity are having the stage of maladjustment set for them.

THE SEATTLE PROGRAM FOR ADJUSTMENT OF BEHAVIOR PROBLEMS

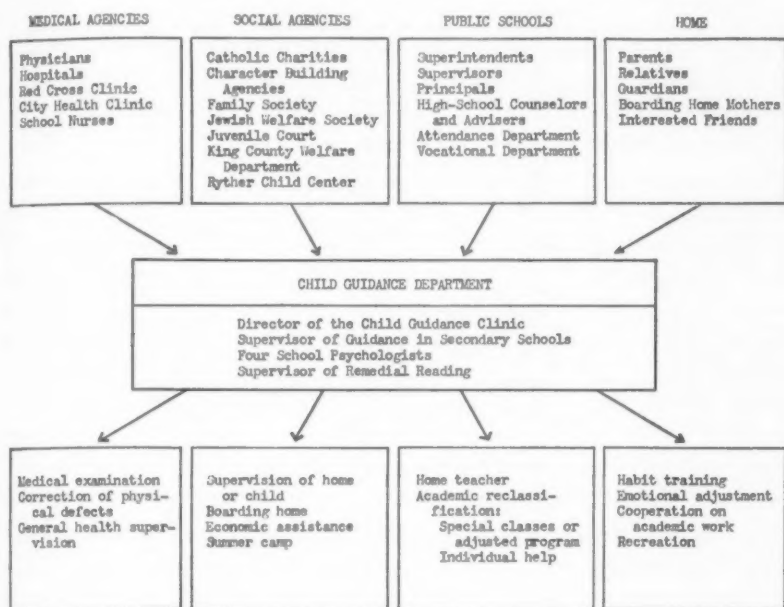
Organization and general plan—The point of view outlined above is basic to the Seattle program for adjusting behavior problems. To help the schools obtain objective and reliable data on boys and girls in their classrooms and to make recommendations as to how the data may be utilized for the optimal growth and development of these children are the primary purposes of the child guidance clinic in this city.

In the Seattle program every teacher in each school is encouraged to take responsibility for the guidance of pupils under her charge. The administrative plan also provides for the services of counselors, advisers, and master teachers. These staff members are aided in the organization of their work and in the utilization of knowledge about girls and boys by the supervisor of secondary-school guidance for the junior and senior high schools and by the director of the child guidance clinic for the elementary schools.

The child guidance clinic thru its staff of psychologists provides the entire school system with a highly specialized service. Problems which present unusual difficulty and which have failed to respond to local treatment are referred to this center. The service is generally recommended since actual provision for adjustment must usually be made in the school, the home, or the community.

The child guidance department consists of the director of the child guidance clinic, the supervisor of secondary-school guidance, and a staff of psychologists. The department also avails itself of the services of the school physician, social agencies, and psychiatric services in the community. The child guidance department serves a threefold function as follows:

FIGURE I—RELATIONSHIP OF THE CHILD GUIDANCE DEPARTMENT OF THE SEATTLE PUBLIC SCHOOLS TO OTHER AGENCIES IN THE COMMUNITY



1. It seeks to help interpret to the community the aims and purposes of a guidance program, to aid in the solution of the problems of the individuals and groups in the school, and to enlist the cooperation of the community in helping to solve such problems.

2. It aims to assist principals and teachers in setting up a preventive and remedial program of group and individual guidance.

3. It aims to obtain a relatively complete clinical picture of children referred for study by the individual schools, to help the schools diagnose the difficulties of any pupil, and to help the faculty work out on the basis of such a diagnostic study a program of preventive or remedial treatment.

Figure I indicates the relationship between the department and various community organizations. The pupils are referred thru various channels to the department for study. The causes of the behavior problems are determined, plans are evolved, and the pupils are referred to the agencies best equipped to carry out the treatment.

Figure II indicates the specific contribution made by the school, the medical field, the social agencies, and the child guidance department in the study and treatment of individual children.

Follow-up work with maladjusted children—In Seattle the child guidance department, in cooperation with the schools, makes a follow-up study of every child referred to it. This procedure serves three pur-

FIGURE II—THE STUDY AND TREATMENT OF THE INDIVIDUAL CHILD IN THE SEATTLE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE STUDY OF THE INDIVIDUAL CHILD			
School	Medical Department	Child Guidance Department	Social Agencies
Report of Academic record Social adjustment Home environment Abilities - interests	Record of Health history Physical defects General health	Study of Mental abilities Special disabilities Behavior patterns Social problems	Summary of Family history Economic condition Parental attitudes Emotional relations

METHODS OF STUDYING THE INDIVIDUAL CHILD			
School	Medical Department	Child Guidance Department	Social Agencies
Analysis of Academic records Group tests Achievement tests Conferences	Examinations by School nurses Physicians Clinics Hospitals	Interpretation of Intelligence tests Diagnostic tests Vocational tests Interviews	Case records Home visits Conferences Clearance thru the Social Service Exchange

METHODS OF TREATING THE INDIVIDUAL CHILD			
School	Medical Department	Child Guidance Department	Social Agencies
Grade placement Slow-moving sections Adjustment classes Special classes Deaf Sight-saving Speech Program modification Remedial instruction Vocational education	Correction of health problems thru Supervision by School nurses Medical Department Health Education Department Clinic services Private physicians	Formulation of plan thru the study of reports and test results, and thru conferences with child, parents, school, and social agencies	Parental education Foster home placement Recreational opportunities Economic assistance Summer program and camps

poses: (1) to determine whether the department's analyses have correctly ascertained the causes underlying the child's maladjustment; (2) to see whether the individual is reacting to recommended treatment; and (3) to decide what further treatment may be necessary. If Mary continues to take as many things which are not hers, if Peter still insists on prevaricating, if Helen delights as much as ever in tormenting others, and if Nancy continues to go off into a corner alone and look longingly at the group, then our efforts have failed and we must continue our study, enlisting all the help we can get. If, on the other hand, these children have begun to substitute desirable behavior for the undesirable, we will pursue our work with them further along the lines being followed, until each child is experiencing success and happiness in behavior that is useful, effective, and socially acceptable.

CONCLUSION

It is extremely difficult to identify in the life of any individual those elements which have been responsible for a particular behavior disturbance. It is also difficult to separate behavior that is symptomatic of temporary disturbance from that which is symptomatic of deep-seated maladjustment. However, persons concerned with the solution of children's behavior problems should not become discouraged or pessimistic but should realize that helping boys and girls to face life realistically, happily, honestly, and usefully will produce some of the greatest satisfactions educators can experience.

ADJUSTING PERSONALITY DIFFICULTIES IN THE
TRADITIONAL SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

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WHILE EDUCATIONAL THEORISTS are concerned with the larger problems of adapting the curriculum and methods of the elementary schools to a changing social order, those of us who are working in the field are confronted with "a condition, not a theory." Paradoxical as it may sound, thousands of elementary-school workers are doing a very good job in a thoroly bad setting. Many who are serving in large and intricately organized school systems are powerless to make fundamental changes in policy or significant modifications in the prescribed courses of study. However, these obvious limitations do not preclude marked variations in the degree of success with which different workers in the same school system may handle problems in personality adjustment.

In the following discussion those technics will be set forth which have proved valuable in a school in a polyglot section of New York, where pupils of some twenty-odd racial origins have in common only the fact that practically all of them come from homes in the low income group, whether the parents are dependent upon public relief or are employed at unskilled labor in private industry.

The undesirable personality traits arising from this background are many. There are the children whose difficulties are associated with the need for escape from an unsatisfactory environment, such as the day-dreamer, the hypochondriac, and the child who, from sheer lack of normal self-confidence, fails to work up to his native capacity. Other children seek to compensate for disappointments and inadequacies by aggressively antisocial acts. Here are included the rebels, the bullies, the children who give way to violent temper tantrums at the slightest provocation. In all these cases it is essential that control be built up from within, rather than imposed from without, if there is to be real and lasting modification of undesirable traits.

Of course, in a community like New York there are numerous, but by no means adequate, medical and social agencies to which some of the most extreme pathological cases may be referred. There is legal machinery, too, for removing children from homes where improper guardianship exists. However, it is not the purpose of this article to discuss community facilities for dealing with personality problems. The aim is, rather, to describe what the school itself can do to create a wholesome emotional atmosphere in which warped personalities can find their way to more nearly normal development.

UNDERSTANDING AND GUIDING THE TEACHER

In a program of personality adjustment the work of the principal falls into two main categories—teacher guidance and child guidance. If teachers are to be led to take a mental hygiene approach to their classroom problems, it is essential that administrative procedures in the school be such as to enable the teacher to function as a calm, well-balanced person, free from unnecessary anxieties. Too often, the very supervisors who advocate sympathy, tolerance, and a sense of humor in teacher-pupil relations fail signally to exemplify these traits in their own dealings with teachers. Teachers, it must be recognized, are only human; they cannot be expected to act with infallible wisdom under all the complex stresses and strains of the classroom, nor can they reasonably be expected to produce results in subjectmatter mastery beyond the natural capacity of the pupils they are teaching.

It must be frankly recognized that there are times when the best teachers need assistance in dealing with behavior problems. The supervisor, who has the advantage of being able to give undivided attention to any disturbing pupil in complete privacy, must assume responsibility for giving reasonable assistance to teachers without making them feel that their prestige is being jeopardized when they refer a problem to the principal. There are times when merely removing a pupil with exhibitionist tendencies from his audience will effect a letdown of intolerable tension in a classroom.

Destructive tension in a classroom is often induced by unnaturally high standards of attainment in subjectmatter mastery. In school systems where homogeneous grouping on the basis of intelligence quotients is required, it is essential that the teachers of dull classes be made to realize that they are going to be judged not only in terms of test scores, but principally in terms of character building. (It is a significant fact that where the teacher is primarily concerned with building self-respect, improvement in scholastic achievement comes almost as a byproduct.) Even with teachers of normal or bright pupils, undue emphasis on subjectmatter mastery will lead to unwholesome competition, professional jealousy, and often to distinctly unethical practices. The wise principal will resist the temptation to lay the emphasis upon high marks, even tho this may be the obvious way to win recognition from his own official supervisors.

A large insurance company recently conducted a survey of teachers' health problems. A strikingly high correlation was found between teachers' attendance and the character of the school administration. Absences were least frequent in those schools where supervision was friendly and democratic. If the physical health of teachers improves

with sympathetic, intelligent supervisory relations, how much more must mental health respond! It is almost axiomatic that teachers who are themselves hard-driven will, in turn, become "drivers" of children; while those who are working in a situation that makes for self-respect and security are almost certain to create something of the same emotional climate for their pupils.

UNDERSTANDING AND GUIDING THE CHILD

If teachers, who are presumably mature people with a measure of security, need patience and sympathy from their supervisors, it is obvious that the need of the maladjusted child for understanding must be even greater. To the mental hygienist every "problem child" is a "child with a problem." One need not be a sentimentalist to recognize that a misbehaving child is not a happy child, and that something constructive must be done for children who show undesirable personality traits. In the case of the shy child, self-respect must be built up thru providing satisfactions that are new to him. In the case of the aggressive child, there must be sublimation of energies that have been directed toward unworthy ends and the development of an attitude of honest self-criticism.

The shy child—The child who is shy and lacking in confidence must be given a taste of success; he must be given a feeling of belonging. Sometimes, when a child is quite incapable of doing the usual work of the grade, giving him special assignments that are within his power will have a therapeutic effect. This is particularly true if the child has a special aptitude that can be utilized. For instance, a child who is very unsuccessful in academic work may be skilful in the use of tools or may have a fine sense of color that enables him to turn out artistic products. Utilizing the talents of such a child will build up his self-esteem in two ways: There will be the inner satisfaction which comes from successful creative work, and also that sense of being respected by one's own group which arises from the admiring approval of classmates.

Schools with an activity program are in an excellent position to provide such experiences for the child with a special talent. Even the traditionally organized school, however, often affords excellent outlets for creative ability thru extracurriculum activities. An art club may be the means of giving real satisfaction to a child with an overwhelming sense of inferiority. Even when the right kind of club at the right age or grade level is not available, the resourceful teacher will suggest special jobs to be carried out at home. Given a few simple materials, a boy who has a knack with tools can make for use in a history or

geography lesson a model that will completely offset his inability to contribute to the verbal discussion of the subject.

With a child who has no special talent, the problem of building up self-respect is more difficult. However, there are useful but unskilled tasks that such children may be called upon to perform. One instance comes to mind of a boy whose attendance was very irregular because he often felt sick in the mornings when it was time to get ready for school. A medical examination revealed no serious physical defect, so it was decided that his lack of success in schoolwork was a probable cause for this quite unintentional escape mechanism. When he was invited to come to the principal's office early in the mornings to help sort the mail and distribute it to the teachers, he not only came to school regularly but showed a degree of alertness in the classroom that was as gratifying as it was unexpected. Every experienced teacher can recall instances of this kind. However, a word of caution is necessary about monitorial assignments. A child with personality inadequacies such as this boy evidenced must never be put in charge of other children; he should be asked to deal with inanimate objects or to carry simple messages so that there will be no risk of an untoward incident that might undermine his self-confidence.

Another problem of the nonaggressive variety is presented by the child of average, or better than average, mentality, who is failing to work up to normal expectations because of a sense of inadequacy. Remedial work, given individually or in small groups, is sometimes helpful in these cases. Sometimes, where there is homogeneous grouping, placing these children with a dull group may give them a needed sense of superiority, provided that they are made to realize that the transfer is intended not as a punishment but as a means of letting them "catch up" before rejoining a group of more rapid learners. Often these children will profit by being transferred to the class of a tactful and understanding teacher who will know how to give wise encouragement.

The aggressive child—Not only is a tactful teacher valuable in helping the retiring pupil; she is indispensable in training the aggressive type of maladjusted child. Her attitude is never punitive; it is rather that of a kind but firm counselor who is interested in helping the pupil to find himself. Rewards and punishments, other than the natural and inevitable ones of social approval or disapproval, should not enter into the treatment of these pupils. Most of them are inured to punishment and are proud of their ability to "take it." The child must be made to realize that one can hate the offense without hating the offender.

The more objective both the adult and the child can be about the offense, the better the chances for correction.

Sometimes the simple statement, "You know, I really can't help liking you, in spite of your being such a little nuisance," will establish real rapport; more often than not the young rebel is a neglected child who, for all his "tough" demeanor, is really hungry for a bit of kindness. A technic that never fails to surprise and disarm a child who has been referred to the office for reproof is to begin the interview with some show of solicitude over his physical condition. An inquiry about a bandaged finger or a broken shoe, or a suggestion to an anemic-looking girl sagging under the weight of a pile of textbooks that she lay her books down and take a chair, will invariably elicit a courteous response.

Another good procedure is to give the child a chance to state his side of the story almost at once. Sometimes sullen silence is the only response to such an offer. In that event, the teacher or supervisor can always find other work to keep him occupied for the next fifteen or twenty minutes. Usually the experience of being ignored for that length of time will make the child very ready to reply when again addressed.

More often than not, however, a request that the child state his case will lead to a very voluble, perhaps hysterical, recital of grievances, imagined or real. It is important not to appear shocked at the language or the tone of such an account. If it is honest—and it generally is—the adult knows exactly what he has to deal with. Usually there are misconceptions on the part of the child to be cleared up; and more often than not some injustice or lack of tact on the part of the teacher will appear as an important element in the situation. There is nothing that will do more to build up cooperation in such a child than a willingness to help in straightening out a difficulty of this kind. A real injustice should never be glossed over. There is nothing that rankles like injustice. Every adult still remembers with real acerbity some experiences of his own childhood that he has never ceased to resent.

In addition to the inarticulate child and the overwrought child, there is the one who, when asked for his version of a difficulty, will admit with real embarrassment that he just lost his temper, or that he doesn't quite understand what *did* start it all. Such a child needs help no less than the others altho his problem may be somewhat different.

More often than is generally realized, disturbing scenes in the classroom are the result of emotional disturbances at home. Resentment against a parent may translate itself into rebellion against authority in the classroom, as personified in the teacher. It does not necessarily take a psychiatrist to discover a situation of this kind. It is surprising

how often a leading question, based on nothing more than a good guess, will uncover a serious conflict in the home. It can be done quite casually with such a remark as: "You must have got out of bed with the wrong foot first this morning. Did you have a scrap with someone before you came to school today?" Often a torrent of invective against some member of the household will follow a question of this kind. Usually the mere act of talking about a grievance will give an emotional release that will enable the child to calm down for the rest of the day. It is important, of course, to listen sympathetically and to refrain from sermonizing. One must try, as a first step, to build a hopeful attitude toward the school environment. Let the child think of the school as a place where patience and fair play are assured. With growing maturity he may be led to take a more sympathetic and understanding attitude toward the home situation.

Very often an offer to talk things over with the parents and to present the child's point of view is eagerly accepted. Sometimes it is refused; in such a case it is generally better not to force the issue. Rarely are parents of seriously maladjusted children capable of effecting intelligent cooperation with the school. This is one reason why it is generally inadvisable to notify the parents of the child's misconduct in school. Moreover, the fewer people that know of his misbehavior and the less he is reminded of past offenses, the better for his self-respect.

For the same reason public apologies should not be demanded. A forced apology is almost always followed by fresh acts of aggression. The best way that a child can manifest his regret for a rebellious attitude is by willing compliance with the rules upon his return to the classroom. Often when nothing has been said about an apology, a child will spontaneously express his regret for what has occurred or his intention of doing better. Such a reaction means a genuine, though not necessarily lasting, change of outlook. Certainly no sensible person would expect an emotionally unstable child to be "reformed" by a single experience of this kind. The same symptoms will undoubtedly recur; but if the recurrences tend to become less frequent and less severe, and if the child becomes increasingly self-critical, one may feel that genuine control is developing.

A more complicated problem is presented by the child who, in addition to being resentful and nervously irritable, is given to exhibitionism. In this case, more than in any other, an attempt at public reproof is bound to defeat its own purpose. In dealing with these children it is essential to be calmly impersonal, no matter how great the temptation to show resentment or annoyance. Nothing gives a child of this type

greater satisfaction than to feel that he has "got a rise" out of the teacher or supervisor. On the other hand, the adult can only acquire added prestige in the eyes of the other pupils by the ability to keep his temper in a trying situation. Often if the exhibitionist develops a liking for the teacher he will go to extraordinary lengths in performing little courtesies, a distinctly more acceptable expression of his need for attention.

CONCLUSION

The longer one deals with maladjusted children, the stronger grows the conviction that success or failure in modifying undesirable personality traits is more a matter of *attitude* than of *action* on the part of supervisor or teacher. There is a French proverb to the effect that "to understand all is to forgive all." Certainly the more a teacher can learn of the child's home background, and the better he can know him as a person, the greater the likelihood of his being able to give the child the moral support he needs in making a satisfactory adjustment. The physical restlessness of a boy who stays out on the stairs half the night waiting for a drunken father to fall asleep becomes tragic instead of annoying in the eyes of the teacher who knows the cause.

If every child who is the victim of unsuitable home surroundings could be transplanted to an ideal environment, our task would be a simple one. As things are, the best we can hope to accomplish is to make the maladjusted child realize that there *are* decent people in the world, and that there are decent ways of meeting difficult situations. We can do this not by sermonizing, but by our own exemplification of the traits we wish to teach, namely, tolerance, patience, sympathy, and above all, essential respect for personality.

A COÖPERATIVE ATTACK ON PERSONALITY PROBLEMS

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HOW CAN WE FIND TIME to give adequate attention to individual needs, interests, abilities, and personality problems in the course of the school day, packed as it is to overflowing? This is the reaction of many teachers to discussions of the need and value of adapting school life to individual differences. It is not that teachers still believe in mass production or that they are satisfied with group instruction, which is a step in the right direction. Rather, it is the eternal question of infinite demands upon a limited amount of time. With the present tendency of organized taxpayers, and even some educators, to urge a heavier teacher load as a means of economy in school administration, the amount of time which can be devoted to individual needs is in danger of being further curtailed. However, there are teachers with enough real idealism, enough devotion to the children entrusted to their guidance, and enough courage and grit to attack the problems of the individual child in spite of almost unsurmountable obstacles.

What can teachers limited as to time, specialized training, and available funds do? What are they doing? This article relates how the teachers of Amsterdam, New York, attacked one phase of the problem and how they have attempted to guide their pupils in building desirable personality traits.

SCOPE AND PROCEDURE OF THE PROJECT

Being aware of the fact that it is much more difficult to measure growth in personality than in subjectmatter, the teachers decided to experiment in organizing and carrying on a study of children's personality traits. The type of study to be undertaken, its limitations, the organization of procedures, and the technics to be used were determined cooperatively in a series of discussion meetings with the assistant superintendent. All agreed that such a study must start with the child *where* he is and *as* he is, rather than with preconceived standards or notions as to what he ought to be. The following questions regarding each child were considered:

1. What is this child like?
2. What are desirable personality traits from the point of view of the child and his relations with others?
3. What are this child's special needs in the light of (2)?
4. How can we help the child to satisfy those needs?

The teachers decided that the first thing to do was to write a description of the child, including his physical, mental, emotional, and social qualities as well as information regarding his home and other out-of-school environment, since all phases of the child's life interact and combine to make him what he is.

Next they indicated some traits generally desirable from the point of view of children and their relations with others. Among the physical traits listed as desirable were good posture, healthy color, bright, clear eyes, adequate weight for height and age, cleanliness, orderliness in care of self, appropriate muscular development, and an inclination toward activity. It was felt that an adequate description of mental attributes should include the IQ and other evidences of general intelligence or achievement; the degree of readiness and skill in securing, organizing, and using knowledge; and any outstanding knowledge or ability. Among the traits considered as indicative of emotional stability were security, self-control, self-confidence, happiness, frankness, naturalness, persistence, ambition, industriousness, interest, and self-dependence. Socially, it was agreed, the child should be considerate of others, participative, cooperative, fair, responsible, courteous, and prompt.

Consideration of the child and his background made apparent certain specific needs or objectives. These objectives were set up in one of three ways: (1) by the teacher without the knowledge of the child, (2) by the teacher in consultation with the child, or (3) by the child with the advice and help of the teacher. The choice of procedure for setting up objectives was determined by the kind of child and the type of need. Plans for growth were also outlined in one of these three ways. Evidences of growth toward objectives were kept in the teacher's record, in the child's record, or in both.

Some of the means used for noting evidences of growth were the teacher's daily observations, the child's daily observations, observations by other children in the class group, conferences with parents or other relatives, conferences with leaders of groups to which the child belonged, and observations by special subject supervisors, the principal, the school nurse, the attendance officer, and the county agent for dependent children.

Evidences of growth were recorded by means of charts devised by teacher or child or both, "anecdotal behavior journals," weekly or monthly records, reports of activity units, and letters or statements from parents or other interested members of the community.

Toward the close of the school year a series of discussion meetings was held to review records of individual children and to note par-

ticularly effective ways for getting information about children, the most helpful means of developing certain desirable traits, and the different types of evidences of growth. This series of discussions had to do mainly with an evaluation of the year's experimental study.

TREATMENT OF INDIVIDUAL CHILDREN WITH PROBLEMS

Probably the best means of showing the individual treatment used with children who had personality problems is to describe in detail certain specific cases. The cases of Elsa, Harold, and Richard are typical.

Elsa—When Elsa appeared in the third grade at the beginning of the year she was noticeably underweight, carelessly dressed, and slumped in posture. She had poor color and dull eyes, and there were signs of faulty diet, lack of sleep and rest, and lack of fresh air. She was also handicapped by a slight speech defect. An intelligence test indicated average mental ability but she was unusually slow in getting, organizing, and using knowledge. She maintained an antagonistic and overbearing attitude toward other children, was quick to take offense at their actions, and frequently became sulky. She seemed very anxious for attention and would try to secure it by refusing to cooperate with the other children.

A visit to the home revealed a domineering father who thought his child had above-average ability and was just being "picked on" by the teacher and the other children in the class. The mother also was convinced that the child was just as bright as a neighbor's child who was particularly alert, and she resented the fact that the teacher was providing special help in speech correction for her child. The grandmother lived in the home and waited on the child constantly, dressing and undressing her, picking up her clothes, and putting away her toys. The child had become so dependent upon the elders of the family that she demanded their constant attention.

The teacher set out upon a remedial program designed to do four things: (1) to develop Elsa's responsibility for tools and for work in school, (2) to awaken in her a desire to participate in class activities and to cooperate with the other children, (3) to help her acquire a feeling of appreciation rather than of resentment for special help, and (4) to aid her in building health habits (especially those associated with food and sleep) that would lead to an improvement in nourishment and weight. The teacher's plans for helping Elsa to grow toward these objectives were as follows:

1. Make her responsible for the care of books, pencils, paper, and other equipment which she used.

2. Insist upon her completing a job which she had started. (At first the job was very simple and easily and quickly accomplished.)
3. Praise her for the completion of a job and the quality of the work, provided the latter deserved praise.
4. Provide opportunities for group work. Make clear that her part was essential to the work of the group.
5. Emphasize the gain in speech correction so that she would feel a sense of adequacy and power.
6. See that she was given a mid-morning lunch of crackers and milk.

After the teacher had been working patiently along these lines for two months, she called again at Elsa's home. This time the mother received her more cordially, said she had noticed changes in her child, and asked how she could cooperate with the teacher in her plans for Elsa. To the mother the teacher made the following suggestions:

1. Elsa should be encouraged to dress and undress herself, take care of her clothes, and take care of her toys.
2. She should be encouraged to help her grandmother instead of accepting so much attention.
3. The grandmother should make Elsa feel happy in helping.
4. Elsa should drink milk at least twice a day.
5. She should sleep at least ten hours with window open.
6. She should not be expected to achieve, in school or at home, what was beyond her.
7. She should be helped to evaluate her own work honestly.

The following evidences of growth were indicated in the diary of the child as kept by the teacher:

1. Elsa did assume responsibility for the care of her tools and other possessions in school and at home.
2. She gradually participated more and more in class and group activities.
3. She cooperated willingly with the teacher and other children.
4. She began to find joy in doing things for the mother and grandmother at home on her own initiative.
5. She gained weight, looked brighter and happier, and her posture improved.
6. She was fair in appraising her own work and was willing to evaluate the work of other children as better than her own.

The mother no longer made the child unhappy by expecting her to do work beyond her ability and no longer compared her with her neighbor's child. The most convincing of all signs of improvement was that Elsa cried when she could not go to school. At the beginning of the year she cried because she *had* to go to school.

Harold—One day the father of this sixth-grade boy met the boy's teacher on the street and asked her what she thought of his son. The father said, "I know Harold has good stuff in him, but I can't seem to bring it out." The boy was very tall for his age, thin, wiry, nervous, and the leader of a "gang." He seemed to be of average mentality but had special aptitude for drawing, for using tools, and for dramatics. Moreover, he was prompt, honest, courteous, and responsible but not

very industrious. The teacher found out from conversation with the father that the boy spent most of his time out of school prowling around with his gang. The teacher suggested that the father provide activities for him out of school hours and asked if the boy might work on scenery for the dramatization of *Pinocchio* which the class was planning. The father said, "Sure, anything you can give him to do outside of school will help me." Harold made most of the scenery himself, but the father became so interested that he helped him with parts of it. The boy became so absorbed in the play as worked out by the class that he memorized the whole script and appointed himself official prompter at the presentation.

Richard—Richard, a second-grader, was a tall, slim, delicate-looking child with wistful brown eyes. His quick and constant movements indicated lack of nervous stability. His health habits were fair, tho he was apt to neglect his nails, hair, and teeth. He had an IQ of 96, a chronological age of seven years and seven months, and a mental age of seven years and four months. Richard liked to read, and in answer to the teacher's question, "Why do you want to learn to read?" he replied:

1. So I can read library books
2. So I can read the *Recorder* (Amsterdam newspaper)
3. So I can read the funny papers
4. So I can read big, thick books
5. So I can read a valentine, if I get one.

He was good in arithmetic and he had some original ideas in drawing but lacked the ability to organize his ideas to make a satisfying picture.

Richard's associates considered him happy, self-confident, persistent, ambitious, and industrious, but he was not always frank or honest in certain situations. He was inclined to be quick-tempered and had temper tantrums at home. In dealing with others he seemed to be co-operative, courteous, prompt, and fairly resourceful. On the other hand, he was frequently unfair, irresponsible, and rather inconsiderate.

Richard's mother and father were of foreign birth. They both worked, with the result that Richard and his older brother were alone a great deal. The mother was apt to discipline the children by bribery.

The teacher first tried to develop responsibility and trustworthiness in Richard by test situations which involved his evaluation of his own work. He was asked to serve as leader of his group or of the class in the absence of the teacher. He was appointed "head painter" for the Mother Goose library in his room and he showed marked interest, meticulous care, and decided responsibility in carrying out this project.

In this case the teacher discussed with the child his particular needs,

and together they planned for meeting those needs. They checked evidences of growth in personal conferences and made further plans on the basis of progress already made. Some of the values of this study to the teacher are given by her in the following statements:

1. I have had a feeling of satisfaction in seeing a child respond to objectives which I thought would be of help to him in making his life happier and more worthwhile. Also I feel that I have helped him to adjust his personality so that he will make a better citizen.

2. As I worked with Richard I became more alert to see where I could help other pupils in my grade, and I feel that next year I will know better how to cope with difficult cases and so help the children with their problems.

3. My study of Richard required research work which helped me not only with him but with this class, and which will help me with other classes too.

4. At first I did not understand Richard. He was likely to get on my nerves and I would feel very much provoked with him. After I had studied him especially I grew to understand some of the little things that had annoyed me and treated them in a different way. For instance, I found that he was not the "smarty" type I had thought, but nervous, excitable, and desirous of attention and praise.

5. I have felt, too, that the other children understand Richard much better. Now they seem to like him and do not look for his faults. They choose him to work with them.

CONCLUSION

Any appraisal of these technics for correcting personality maladjustments is difficult. Thoroly objective measurement is impossible. However, the following statements by children themselves indicate not only consciousness of growth but also joy and satisfaction in it:

1. I learned to be interested in things that are said and done and to show it by the expression on my face (Helen).

2. I learned to listen to other people's opinions and to receive corrections on my own opinions without "blowing up" (Leonard).

3. I noticed that the chairman was thoughtful of others and made the most of what was said (Geraldine).

4. I learned to cooperate with my classmates for the good of the class (Peter).

5. I have learned not to vote for my friends just because they are my friends, but to vote for the ones I think would make the best officers (Florence).

6. I have learned how to converse with strangers (Beulah).

7. I learned not to speak too long because there are others to consider (Helen).

8. Knowing how to introduce people to each other and what to say when I am introduced gives me a comfortable and easy feeling (Beulah).

9. I have learned to help people correct their mistakes instead of laughing at them (Florence).

The assistant superintendent in charge of the project feels that thru participation in the study and treatment of maladjusted children her own point of view was enriched by (1) keener awareness of the objectives of the elementary school, (2) realization of the necessity of continually reinterpreting and clarifying these objectives in accordance with changing needs, and (3) appreciation of the value of planning definitely to attain the objectives and of recording evidence of their attainment as a basis for further growth.

A COOPERATIVE STUDY OF PERSONALITY
DISTURBANCES

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THIS ARTICLE SUMMARIZES three years of experience with a cooperative study of personality disturbances among children at the Latona Avenue School in Los Angeles.¹ Three significant facts have been revealed, namely, that such a study *can* be carried thru, that it is possible to secure the expert help of many school agencies, and that teachers willingly cooperate in a study when the findings apply directly to their own situations. It is believed that an account of such an experience may indicate to others the value of group consideration of certain difficult personality problems found in children.

DEVELOPING PLANS AND PROCEDURES

The study began in 1936. The superintendent of instruction in referring to the unsocial behavior of a child asked the teachers, "What *can* you do for him? What *are* you doing for him?" The teachers took inventory of their procedures and found only vague generalities, with little of constructive or permanent value. Then and there it was decided to make an organized effort to help the unadjusted child.

In September each teacher was asked to select a child to be the subject of a semester's study. The instructions were to choose a pupil who had been unusually troublesome and annoying. At the next staff meeting each teacher reported in detail on her selected child. Most of the reports were colored with emotion, some quite vividly. Boys and girls were described as "terrible," as "lying, stealing, and cheating," and as "biting, striking, and kicking."

This was the most difficult phase of the entire three years of study. It was apparent that the teachers were sadly off the track. So far all group discussion had been entirely negative. The experiment was on the verge of being discontinued when the district counselor met with the staff and helped to change the negative attitudes. She directed the teachers' thinking with such questions as, "Are you not describing symptoms? Is the child's behavior really so awful? Have you made a real search of causes?" Wickman's *Children's Behavior and Teachers' Attitudes*² was suggested for basic reading and it proved invaluable.

¹ The author wishes to express acknowledgment and appreciation to the following persons who collaborated in the study: Elizabeth Sands, superintendent of instruction, 1936; Clara Schmitt, assistant supervisor, educational research and guidance; Cora Lee Danielson, assistant supervisor, education of exceptional children; Cora Bacon, counselor; Ruth Blanton, elementary-school principal; Marie Wilson, nurse; Arthur R. Timme, psychiatrist; and the teachers of Latona Avenue School.

² Wickman, E. K. *Children's Behavior and Teachers' Attitudes*. New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1928. 247 p.

Analyzing teachers' attitudes—Acting according to the new point of view, the teachers next listed types of undesirable behavior and tried to analyze their own reactions to such behavior. Each one attempted to answer the question, "How do I feel about it and why do I feel this way?" To quote Wickman, "Teachers' reactions to the behavior problems of children are largely determined by the direct effect which the behavior produces on the teachers themselves."³

The thinking of the group changed as they asked themselves these questions: "Are we pleased or displeased with a child because he reflects our own good or poor judgment? Is the child's behavior actually unsocial or does it just challenge our authority? Why is the child repeatedly tardy? Is there something in the school situation he wishes to avoid? Are we sincerely trying to find the difficulty or do we merely want behavior which does not offend our sense of order? Do we compensate by dominating?" Consideration of these questions was invaluable to all. As their insight developed, the teachers were much less inclined to condemn children whose conduct was unsatisfactory.

During the second month a chart with these headings was used:

<i>Behavior (of child)</i>	<i>Teacher's attitude</i>	<i>Explanation (of attitude)</i>
1. Defiant, unruly; runs about room.	Anger.	Too much time necessary to force issue.
2. Untidy; leaves books and papers scattered on floor.	Annoyance.	Sense of order offended.
3. Boisterous; persistently pushes in front of others.	Disgust; determined patience.	An unlovely, unattractive child.

As these reports were discussed more tolerance and understanding developed. The headings were rewritten and the teachers tried again.

<i>Behavior</i>	<i>Suggested remedy</i>	<i>Teacher's attitude</i>	<i>Result to child</i>
1. Consistently evades responsibility.	Use charts to check daily habits; provide for personal attention, reward, rest, affection.	Determined effort to stay with problem.	Some control acquired; enthusiastic response to personal attention.
2. Slaps and bites playmates; continually in trouble on grounds.	Reward if able to play quietly.	Child's very great need sensed.	Some realization of ability to control her own life.

³ Wickman, E. K., *op. cit.*, p. 181.

Extending the scope of investigation—The limitations of these methods were soon recognized. Home conditions were such a vital factor. A divided home, economic stress, disagreement among parents as to ways of handling a child—all were important in understanding unsocial behavior. A much closer contact between home and school had to be established.

The teachers also tried to find out something of the child's reactions to specific situations. The following questions, similar to those suggested by Adler,⁴ were among those used:

1. Is the child's manner confident or hesitating?
2. Is he a friendly spirit?
3. Does he meet your glance frankly?
4. Does he shrink or withdraw when you speak to him?
5. Can he face reality?
6. Does he tend to degrade others?
7. Is he friendly only as long as he can dominate?
8. What would he do if allowed to do exactly as he wished?

The writer followed thru with one case study and the little girl in question gave this enlightening answer to the last question: "I would never, never go to school; I would never, never make my bed; and I would never, never, never dust in the corners." Evidently a very great conflict existed here between impulses and restraints. The problem was to reconcile the two, at least partially. The following summary of four of the twenty cases studied gives some indication of the remedial treatment used and the results after one year's effort. Any one of the cases could be discussed at length.

<i>Behavior</i>	<i>Remedy</i>	<i>Teacher's attitude</i>	<i>Result to child</i>
1. (IQ 114—in second grade). Defiant; nervous; uncontrolled; somewhat cruel; deliberately provoked others.	Kept child actively occupied under close supervision; made provision for rest periods; gave chance for leadership; endeavored to redirect child's energies.	Baffled; frustrated; angered; but realized child was compensating for domination of an older brother and needed an entirely changed home situation.	No gain in child's confidence or co-operation; teacher finally resorted to compulsion.
2. (IQ 102—in third grade). Stubborn; sullen refusal.	Tried to restore self-confidence; used no compulsion; attempted to improve physical condition by insisting on baths and breakfast.	Sympathy; sincere desire to help.	Real improvement.

⁴ Adler, Alfred. *Education of Children*. New York: Greenberg Publisher, 1930. 309 p.

<i>Behavior</i>	<i>Remedy</i>	<i>Teacher's attitude</i>	<i>Result to child</i>
3. (IQ 109—in fifth grade). Nervous; emotionally disorganized and uncontrolled; had frequent playground difficulties.	Used charts to check daily habits; gave training in concentration; provided for rest, rewards, affection.	Annoyed, but interest was challenged; desired to find cause of difficulties.	Some control in personal habits; excellent educational progress; improved social adjustment.
4. (IQ 125 — in seventh grade). Overcritical; poor sport; crabby; quarrelsome.	Behavior evaluated by class group.	Desired to help child face reality.	Benefit from discussion; appreciation of group approval.

These cases show primarily the change in teacher attitude from one of emotion to one of greater objectivity.

All discussions of the children took place during the time allotted for regular teachers' meetings. Each teacher made some contribution each time. The professional reading of the staff centered around problems uncovered by the study, and the reading thus took on added meaning. The enthusiasm and progress of the group led to a continuation of the study a second year.

All types of personality disturbances came before the teachers for consideration. Active, turbulent behavior proved easier to analyze than quiet, repressed tendencies. Of the various problems noted, those of nervous children and of maladjusted children of superior ability received particular attention and are specifically discussed below.

STUDYING PROBLEMS OF NERVOUS CHILDREN

During the second year nervous children were selected for group study. Many of these children stammered, fidgeted, and cried easily. The staff attempted to find the underlying causes of their behavior and to eliminate those conflicts arising from the school situation.

Gathering essential data—The children selected were first given a thorough physical examination by the school physician. Of the twenty studied, six were found to have weak hearts, eight were undernourished, three came from broken homes, one was newly adopted, one lived in a boarding home, and one had recently been discharged from an institution after treatment for venereal disease. Most of the group were restless and unable to adjust themselves to classmates. Their educational accomplishment was poor.

The parents were interviewed and as complete a picture of home

conditions as possible was obtained. The counselor gave each boy and girl the Stanford-Binet intelligence test. The personal conversation with the counselor often revealed hidden hopes, fears, and griefs. All the children had at least normal intelligence and four were superior.

Applying remedial treatment—A psychologist from the research department met with the teachers monthly. She summarized the findings for each case reported and gave advice as to its handling. Among her general suggestions were the following:

1. Build up the child's health. Test his hearing and eyesight accurately.
2. Adjust schoolwork to the child's mental and health level.
3. Respect individual differences. Strive only for socially desirable conformity.
4. Help the child to realize his own ability to control his behavior and to face the consequences, good or bad.
5. Evaluate behavior in social terms.
6. Consult frequently with parents.

The writer's part in this study of nervous children was chiefly to coordinate the group—children, teachers, and parents—with the psychologist. When a rest period was recommended it was necessary to rearrange the child's program and find a quiet room, for the problem of relaxation in a noisy, busy school is a difficult one. Adequate equipment and supervision also had to be provided.

The most important thing these nervous children had to learn was how to relax. The writer worked with them during the rest period, using this suggestion to good advantage: "Make your head, your shoulders, your arms, and finally your whole body as heavy as possible—just like a sack of sand." The children were weighed periodically, and frequently a gain of from two to four pounds in a month was noted. In most cases an improvement in control and emotional stability accompanied the gain in weight. Much of this gain could be directly attributed to the required rest and relaxation.

As the home problems of the various cases were discussed it was realized that some difficulties were almost insurmountable. One slender, pale little boy in the sixth grade had many nervous mannerisms such as throwing his arms as he walked, grimacing, and making noises in his throat. A thoro physical examination revealed his condition to be serious and a note to that effect was sent to his parents. The following reply was received:

Please do not send any more trash papers about my boy being defeeted one way and another, and if you want me to take him out of that school just come out and say so. His tonsils stay in and as far as the food he is getting, I do my best and I don't want any outside information as to how to raise children and what I shall put on the table. You expect too much out of a 90-pound mother and a 130-pound father.

This child had been gaining weight and improving under the rest program. Since he was old enough (twelve years) to exercise judgment,

he was permitted to decide whether or not he would continue to rest. He chose to continue. His mannerisms were discussed with him and he was told how he looked to others. It was impressed upon him that he *could* control himself better and he was quite happy to find this out for himself. Because this child is intelligent (IQ 116), he may find some measure of adjustment despite adverse home conditions.

By the end of the second year of the study the teachers were convinced that they should provide opportunity for more children to rest regularly during the school day. They saw that a fifteen- or thirty-minute relaxation period quieted shrill voices and soothed sharp tempers. They also realized that happy, natural living every day, with absence of pressure, brought definite relief to taut nerves. Thus the teachers made renewed attempts to give these boys and girls reasonable security and some chance for success and happiness in school.

STUDYING MALADJUSTED CHILDREN OF SUPERIOR ABILITY

Children with above-average intelligence but with marked emotional and social maladjustments offered the greatest challenge of the three years of study. During the third year especially, the teachers tackled the problem of helping these children to make the most of their native capacities. In the Latona Avenue School there are two opportunity rooms for superior children and there are also many bright children in the regular classrooms. Thus, the field for study was wide.

The supervisor of the opportunity rooms was the teachers' consultant and she met with them regularly. Two cases were presented each month. The teachers made a careful analysis of each child, using blanks formulated by the department of educational research and guidance. In addition to the problems of the children, the teachers were confronted with questions concerning their own adequacy and they proceeded with great caution. They continually asked themselves, "Is our personal adjustment adequate? Do we know how to educate emotions? Can we analyze fears and help these children to face reality? Are we wise and sure enough to counsel parents and suggest changes in home relationships? What knowledge are we most in need of? What expert help can we secure?"

A case history—The following case history of T. shows the problems encountered with one superior boy and illustrates the fine cooperation obtained from agencies outside the immediate school:

TEACHER'S DIAGNOSIS

1. *Background of experience*: Child's mother divorced, a seamstress on PWA project; child alone during day, had been enticed into a rooming house and abused by a man; mother has built up and fostered an intense dislike for child's father and has bound child to her emotionally.

2. *Physical condition and maturity:* Child developed feminine characteristics in early adolescence—marked bust and hip development, girlish face, and rounded arms; body overweight and reactions sluggish; given endocrine treatment for last two years; enuresis since birth.

3. *Mental maturity:* IQ 120; great reader but comprehension immature; reads wholly for story content, interests very narrow; plays childish games, kicks ball out of field in organized games.

4. *Emotional adjustment:* Infantile reactions; flirtatious, evasive, and deceitful; senses companions do not like him and makes many futile overtures for friendship; baffled and unhappy; teases, trips, and pinches to gain attention.

5. *Social attitudes and habits:* Bites, kicks, and fights when frustrated; unable to adjust to playmates; is reported constantly because of disregard for rules of games, etc.

6. *Work attitudes and habits:* Reads incessantly; avoids any work he dislikes, especially arithmetic and spelling; needs constant supervision; untidy and careless.

7. *Dominant interests:* Reading; playing with tin soldiers, guns, and other childish toys.

NURSE'S FINDINGS

To his mother, T. was not an unsatisfactory son. He was affectionate and clung to her so closely that he was a compensation to her for a life drab with poverty and warped by unhappiness. Their home was usually in disorder but T. would say proudly, "We have the coziest home on the street." He would leave for school after his mother had gone to work and would come home to a house looking just as he had left it, with beds unmade and dirty dishes in the sink. Yet he preferred to stay in the house and read, waiting for his mother to come home, rather than go outside for play. Other children did not seek him out. Some even commented frankly on his unpleasant odor due to the enuresis which was an ever-present problem.

As T. became more difficult his mother at last admitted that his unpopularity with other children, his irresponsibility, and his immaturity might mean adult failure and unhappiness for him. She asked for advice and tried to follow it. She gave him responsibility for a few household chores when it was harder for her, coming home tired from work, to hold him to them than it would have been to do them herself. She had him sleep alone instead of with her and encouraged him on the days he showed sphincter control. She saw that he took regularly the medicine that had been prescribed for him by the psychiatrist. He was sent out to play when she was home and they gave up their Saturday movies together so he could go swimming with the boys at the Y. M. C. A. For the mother, each of these little adjustments meant a personal sacrifice. Most important of all, it meant that she was facing the fact that T. was not like other boys of his age and would need help if he was to learn to lead a normal life.

PSYCHIATRIST'S SUMMARY

T. first came under clinical observation in June 1934 when he was eight years old and in the second grade. He was referred to the psychiatrist by the school principal because of his seemingly uncontrollable habit of biting other children. His mother, who accompanied him to the office, said he had been nervous since his birth, which had been especially difficult and could have produced too great a pressure on his head. She reported his "delicateness," his frequent attacks of "nervous stomach" accompanied by headache, vomiting, and fever, and his chronic enuresis.

In the examining room T. was so restless that he could hardly control himself. His hands were markedly unsteady and he showed poor muscular coordination. His reflexes were sluggish; his genital organs were discovered to be extremely small and undeveloped; and he was beginning to show fat deposits around the hips and girdle. Laboratory tests showed an underactive thyroid gland. These and

other physical findings, coupled with his behavior, indicated damage to certain brain centers either during birth or as a result of an early attack of pneumonia.

For four years following this examination T. did not return to the psychiatrist. During this time he received some endocrine treatment for the thyroid inadequacy. Despite the constant effort of teachers and the clinic he showed only slight improvement and continued to grow fat, exhibited poor muscular coordination, and persisted in his aggressive, uncontrollable behavior.

When he was ready for junior high school he was again referred for treatment. This time he was placed on a medical routine designed to reach the damaged brain centers. Soon there were evidences of improvement. The enuresis, which had persisted thru the sixth grade, came under control.

The move to junior high school also worked a favorable change in T.'s behavior. He was no longer tempted to bite and shove his schoolmates, for they were larger than he. The new and diversified curriculum challenged his superior intelligence. It was not many months before he appeared to be a different boy, controlled and intent on being an accepted member of his group.

The successful outcome of this difficult case is due not only to the treatment of physical disorder and the change to junior high school, but also to skilful handling by interested teachers, long and patient work on the part of the counselor and the psychological clinic, and last but not least, the processes of normal growth and maturation. The injuries to T.'s brain centers were such that his superior intelligence was not affected. When treatment was given to reach the afflicted brain areas and his behavior became controlled, his intelligence aided him in making the final adjustment.

Implications for teachers—The study of T. led to wide and varied reading by the teachers of Latona Avenue School. Rosanoff's *Manual of Psychiatry*⁵ was a basic reference. The entire staff learned thru this case and related studies that teachers need understanding, infinite kindness, and accurate knowledge to help slightly abnormal children orient themselves in a social group which condemns physical irregularities and any evidence of nonconformity to the accepted social pattern. Such children need to find satisfactions in life which will compensate in a measure for their abnormalities.

The following principles for dealing with children who have personality disturbances were gleaned from group discussions:

1. Create an environment which offers stimuli conducive to the unfolding process.
2. Remove obstacles in the child's own make-up, such as indecision, doubt, and timidity.
3. Seek freedom in order to promote freedom.
4. Cultivate those qualities of personality and character that make for good living.
5. Give unadjusted children an opportunity and an incentive to develop into self-directing individuals who are adequately considerate of all the consequences of their acts.
6. Use compulsion only as you use medicine.
7. Establish acceptable fundamental skills.
8. Encourage self-expression thru handicrafts.

⁵ Rosanoff, Aaron J. *Manual of Psychiatry*. Revised and enlarged edition. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1937. 697 p.

TEACHERS' REACTIONS TO THE STUDY

In answer to the questions, "What has been most valuable to you?" and "What need has this study shown you?" the teachers of Latona Avenue School made a number of enlightening observations. The following excerpts from the report of one teacher⁶ are rather typical:

"The most intellectually stimulating experience in all my years of teaching has been my participation in these studies of the personality problems of children. This stimulation has been due primarily to the earnestness of all concerned and to the variety of viewpoints represented by the teachers of all grades (including the classes of subnormal and superior children), by the principal and the supervisors of superior and poorly adjusted groups, by the school nurse and counselor, and by the psychologist from the department of research and guidance.

"Our study of behavior problems in general passed naturally into an analysis of the problems of nervous children. The highlight of the past year has been a new awareness of those obscure physical handicaps which radically change personality. The indications are that next year's study may well be devoted to acquiring a still keener sensitivity to the presence of these physical irregularities and a greater skill in dealing wisely with the handicapped child. For me the emphasis will still be placed on personality adjustment, for I believe that the most important thing is not the handicap itself but the way in which the handicapped person adjusts to it.

"My conclusions concerning the study and treatment of maladjusted children are as follows:

"1. Analysis must begin with the physical and proceed to the psychological factors. All possible corrections must be made.

"2. Unchangeable handicaps must be faced. They are a part of reality. They must not be used as excuses for a lower level of living than is possible. Thruout the course of history many great characters (Homer, Demosthenes, Milton, Charles and Mary Lamb, Pasteur, Emerson, Madame Curie, Beethoven, the Roosevelts—Theodore and Franklin D.) have achieved success in spite of great handicaps.

"3. The psychology of personality is still the most important factor in building beautiful lives. Beautiful living comes from within.

"4. We can help our children and their parents to overcome their handicaps only as far as we have come to triumph over our own. Every human being has some handicap. Happy is the man who has used his defects as a stimulus to high achievement. Such a person is often the best teacher because he can understand the difficulties of others."

⁶ Annette Lingstrom, teacher of an opportunity room.

FATIGUE SUSCEPTIBILITY AS A FACTOR IN MALADJUSTED BEHAVIOR

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THE CHILDREN who are referred to the guidance division of the Los Angeles schools fall into two large groups: (1) those who are retarded in one or more subjects of the curriculum or who are apparently unable to do acceptable schoolwork, and (2) those who have behavior problems. Many individuals fall into both groups. Children with physical handicaps are not included in these groups.

School retardation is usually due to one or more of the following general causes: mental retardation, poor health at present or in the past, lack of opportunity, foreign language or residence, and emotional disturbance. Maladjusted behavior may usually be attributed to unsatisfactory personal relations, inadequate training, or lack of security in the home, to an early false start in social relations with other children, to poor health and fatigue, or to educational maladjustment.

The causes which bring about maladjustment in children, altho often simple in their inception, may become cumulative and interreactive as time goes on, thus presenting at some point a complex situation to be unravelled. This process is shown vividly in children who have a tendency to fatigue more quickly than the average. The characteristics of such children and the procedures used in studying and treating them in Los Angeles are described in the following pages.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE GROUP STUDIED

This report is based on experience with seventy-nine children in whom there existed an individual quality of fatigue susceptibility. No other primary factor was involved in these cases altho there were secondary factors which had evolved from the original quality of fatigue susceptibility.

General health, mentality, and environment—When referred to the guidance division these children presented no health problems or only minor ones. In such cases as were doubtful in the opinion of the examining school physician, further special examinations were obtained thru our own parent-teacher clinic or thru private physicians. If there was some doubt as to the private physician's thoroness, the child was rechecked in our own clinic. Thus the child was given tests of the eyes, heart, chest, and urine, as well as neuro-psychiatric, endocrine,

and other special types of examinations whenever these were considered desirable by either the first or later examining physicians. No child handicapped by a health defect is included in this group with the exception of two mild cases of eye-muscle imbalance and four cases of enlarged tonsils and adenoids which did not receive medical correction. The health histories of most of these children were not markedly different from that of the average school child.

Only children with intelligence quotients of 90 or above are included in the group. No case involving sex activities is included. All are white American children except one Negro child of educated professional parents. No case is included where family friction, economic insecurity, criminality, or affectional imbalance was indicated so far as reasonably careful judgment could discern. In some cases, however, there were family complications connected with the problem of the child himself. Such difficulties at times took the form of disagreement between the parents as to discipline, a mutual bewilderment and despair concerning a problem which they could not understand, or disappointment with the child's inability to live up to their own and the general social standards of behavior and achievement.

Behavior difficulties—These children, altho normal in health and mental development and living in a normal environment, presented serious behavior problems and, in some cases, problems of educational retardation. Their behavior, as reported by teachers and parents, varied widely. For example, one boy was described as "very unstable emotionally, a definite behavior problem, continually fighting, deliberately disobedient, a great bully, always taking balls from younger children, poor in reading and spelling, seldom finishing any task, and failing to apply himself in the adjustment room altho he was given much individual help." In contrast, another child was described as "too quiet, languid, not playing with the usual vigor, daydreaming, and not applying himself to work." The parents' reports contained such terms as these: restless, nervous, always on the go, plays wildly, can't sit still, cries easily, feels himself abused when corrected, has temper tantrums, is easily made angry, tires easily, becomes unduly excited at shows or radio programs, does not sleep well, is a finicky or poor eater, bites his nails, sucks his fingers, has enuresis, forgets easily what he has been directed to do, cannot be trusted to go on errands, gets into trouble in play, dawdles at any task, is disorderly in care of possessions, is untidy with clothes, quickly loses interest in any activity, and does not finish what he has started. The emotion of anger predominated, altho in many children the weaker responses of

weeping, fears, and feelings of inferiority were displayed. Many were described as irresponsible and untrustworthy, while others indulged in behavior calculated to attract attention to themselves. There were also a few cases of mild truancy and stealing.

Diagnosis—All the children in this group may be classified as "nervous," which means "that condition of the nerves which leads to too ready a response to irritation." This definition, however, provides no clue as to causes or suitable modes of treatment. For the practical purposes of guidance the term is too inclusive. The type of behavior usually termed "nervous" or "emotional"—these terms are used almost synonymously by teachers and parents—is displayed by all children in whose lives there is a marked lack of balance among the factors necessary to mental health.¹ For this reason we have adopted the term, "fatigue susceptibility," as a more accurate means of characterizing such children as those described above.

DIAGNOSTIC PROCEDURE

In each individual case the diagnosis of "fatigue susceptibility" is arrived at thru elimination of other factors, thru reports by parents and teachers, thru the child's report of himself, and thru observation by the several persons in the guidance office as well as by the examining physician.

Reports by parents—The parent usually states that the child's symptoms have always been present or that they appeared soon after he learned to walk or after an early illness. The parent often observes also that the symptoms are more pronounced when the child is tired. Parental treatment has generally consisted of putting the child to bed, isolating him, talking to him, depriving him of privileges, reducing his allowance, having a medical examination, or arranging for extra moral training such as that given at Sunday school. Reports on the efficacy of these measures indicate that none is of any *permanent* value and that many of them serve merely to increase the symptoms. Putting to bed and isolation, however, are nearly always reported to be of considerable *immediate* value. In fact, our clue to correct treatment came from the reports of mothers who had practiced putting children to bed for temper tantrums. After an hour or more of such rest the child would be good-natured for a considerable period, sometimes as long as several days, before another outbreak. What we term the "rest program" was adopted several years ago for these and many other children.

¹ Los Angeles City School District. *Fourth Yearbook of the Division of Psychology and Educational Research*. Los Angeles: the School District, 1931. "The Nervous Child," p. 128-48.

The guidance conference—In addition to the reports of parents and teachers, observation of the child during the guidance conference provides highly significant data. Before discussing this procedure, it may be helpful to describe briefly the arrangements in the guidance offices. There is a large room in which two secretaries work, and in a corner of this room is a table with small toys, books, crayolas, blocks, and similar materials. Here the child waits while the psychologist has a preliminary interview with the mother to obtain certain essential information. The psychologist's room contains only the necessary furniture, with as little as possible that may distract the attention of the child from the business at hand. The desk, table, and certain other articles of furniture are of the kind usually found in the schoolroom, thus giving the child a feeling of familiarity with his surroundings. Occasionally a child remarks, "That's like what we have at school." In addition, the psychologist's room contains a comfortable couch and a comfortable chair. These two pieces of furniture are important because the child who is susceptible to fatigue often reacts to them in a characteristic way.

This brief description indicates our limitations of space as well as the kind of equipment available. There are other limitations but we find that they sometimes work to our advantage. For example, since the professional social worker was eliminated for reasons of economy some years ago, we must obtain the child's history after the parent and child appear rather than before, as is the practice in the standard child guidance clinic. For tactical reasons we cannot usually ask the parent to appear for the purpose of history-taking before she brings the child. However, these are not great disadvantages and they may be quite the opposite. Taking the child's history at the first meeting of the parent and psychologist eliminates repetition and the need for the parent to adjust to two personalities. After contact with the child the psychologist is in a position to judge the significance of the items of the history and can extend it as far as may be necessary at that time or in future contacts. Histories unfold as mutual understanding and confidence is gained.

On arriving for the first conference, the parent and child are met together in the outer room and are greeted as desired visitors by the two secretaries. A bit of talk is exchanged with the child, this being adapted to his degree of maturity and type of response. He is then told that we have something to show him or talk over with him but that we would like first to get acquainted with his mother or father (or both), and he is asked if he would like to occupy himself for a short while with the materials on the table. Occasionally a child may

indicate fear of having the parent leave him but this situation can be managed in various ways. Children are capable of recognizing sincere friendliness and goodwill and they nearly always assent to what is asked. The two secretaries are usually tactful in caring for the child in the outer room, and they also make note of certain aspects of his behavior. Much credit for the establishment of rapport is due also to the school principal who has arranged the conference with the parent. Most of the principals are sympathetic with the aims of guidance and are very successful in making parents understand that we have a common problem upon which we will work together.

When the child's turn to be interviewed arrives, he has had about an hour of interesting occupation, a drink, and a trip to the bathroom, and he has come to feel at home and with friends. Hence, both he and the parent are quite likely to behave naturally. At one or more points during the conference they are interviewed and observed together. Since few people can inhibit their characteristic reactions except for short periods, these mutual conferences provide much further insight into parent-child relations.

The mental examination—The conference with the child includes a mental examination (Stanford-Binet) which yields much significant information concerning his qualities of mind and temperament in addition to the intelligence quotient. Such characteristics as self-confidence, persistence, thoughtfulness or flightiness, type of attack or problems, interest in mental work or tendency to boredom with it, adaptability to instruction, and courtesy or deference to another person are carefully noted. Most important for the child who is easily fatigued are his motor reactions during the examination. Nearly all children, whether unduly susceptible to fatigue or not, become weary before the conclusion of the first stage of the examination. There is, however, a great difference in the type of fatigue displayed by the average child and the one who is susceptible to fatigue. The former reacts with a shifting of his whole body to gain relief. Moreover, he knows when he is fatigued and if the psychologist is slow in suggesting it, will ask to be allowed to stand up for a moment. The fatigue-susceptible child reacts with a more or less general dispersiveness of the muscles and he begins to do so within a very few minutes. He wriggles the feet and knees and makes unnecessary and aimless movements of the hands and arms. If he is subject to tics they at once become evident. He handles and twiddles with things in reach and frequently indulges in unnecessary talk in answer to a simple question. He usually does not know that he is fatigued and will deny it if asked. However, in nearly every case he is quick to accept the suggestion of rest and it is here

that the couch is of use. The child is told that he may lie down for a short time while the psychologist does something else. The blinds are lowered and the child is unobtrusively observed attempting to rest. Many children cannot become quiet during the time available and continue to wriggle and twist, sometimes emitting the soft groans of a person in a state of painful fatigue.

After perhaps two or three such short sessions of rest the first stage of the mental examination is completed or left for completion in the future. During this time the psychologist has been acquiring from chance remarks some information about the child's attitudes toward school and home, and he may have obtained a fairly accurate picture of the child's own estimate of himself in relation to the various factors of his social life. The picture is then enlarged by further talk about these factors. The child is led to state how soon he becomes tired of the school routine and at which times of the day, how well he endures in play, and what happens when things go wrong in play or when he has a fight. Some fatigue-susceptible children are aware of their limitation. They will report, "My legs ache and I just have to get up," "I feel nervous," "I get tired when I sit still a while," "I get to feeling hot and I just don't want to do anything," or "I feel funny." Some boys know that they cannot play as vigorously as others. In describing fights and their causes they indicate a sensitiveness to the physical impacts which other children do not find painful. In the give and take of the game they are more easily hurt and therefore hit back or become angry and disrupt the play. It is often this which causes teachers to report that the child will strike others without provocation.

The medical examination—After these first conferences are over the child is taken to the school physician. If the child is quite young, he is told that in a room down the hall there are some scales and that he may go there to be weighed and measured. It is mentioned also that he may see a doctor there. Older children are merely told frankly that they are to have a medical examination. Parent and child wait in the physician's outer office until the psychologist has given the physician the health history and all other significant information about the case. After the medical examination the physician and psychologist cooperate in explaining the problem to the parent and in recommending treatment or further examination. In every case a rest program is advised pending any further examination that may be desirable. To the psychologist is left the responsibility of helping the parent, child, and school in carrying out the recommendations made.

THE REST PROGRAM

The next step is to convince the parent, the child, and occasionally the school of the need for the rest program. The effect of fatigue upon behavior, concentration of effort, and temper is discussed with the parent and the program is outlined for her. The program may vary somewhat to meet special conditions and the severity of the child's need. After some experimentation, however, the following plan has been found most effective: (1) about an hour of rest lying prone immediately before the luncheon period and a quiet noon hour; (2) a period of play in the sunshine after school with other children, subject to parental supervision if necessary to avoid fatigue and consequent trouble with playmates; (3) an hour of rest lying prone before the evening meal; and (4) quiet, unexciting occupations before the usual bedtime hour.

The rest period before meals has been adopted for various reasons, including the physiological effect of reducing bodily strains before eating and the frequent report of poor appetite. In a number of cases the parent has been advised by the family physician to have the child rest after school. In no case is this reported as successful. The child rebels at more inactivity after the hours of schoolroom confinement, protests that no other child has to rest, and expresses fear of the opinion of other children about this infantile performance. These objections are valid. The child needs the play activity and the sunshine and there is scarcely any other time for him to obtain it. Moreover, he cannot live outside the standards of his own social group, in whose opinion only babies and kindergarten children rest during the day. However, all children return to the house from play at some time before the evening meal, and no one need know why a particular child returns at a certain time. If a child is called in from play for his rest, the mother is instructed to make it appear to the other children that he is called for some especially pleasant reason. Another reason for choosing eleven o'clock for a rest hour is found in reports of teachers that the child begins to show fatigue about that time. Some children know that their trouble begins then.

Mothers sometimes ask what will be the effect upon the night sleep if the child sleeps before six o'clock. They are told that it will probably be more normal, since restless or too heavy sleep is due to overfatigue.²

In addition to the regular program of rest, restrictions upon radio programs must be made. The type of program designed for children's

² Forman, Henry J. *Our Movie Made Children*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1933. 288 p.

entertainment is reported by nearly all mothers as especially devastating to nerves. Tenseness, nail biting, inability to get to sleep, and other signs of nervous tension are reported as effects of thrilling radio episodes.³ Some parents have of their own accord restricted their children's listening. Others have not felt strong enough to go counter to their children's insistence upon hearing certain programs and the general acceptance of such programs by acquaintances. In such cases the advice of the psychologist and physician is especially needed.

Showing the child how to rest—The value of the rest program has already been impressed upon the child during the preceding activities. He has told of his various difficulties, has had one or two short periods of rest, and has consciously experienced relief. There remain the final details of understanding and arrangement to be achieved. The child is advised as to how he can relax. He is asked to lie down and think of himself as a rag doll. With small children a sleepy monotonous tone is used. "Imagine you are a rag doll; it has no bones; it just lies all limp; etc." In a few moments the child has fallen into a relaxed condition. Then the psychologist says, "When a doll lies down its eyes are all heavy; it can't hold them open." For this lesson the room has been partially darkened. It requires a few minutes for the child to become quite relaxed. He is then told that he may rest like that for a few minutes while the psychologist does something else. He is told, too, that if he feels like moving he may do so but he should keep on thinking he is a rag doll. When he is allowed to get up he is told that if he rests like that every day for a while he will be able to do his schoolwork better or will be less likely to get into fights or any of the other difficulties which he has been having. He is told, too, that on some days perhaps he will forget to take his rest, but that the psychologist would like to know how many times he does rest. He is given a small box of gold stars and a card upon which to paste the stars for each time that he rests "like a rag doll." The stars are very interesting to all small children and are acceptable to older ones as a vivid and easy way to keep a record. When this lesson is over, a date is set for a return visit.

Provisions in the school—The child's school is then informed of the recommendation for his care. At first the rest program seemed a novel experiment to teachers, but during the past three years it has come to be accepted as wholly reasonable. The counselors for individual guidance, working in the schools under the supervision of the writer, have spread its philosophy and the results have proved its worth. Many

³ Eisenberg, Azriel L. *Children and Radio Programs*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1936. 240 p.

schools have made arrangements for rest facilities in the building, even if only a cot behind a screen in the classroom, on the principle that any bit of rest is better than none, and children are allowed to use such facilities when fatigue becomes evident. This practice has now become so common that children no longer consider it a questionable thing to do.

AN ILLUSTRATIVE CASE

The extremity of avoidance behavior to which a child may resort when unduly susceptible to fatigue is shown in the case of B. This little girl, age eight years and nine months, was referred to the guidance division in December 1937. Her intelligence quotient was 101. She had been attending the same school continuously, beginning with the kindergarten. Her progress had been normal and her social relations good. She was considered a fine child in every way. A few weeks before coming to our attention, however, she had experienced a feeling of revolt toward school, had cried and begged to stay at home practically every morning, had had frequent headaches which made her hysterical, and had refused to remain at school when taken there. She had given no reason for her discontent. The principal had suggested a half-day program, realizing that the child was under severe nervous strain. The parents had taken the child to the family physician who could find no physical cause for her trouble but strongly advised against "giving in" for fear of establishing an undesirable type of behavior.

The home situation was entirely wholesome. The parents were Dutch immigrants and, judging from their accurate and literate acquisition of English and their success in adjusting themselves economically and otherwise to a new country, were above average in character and personality. The girl had a brother three years older who was entirely satisfactory in school and home. There were no home conflicts, no special worries or strains. The parents were thoughtful and kind. The child's health history was almost entirely clear. There had been three contagious diseases in mild form at the age of two years. She had always eaten and slept well until the last few weeks, when she somehow acquired a fear of the dark. Her height and weight were equivalent to the median for twelve-year-old children.

In conference with the psychologist the parents described the child's distressing behavior. She would become highly nervous after breakfast, not want to go to school, seem to "get a fear," develop a headache and stomachache, and have violent bowel eliminations at that time. At three years of age she had had a similar period of behavior for which

no cause could be found. During the past few weeks the parents had taken her to school at times, hoping that she would be all right after getting there. They knew of no difficulty with other children on the way and said that she played well, read well, and liked to read. The parents had always been in good health except that, as he later confessed, the father had at times experienced the same kind of physical reactions as the child when facing a new and difficult situation. This had not prevented him, however, from living successfully in many parts of the world in his employment with a rubber company.

B. was a large-boned, robust-looking child, similar to her mother physically. During her interview with the psychologist she was friendly and responsive and showed no signs of nervousness beyond a readiness to giggle and laugh somewhat immoderately. In talking about her school, home, and relationships with other children she had no criticism or complaint. She was very cooperative in trying to think about what would cause her not to want to go to school, but considerable time was required before the significant answers came. To the question, "What comes into your mind?" she finally said, "I think of the reading." "Is it too hard?" "No," she replied, "I know all the words." Finally, after further attempts to think, she said, "My eyes get sore and tired." In a similar fashion she finally said of the games, chiefly kick ball, "It makes me tired." She did not like to walk to school although that was a period of pleasant association with the other children along the way, but liked it if her father took her in the car. "It's so far to walk (six blocks); my legs hurt." At night she imagined there was a man in her room but no other association was brought out to account for this. In the morning if she waked up facing the ray of sunlight that came thru her window, she was frightened. The parents had noticed the sensitiveness of her eyes to sunlight. When asked to tell how she felt in the morning when she thought of going to school, she said, "It makes me feel jittery."

As a result of these findings, the child was put on half-time school attendance. She was told that she could go to school in the morning if she felt like it; that if she did not wish to go she could stay at home and spend part of the morning in bed after breakfast; and that if, at school, she felt she did not want to stay, she did not need to cry but should tell her teacher who would let her either come home or go to the room where the rest couches were. Her mother would take her to school and bring her home in the car.

This program was followed for two months. There were two slight recurrences of the before-school resistance but these were quickly overcome and the child went to school. An eye examination had disclosed

TABLE 1—BASIC DATA AND RESULTS OF REST TREATMENT FOR TWENTY CHILDREN DIAGNOSED AS SUSCEPTIBLE TO FATIGUE

CASE NUMBER	SEX	AGE*	INTELLIGENCE ^b	PHYSICAL DEVELOPMENT ^c	HEALTH SYMPTOMS	RESULTS ^d
1	Boy	8	Average	11	Nervous; enlarged tonsils and adenoids	No improvement noted; cooperation poor; cod-liver oil recommended; left the city
2	Girl	11	Average	11	Nervous; fears, indigestion; tantrums	Very noticeable improvement (6 months); no tantrums; schoolwork good
3	Girl	10	Average	12	Nervous; unsatisfactory sleep	Very noticeable improvement (6 months); "so much more at peace with herself"; "sometimes nervous" (10 months)
4	Boy	8	Average	10	Nervous	No improvement noted (6 months); removal of tonsils and adenoids recommended; cooperation poor; left the city; returned later and resumed treatment; cooperation good; entirely satisfactory adjustment (6 years)
5	Boy	9	Average	10	Nervous; enlarged tonsils and adenoids	No improvement noted; cooperation poor; left the city
6	Girl	9	Average	9	Nervous	Entirely satisfactory adjustment (3 years); "tops, lovely character"
7	Boy	7	Average	9	Nervous	Slight but noticeable improvement (1 year)
8	Boy	6	Average	6	Nervous	Slight but noticeable improvement (6 months); auto accident intervened
9	Girl	12	Average	12	Weeping; temper	Slight but noticeable improvement (6 months); left the city
10	Boy	10	Average	10 (height)	Underweight; nervous	Slight but noticeable improvement (1 month); no improvement noted (3 years); underweight
11	Boy	8	Average	11	Languid	Entirely satisfactory adjustment (4 months)
12	Girl	8	Average	8	Tantrums	Slight but noticeable improvement (4 months); "improving"
13	Boy	10	Average	10	"High-strung"; "erratic"	Slight but noticeable improvement (2 years); "improving"

TABLE 1—BASIC DATA AND RESULTS OF REST TREATMENT FOR TWENTY CHILDREN DIAGNOSED AS SUSCEPTIBLE TO FATIGUE—(Continued)

CASE NUMBER	SEX	AGE ^a	INTELLIGENCE ^b	PHYSICAL DEVELOPMENT ^c	HEALTH SYMPTOMS	RESULTS ^d
14	Boy	8	Superior	8	"Emotional"	Entirely satisfactory adjustment (2½ years); later, appendectomy and poliomyelitis
15	Boy	8	Superior	8	Nervous	Slight but noticeable improvement (3 months); left the city
16	Girl	6	Average	6	Negative behavior; "stubborn"	Very noticeable improvement (5 years); "occasionally negative"; complicated by grandmother in home
17	Boy	12	Average	12	Nervous; unsatisfactory sleep; nails in poor condition	Very noticeable improvement (10 months)
18	Boy	6	Superior	8	Nervous; tendency to stutter; tendency to esophoria; enlarged tonsils and adenoids	Entirely satisfactory adjustment (3 years); removal of tonsils and adenoids recommended
19	Boy	6	Superior	6	Nervous; unsatisfactory sleep	Entirely satisfactory adjustment (3 years)
20	Boy	8	Superior	10	Nervous	Very noticeable improvement (2 years)

Read table: Case number 1 was a boy eight years of age with average intelligence. His physical development, as indicated by height and weight, was equal to that of the average eleven-year-old boy. He was described as nervous and had enlarged tonsils and adenoids. He showed no improvement following the rest treatment; his cooperation was poor; cod-liver oil was recommended for him; he left the city in a short time. Similarly read the data for the other cases listed in column 1.

^a Last birthday at time of first contact with the psychologist.

^b "Average" means an intelligence quotient between 90 and 110. "Superior" means a quotient above 110.

^c Physical development as indicated by height and weight is expressed here in terms of age. Each age given in this column means that the child's height and weight were approximately equal to the median height and weight of children of the same sex at the given age.

^d The time period given in parentheses is the time during which the child was in contact with the psychologist. Statements in quotation marks are remarks written by the teacher on the blank provided for reporting the child's progress.

only a very slight visual defect, but glasses were provided as a further preventive measure. At the time of the child's second visit to the psychologist (after two weeks) all things were going well. When asked what she did if she got to feeling bad in school, the child said, "I can lie down on the couch." At the end of two months she returned to a full school day and has had no further trouble.

RESULTS OF THE PROGRAM

Space does not permit a detailed statement of the results of the rest program in all of the seventy-nine cases mentioned earlier in this article. Table 1, however, gives certain pertinent items of information for twenty of these cases selected more or less at random. In addition to these data, a few statements are made here about the group as a whole.

The boys outnumbered the girls, sixty-six to thirteen. Thirty children were average in height for their ages; forty-eight were above average in height by from one to four years; and one child was a year below average in height. Evidently the group was not below par in physical development. The physical health of the children was also normal with the few exceptions noted earlier. Cooperation with the rest program was good in all but three cases. Of the seventy-nine children, thirty made entirely satisfactory adjustments to life within periods ranging from one month to seven years; thirty-two made very noticeable improvement; ten made slight but noticeable improvement; and seven made no noticeable improvement during the time they were under the psychologist's observation.

Many of the parents have reported that in addition to helping their children, the rest program gave them a better understanding of child management. One mother said, "You don't know what it has done for the whole family." The reports of the children have been equally gratifying. "I feel rested," "I'm not so tired," "I don't get into so many fights," "I'm not so crabby as I was," "I don't get mad so easy," "My teacher says I'm doing my work better," "I sleep and when I wake up I'm so hungry I can eat everything in the house"—such comments are definite indications of improved adjustment.

A letter received in March from a ten-year-old boy said: "I have followed your advice. I have been resting every day since February 10. I feel just fine. The teacher said I do better than I used to do before. Thanks for your help." His teacher reported three months later as follows: "D.'s classroom work is good. He completes all his assignments. His behavior is much improved; he seldom loses his temper now. When he is angry he refrains from throwing things as he used to do.

The children like him as a leader and choose him on their teams. I believe our efforts with D. have been very worthwhile. His mother has commented upon his changed behavior at home, too." The original complaint eight months before had stated: "Behavior very poor—has fits of temper, throws things, kicks, and hits when he doesn't get his own way—is mean to other children who aren't bothering him."

CONCLUSION

In carrying on this program of study and treatment for children who are susceptible to fatigue, the school system is obviously handicapped by a lack of sufficient personnel in the field of individual guidance. It is not possible to give as much time and attention to each case as might be desirable. A choice must be made, with such adjustments as seem imperative, between intensive and long-continued work with a few children and a reasonably adequate amount of attention to a larger number. In general, our decision has been made in favor of the latter procedure. Contacts with the psychologist are terminated when the school and home report that the child's problem is fairly well in hand, and attention is turned to other children whose needs are greater. The results obtained seem to justify this procedure.

In looking to the future, one may expect that with the growing knowledge of endocrine therapy and nutritional needs, as well as more expert care in infancy and early childhood, there will eventually be eliminated many problems which have actively engaged the attention of psychologists, psychiatrists, and criminologists. It is equally important, however, to recognize the need for reducing the strains of school, home, and other aspects of social life on children. The lesson to be learned from the borderline group which succumbs to these strains is that they constitute a potential danger for all children.

FATIGUE, whether chronic or temporary, is a destructive factor in growth. Chronic fatigue in a particular child may be discovered by the routine physical examination or by the child's teacher. Direct measures should be taken to determine the cause of the fatigue, first, in terms of any physical strain or infection, and second, in terms of the child's daily schedule. A fatigued child suffers a definite handicap, as he is unable to take full advantage of opportunities offered for growth and development.—Driscoll, Gertrude P., in *Teachers College Record*, October 1938, p. 28.

PERSONALITY PROBLEMS AND READING DISABILITY

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BEFORE ATTEMPTING TO ANALYZE THE RELATION between reading disability and personality maladjustment we should take an overview of the meaning of mental health as a goal for all education and for society. Unquestionably, the positive and constructive side of mental hygiene is the one to be increasingly emphasized and accepted in education. Mental hygiene offers a philosophy or objective in terms of optimum personality development. We may think of this objective from the standpoint of the individual in his striving to get along happily and effectively in his work or with his family and associates; or it may be considered from the standpoint of the study and prevention of the various forms of mental maladjustment. The aim in either case—mental health—involves the adjustment of individuals to themselves and to the world at large with the maximum of effectiveness, satisfaction, and cheerfulness. It implies socially considerate behavior and the ability to face and accept reality.

Let us, as educators, face reality ourselves and try to discover what some of the emotionally weighted factors are which make for a combination of reading disabilities and personality problems. These combinations are noted in many otherwise normal children who are referred for clinical study.

A necessary principle to accept is that there is a cause for the children's behavior. Behavior does not merely "happen" or proceed from something called "stubbornness" or "willfulness," but comes as the result of a chain of circumstances that need to be understood. We even discover that this behavior is "purposive" in the sense that the youngster acts as he does, not only because of a chain of events of which he may or may not be conscious, but also because he is definitely trying to reach some goal. The diagnostician must investigate each case with the hope of locating as many contributing factors as possible, study their interrelationships, and weigh their importance in the light of the child's reactions to his difficulties.

PERSONALITY PROBLEMS AS A CAUSE OF READING DIFFICULTIES

Among the many possible factors which contribute to reading difficulties, emphasis will be placed upon the emotional and the environmental. Continued observation indicates that a great many children are emotionally unprepared to meet any of life's competitive situations because of early experiences long before the reading failure.

By means of purposeful interviews with parents it is frequently discovered that this immaturity is the result of early home treatment. Parents and parent-substitutes are not always aware that emotional patterns formed thru habits of weaning, eating, sleeping, sphincter control, and dressing, thru care during illness, and thru other conditioning make up a very important part of the child's pre-school education. It is in the emotional values with which these early experiences are endowed that children's feelings and attitudes toward the more complex experiences of later life are rooted.

Emotional immaturity due to overprotection at home—Frequently the child designated as "lazy" or "inattentive" who fails to grasp reading from the start has been overprotected at home. He may have experienced pleasure only thru fostered dependency. He may have had no practice in gaining feelings of satisfaction thru self-direction in accomplishing tasks for himself and others in his home environment. Such a child lacks any general attacking attitude toward reading which requires an independent approach. School requirements on a competitive level may be met with infantile indifference which is often interpreted as "stupidity" or "stubbornness." Some of these children project their unconscious patterns of domination by maintaining infantile dependency patterns toward all adult requirements. They have learned thru early experience that "holding out" brings its reward in attention where they are the center of the stage. When the child is comfortable and attached to such dependent relationships, reading may mean a step in growing up which he resists.

Frank, an eight-year-old boy referred for study when in Grade II-A, was discovered to be an overprotected child. His insecurity was noted in his generally confused manner and his extreme shyness. He never looked anyone in the face, and he frowned and bobbed his head from side to side when he talked. His reading attempts were marked by long pauses, by pointing to every word, and by losing his place. He expressed a dislike for school. Since his test results showed him to have an IQ of 126, there was a real challenge to discover why this intelligent boy was so emotionally and educationally blocked.

Diagnostic reading tests indicated that he made definite reversals of certain letters, words, and parts of words. He substituted words similar in appearance or with like phonetic elements and was unable to recognize the letters of the alphabet.

Interviews with the mother revealed many instances of unwise maternal handling which, no doubt, had set up feelings of inadequacy in any situation outside the protected home atmosphere. Due to his keen intellect, his problem was fast becoming intensified by his struggle

to free himself from the infantilism forced upon him by his mother. Thru treatment interviews the mother came to look at the whole situation more objectively. She came to understand that her excuses for doing everything for Frank "because his ways did not suit her esthetic fancy" were really rationalizations. They were based on her unconscious desire to keep her only child a baby as long as possible.

Each of the following plans contributed to a change in this boy's whole outlook on life. First, a physical examination was given. All the family had feared that a slight heart condition, a residual of diphtheria when he was two years of age, might mean losing him. The examination revealed no heart trouble and this served to eliminate much needless worry and apprehension. His mother stopped calling him "Sonny," which had irritated him, and began using his own name. She ceased washing and dressing him. She allowed him to comb his hair in pompadour fashion even tho it covered up his natural wave. Frank's wishes were respected in being provided knickers, tuck-in shirts, and a leather jacket to take the place of the shirts with button-on shorts which he considered "sissy."

Frank was assigned household duties and the responsibility of keeping his playroom in order, a task which had always been done by his mother. He was given a weekly allowance, which he saved to buy Christmas gifts for others. His mother accepted the boys he brought home to play with, the same boys whom she had previously considered "dirty" and "rough." She had come to understand his need to identify himself with such "real" boys because of his inferiority feelings about being a "sissy."

About one month after these new home procedures, along with remedial reading lessons with a special teacher, had been initiated, Frank developed a bold swagger in front of his group. His attitudes in the homeroom changed to those of a very outgoing, talkative boy which the regular teacher called "insolent" and "defiant." However, the teacher's acceptance of these performances as wholesome indications was obtained thru helping her to relate them to his new experiences in emancipation from overprotection. Her cooperation was sought in giving him praise to counteract and satisfy his "show-off" attitude until he could become accustomed to success.

Progress in reading was very slow at first and much encouragement was needed to release his fears. Before the end of the first six months, however, his improvement was spectacular. He was changed from a nervous, timid, ingoing boy to an enthusiastic one who hurried in and out of class independently, sometimes whistling on the way. During the second term of special reading lessons he was placed in the B

group in reading in his own class, and it was proposed that he be moved into the highest group at the earliest opportunity.

Emotional conflict due to insecurity at home—Turning from Frank's case, we find other cases with home situations which produce such severe emotional blockings that no amount of pressure can make concentration on schoolwork possible. Such general feelings of insecurity often grow out of broken homes, parental incompatibility, adult domination, constant association with alcoholic parents, financial worries, and conflicting or inconsistent discipline. To this list may be added rivalry of brothers and sisters, being displaced by a younger child, being rejected, unloved, or unwanted, and being overshadowed thru comparisons with more favored members of the family. It is necessary not only to ferret out these relationships and feelings but also to help the parent realize that they exist because of his own emotional needs.

One case of insecurity at home was that of Fred, who had deep feelings of rejection. He was the fifth of seven children of a college-graduate mother who had taught school for eleven years. He was referred for diagnosis at nine and one-half years of age from Grade III-B of the school he had always attended. Test results indicated normal intelligence, yet he could make no headway in reading. His ability to pay attention and follow directions was very poor. He daydreamed and had a tendency to take things which did not belong to him.

Altho his mother was aware of Fred's conditioning, she was so involved in certain marital conflicts that little cooperation in removing any of the contributing causes was obtained from her over a two-year period. After Fred's birth, and for two years before the arrival of the next boy, Fred had been called their "good luck" baby because about the time of his birth the father had secured a good position after long unemployment, had received a rapid salary raise, and thus had saved their home. When Fred was displaced by the next baby he became what the mother still calls him—her "problem child." Thinking to undo the spoiling, the father had abruptly withdrawn his attentions from Fred, and the boy developed strong feelings of not being wanted by either mother or father. Enrolment in school meant added rejection because he had to share his teacher, whom he identified as a mother-substitute, with all his classmates. Meanwhile his rival brother remained at home, using Fred's toys and having the undivided attention of their mother. Fred sought satisfaction by taking objects from the kindergarten classroom. The rejection cycle evolved. Unwise punishment followed, accompanied by the father's avowed disdain. For sometime Fred was deprived of his part of the candy allotment which was regularly given to all the children after the evening meal. No wonder he found accept-

ance of school requirements distasteful, especially in reading, because the reports from school had caused these latest forms of rejection at home.

Finally, when a baby girl arrived to completely dominate the household, Fred's "hatred of reading" knew no bounds. The mother, who attributed his reading difficulty to mishandling by the second-grade teacher, failed to relate the condition to his whole regressive pattern. The situation was further aggravated by his need for glasses, which were not provided until his second term in Grade III-B. However, he had little benefit from these glasses, since he deliberately left them off for long periods. Finally his older brother removed the lenses and used them for magnifying glasses.

Fred's escape into daydreams became more pronounced during the weeks of his rival brother's illness, when he often accompanied his parents as far as the hospital. They went there twice daily, often taking presents to the sick boy and leaving Fred out in the car alone. Later Fred frequently had to be reminded not to hurt the recuperating boy. He was forced to share a bed with two other brothers, and a conflict between Fred and the thirteen-year-old brother developed. Defensive personality traits appeared in his relationships with all boys and he became generally disliked. What he stole he often gave to boys to buy back their friendship. No one seemed to realize that his aggressive acts toward these boys were a projection of his hatred toward his younger brother.

His poor marks in reading brought persistent criticism from his mother, so Fred determined to "get revenge against her" by pulling his marks still lower. Other means of revenge were breaking windows which she must pay for and reporting her to his father in order to hear him "bawl her out" in front of the children.

In September, two years after his mental test, Fred had reached Grade V-A but diagnostic reading tests indicated that his reading was still at the second-grade level. At that time the service of the remedial reading teacher was offered, to begin as soon as his eyes were refitted with glasses. This remedial service could not be started until December, however, due to a series of reasons given by the mother for not providing the glasses. Among these reasons was her contention that she had to take care of her own eyes first.

Despite the delay, anticipation of special attention from the remedial teacher proved a turning point in Fred's unhappy school career. He voluntarily went to this teacher several times and reported that his doctor was having difficulty getting his eyes fitted but that he would have the glasses soon. In the meantime, the teacher and Fred discussed

plans for a change in his activities and he was advised to join the Boy Scouts. While he was still waiting for his mother to take him for the eye examination, he voluntarily took part in a program for the mothers' visiting day by showing samples of various kinds of wood which he had learned about in his Boy Scout work. Upon this occasion the mother visited in his rival brother's room but not in Fred's.

- After five months of work with the remedial teacher there was evidence of Fred's becoming more stable and secure. He volunteered to read in the homeroom. Thru the efforts of several teachers to praise him and give him certain classroom duties he began to feel less rejected. In one class, where he had daydreamed excessively, he was made the secretary; thus a constructive, pleasant experience was substituted for a destructive one. At home, bunk beds were provided in the boys' sleeping quarters, thereby relieving the friction caused by the brothers' having to sleep together.

PERSONALITY PROBLEMS AS A RESULT OF READING DIFFICULTIES

In many cases emotional upsets may arise from the child's reading disability itself. Normal, wholesome personality development in the social group demands that the child function on a satisfying level so that he gains a sense of "belonging." He acquires his feeling of having "status" by realizing that he is acceptable and is making a contribution. Inferiority feelings are almost certain to result from reading failure because of the child's own frustration or his parents' disappointment. Attempts to relieve this tension may involve the child in all sorts of antisocial or regressive behavior. Resistance to authority, aggressiveness toward other children, or bullying may be used to gain the attention which the child would actually prefer to get thru successful school achievement.

John, a curly-headed, only child, showed such tendencies toward aggressiveness when referred for clinical study while he was in Grade III-B and ten years of age. His intelligence was found to be dull normal. He was failing in reading, was considered "lazy," and constantly ignored directions. He was a disturbing influence in all his classes, talking, hitting, pinching, crawling on the floor, and sometimes attempting to choke others on his way thru the aisles.

The mother reported that in her efforts to help her boy adjust she had become acquainted with every teacher he had had in the two small towns where they had lived before coming to Detroit. She was of the opinion that all the reading John knew was what she had taught him in the "hours and hours" she had labored with him evenings and during summer vacations. She little realized that the un-

fortunate thing she had taught him was to dominate her. He had learned this thru seeing her become exasperated with him. She had conditioned him to get the attention he craved on a negative level. Little wonder that reading was associated in his mind with punishment in having to stay in after school to study. Recommendations that a tutor in remedial reading be provided and that home study be discontinued were both ignored. Diagnostic reading tests, given nine months after his first referral, indicated that his outstanding handicap was that he laboriously spelled out each word according to his mother's method. He seemed to have no conception of a visual pattern of words.

Finally, tutoring with a remedial reading teacher was arranged for daily half-hour periods. After two months of this help he knew 300 words. His manner changed gradually. At first when confronted with an obstacle he would say, "I guess we won't do that today," but he was not permitted to give up. He was made to face responsibility for his own behavior.

Within three months John was reading from a second reader and he urgently requested to be allowed to read a particular story from a more difficult reader. When he was ready for Grade IV-A he was heard to say on a certain occasion, "It's a fifty-fifty proposition. I do my part so my teacher can do hers." He said he was prepared to live in friendly relationship with other children. Recalling his former feelings of inadequacy in reading, about which the children teased him, he said, "But, by golly, now I can show 'em." He benefited greatly by being transferred to a different school where his earlier behavior was not known. His tutoring was gradually decreased over a fourteen-month period until he now stands on his own feet in Grade V-B. The school has recognized that John has personality traits which need special managing, and allowances are made for his achievement in accordance with his dull normal level. Thru frequent personal interviews with the principal on a friendly basis, and thru his teachers' ignoring his attention-getting devices and allowing him special attention in art, for which he shows some aptitude, he is making a good adjustment. He attends the Y. M. C. A. regularly, going there alone on the bus.

SOME PRINCIPLES OF MENTAL HYGIENE FOR THE TEACHER

As indicated in the foregoing examples, the teacher's task is not solely one of "understanding" the maladjusted child, but of helping him to do something constructive about his problem in a way that develops his personality. Corrective treatment is aimed at helping the child to free himself from dependency, to gain courage and self-control,

and to face reality thru confidence in human beings. The following observations may be helpful in this connection:

1. A consistently sincere and sympathetic atmosphere in the class-room has distinct therapeutic value. A simple, friendly attitude helps the child to make a positive transference to the teacher's requirements. In adjusting disturbed personalities, mental hygiene values these factors highly.

2. Status in a group is of major importance, and for the child who cannot compete in reading a plan should be made whereby he can gain approval in other ways.

3. Those who have had experience in both the teaching and social-work fields are agreed that the teacher whose efforts are the most constructive is the one who can lead the child to discuss his feelings about his life experiences, both in and out of school, and who can withhold criticism or comment until a friendly rapport has been thoroly established. At that time only can the child afford to accept the teacher's opinions because a mutual confidence exists between them. Frequently the teacher-pupil relationship is charged with emotion because the child identifies her, as a person in authority, with either a loved or hated parent.

4. The teacher's personality is a most important factor. She must view the whole problem objectively, with an awareness of its many involvements. She must not allow her security as a "good teacher" to be threatened under perplexing deviations. Not the least significant result of such a wholesome attitude on her part is her own inner growth and the resulting benefits to all the children with whom she deals.

5. Ability to interpret children to their parents and to gain the parents' cooperation and understanding is for the teacher a requisite in developing the mental health of her pupils.

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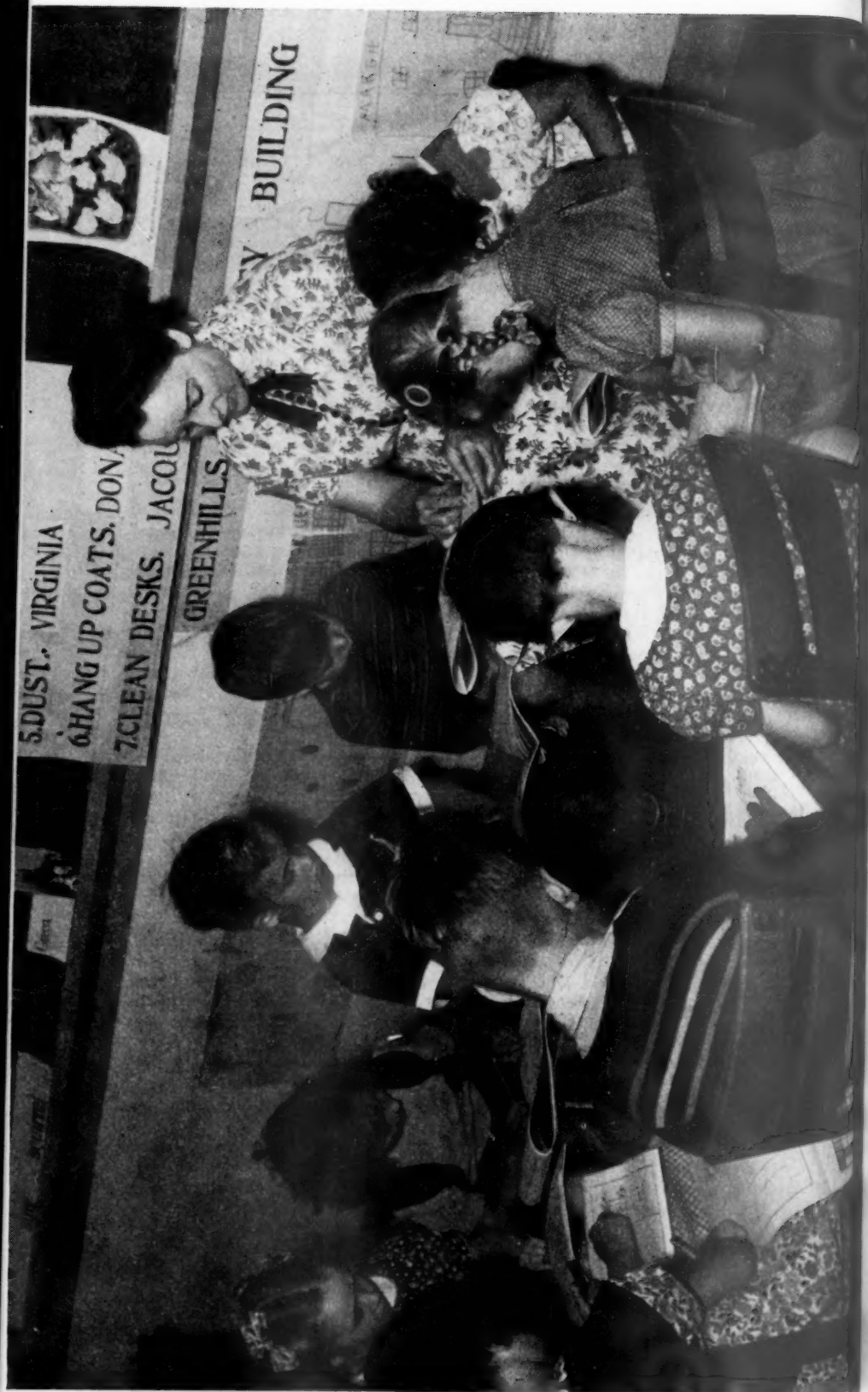
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6.HANG UP COATS. DONA

7.CLEAN DESKS. JACQU

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CHAPTER X

GENERAL ADMINISTRATIVE AND SUPERVISORY PRACTICES

EDITORIAL COMMENT

THE preceding chapters have dealt with a variety of methods for studying and meeting the needs of each individual child. Major emphasis has been placed on the responsibilities of classroom teachers and other specialists in carrying on an adequate program of pupil guidance. Obviously the successful discharge of these responsibilities requires competent school management, and many contributors have touched upon administrative and supervisory matters in describing particular programs. There are, however, a number of pertinent problems of administration and supervision which have received little or no direct consideration in the earlier parts of this book. One of the most important is the general problem of pupil classification and promotion. This chapter discusses several such problems and shows how certain schools or school systems have attempted to solve them.

Moore begins the chapter by describing a plan of classifying the pupils of each grade into three groups according to reading ability, chronological age, mental age, social background, and teachers' judgments. He shows that when the curriculum is adjusted to the ability level of each group, the children are happier and do better work in relation to their abilities than the pupils in schools which make less provision for individual differences. Deming appraises a similar plan of grouping and concludes that while no such scheme is entirely satisfactory, ability grouping within grades is helpful if factors other than ability are considered also. In the third article Mecker reports on the special classification and promotion of retarded upper-grade pupils in his school.

The next two authors discuss the administration of remedial instruction in specific fields. Leland outlines a plan involving the assignment of remedial teachers to assist regular teachers with children who cannot read. Miller tells about the evolution of a speech training program. At first all children with speech handicaps attended special correction centers for two half-days each week; then an itinerant teacher of speech correction was provided; more recently a preventive speech program has been initiated in the primary grades. The closing article, by Stuart, reviews the efforts of a state department of education to stimulate and guide teachers in meeting the needs of individual pupils.

A selected bibliography on the administrative and supervisory aspects of pupil adjustment is given on page 651.—*Editorial Committee.*

GROUPING PUPILS ACCORDING TO THEIR ABILITIES AND NEEDS

T. E. MOORE

Principal, Eugene Field School, Tulsa, Oklahoma

THE ATYPICAL PUPIL has always been a problem, chiefly because we have tried to fit him into a school planned for the average pupil. In the Eugene Field School an attempt has been made to fit the school to the child thru a flexible plan of grouping according to abilities and needs. This plan is not an experiment but is the result of ten years of experience in attempting to give every child an equal opportunity, not only in academic fields but also in citizenship training and the development of habits, attitudes, and ideals which contribute to happy living. The following pages give a brief description of the plan, together with some of the results obtained.

General character and organization of the school—Eugene Field is a kindergarten and six-grade school in an industrial section of the city. About two-thirds of the children are somewhat handicapped socially and economically and are somewhat below normal mentally and educationally. The average IQ for all the pupils is 93. The total enrolment is 956 and the number of teachers is nineteen. The school has a platoon organization of sixteen sections, including one section of first-grade pupils and all sections in Grades II thru VI. In addition, there are six sections of first-grade and kindergarten children which are not platooned. The pupils in each platoon spend one-half of each day with the homeroom teachers and the other half in special classes. The subjects studied in the homeroom are reading, social studies, penmanship, and arithmetic, while the special classes include art, music, library, auditorium, science, and physical education. Since double sections attend the library and physical education classes, the sixteen platoon sections are supervised by only fourteen teachers. The average number of pupils per section in the platoon organization is approximately forty.

Achievement testing program—In Tulsa a battery of achievement tests is administered each year in April or May to the pupils in Grades II thru VI. The sixth grade is given the *New Stanford Achievement Test*; ¹ the fourth and fifth grades, the *Modern School Achievement Tests*; ² the third grade, the *Gates Silent Reading Tests: Grades 3 to 8 Series*; ² and the second grade, the *Gates Silent Reading Tests*:

¹ World Book Co., Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York.

² Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

*Primary Series.*³ In addition, the pupils in Grades III thru VI at Eugene Field are given the *Public School Reading Test*.⁴

Reading is considered the most important academic subject. A reading grade level is determined for each child by averaging the grade scores made on all reading tests taken by the child in the spring. Figure I shows graphically the wide range of reading ability in Grades III, IV, and V. Each dot on this chart represents one pupil's average reading grade level in the spring of 1937. In the fifth grade the poorest pupil had a reading grade level of 2.7 and the best pupil a reading grade level of 9.2, thus revealing a range in reading ability of 6.5 school years. Obviously, not all the fifth-grade pupils were ready to begin sixth-grade work.

Figure I may give the impression that the Eugene Field School is a type all its own. It should be observed, however, that the Eugene Field medians and the standard medians were not far apart. In the third and fifth grades the pupils as a group were only one month retarded and in the fourth grade they were five months retarded in reading. Nevertheless, the marked differences in ability within each grade called for some kind of administrative adjustment.

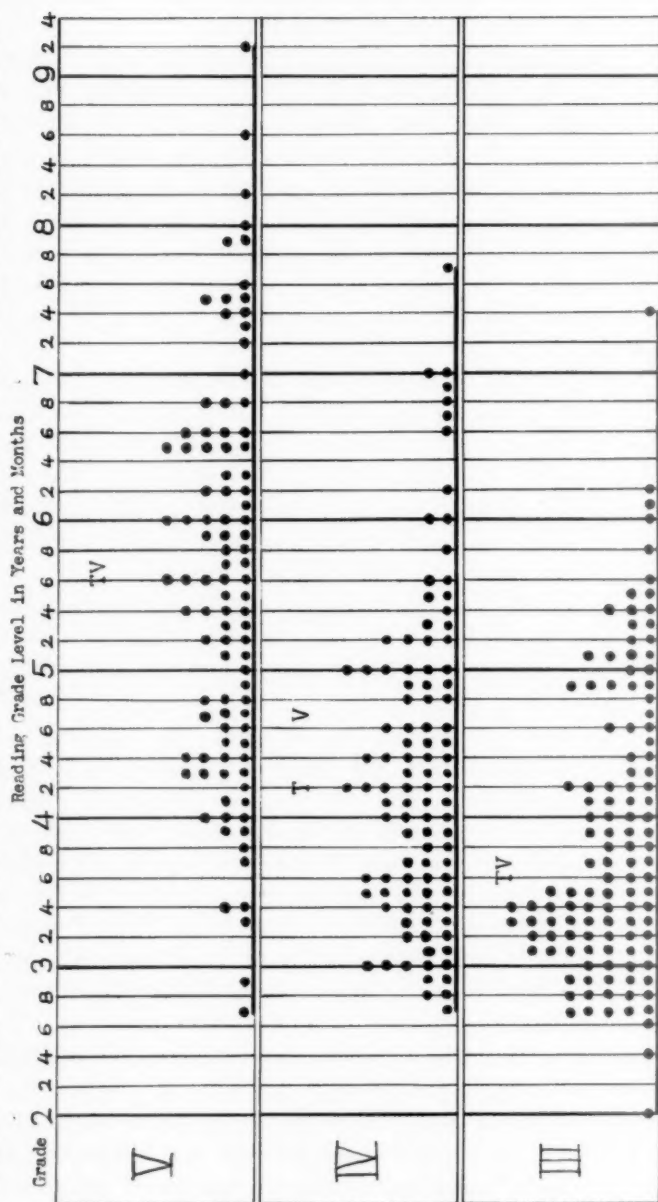
Plan of grouping—Before school begins in September, the children of each grade from I thru VI are divided into three groups, "1" (high), "2" (middle), and "3" (low). These groups are not strictly homogeneous but the pupils in each one are similar in a number of respects. Five criteria are used in making the divisions: (1) reading ability as determined by standard tests, (2) teachers' judgments, (3) chronological age, (4) mental age, and (5) social background. Figure II gives a picture of the grouping in the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades as far as reading ability is concerned. The overlapping between sections is due to the four other factors used in grouping the children. Such groupings are not final. A number of children are shifted from one group to another during the year, usually at a teacher's request but sometimes at the pupil's request. Many are shifted also in the annual grouping before school begins.

Grouping children has some disadvantages but many advantages. The chief reason for such procedure is to make it possible for the teacher to meet the pupils' needs more efficiently. These needs are not confined to academic work. The writer believes that citizenship traits also may be developed more successfully in groups of children with somewhat similar abilities. How often does a slow child in an average or bright group become president of the group? How often is he selected

³ Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

⁴ Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Illinois.

FIGURE I—READING GRADE LEVELS ATTAINED BY PUPILS IN GRADES III, IV, AND V AT EUGENE FIELD SCHOOL, SPRING 1937



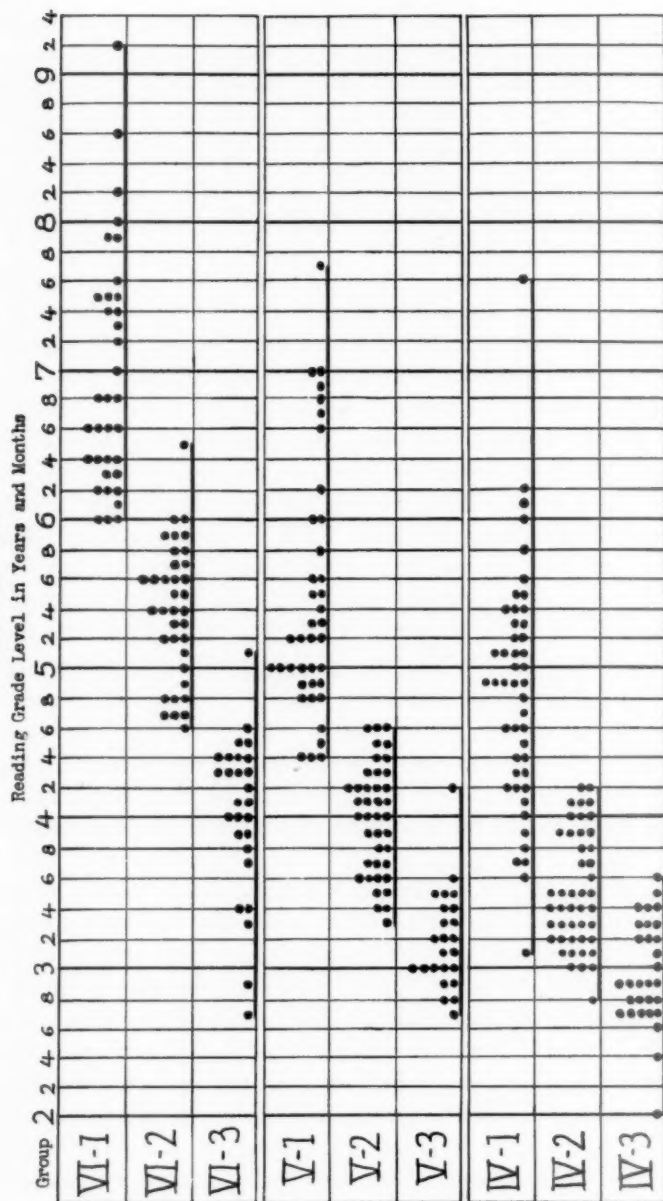
to take an important part in a play? Very seldom. Instead, such a child usually opens and closes the windows. But in a group of relatively slow pupils someone must be president, someone must be a member of the student council, and someone must take the lead in dramatic productions. While the finished product may not be as good as the brighter group produces, the actual training received may be of greater importance for the children in the slower group. The actual participation in such activities will certainly be more valuable than opening and closing the windows.

Curriculum adjustments—Figure II clearly shows that the children in the VI-3 section are not ready to do normal sixth-grade work. Neither are the children in the low fifth grade ready to do normal fifth-grade work. Yet if these children of low ability were not segregated they would probably be exposed to the regular work of their grades. Instead of following the usual program regardless of their ability, the children at all levels are given work they can do. The high sections, VI-1, V-1, and IV-1, follow the regular Tulsa curriculum with some enrichment. The middle sections, VI-2, V-2, and IV-2, follow the curriculum one year below their regular classifications wherever reading is concerned. For example, the VI-2 class follows the fifth-grade curriculum. In the low sections, VI-3, V-3, and IV-3, we have the real cases of retardation. For instance, the VI-3 pupils are the older pupils of the sixth grade but have reading abilities of about fourth-grade level. To give these children typical fourth-grade materials would not be satisfactory since their interests are those of older children. The reading materials must be kept on the fourth-grade level of difficulty and yet be the kind that will interest twelve- and thirteen-year-old pupils.

All the children remain in their reading-level groups during the major part of the day but at certain periods some regroupings are made to challenge their abilities in music, art, and arithmetic.

Pupil attitudes—In some schools a certain amount of stigma is attached to the segregation of slow children. At Eugene Field, with few exceptions, such children have never seemed to feel any embarrassment after they were placed in the low sections. On the contrary, they have seemed very happy. Several reasons contribute to this wholesome attitude on the part of the retarded child. First, he is separated from the brighter children only during the time he is studying the subjects in which he is retarded. Second, he has an equal chance of promotion at the end of the year if he makes an honest effort. Third, he has equal representation on the student council and the school patrol, and he has equal opportunity and encouragement to join any of the other pupil

FIGURE II—READING GRADE LEVELS OF PUPILS IN ABILITY GROUPS, GRADES IV TO VI, EUGENE FIELD SCHOOL, SEPTEMBER 1937



Each dot represents one pupil.
The reading grade level for each pupil is an average of his grade scores on several standardized reading tests.

organizations such as the school chorus, art club, grade Y. M. C. A., Cubs, Scouts, and the school ball team. The fourth and undoubtedly the most important reason is the teachers' philosophy in regard to the slow child. The teachers at Eugene Field cannot be praised too highly for their splendid attitude toward this child. They recognize his personal weaknesses and his environmental handicaps; they strive to minimize these weaknesses and handicaps in every possible way; and above all they try to make him feel that he has an important part to play in society.

Measurable results—Everyone asks about the results of this plan. The disappointing thing is that the most important results cannot be measured or must be measured indirectly. Progress in subjectmatter can be and has been measured carefully. Extensive tables could be given showing the progress of each section in each subject, but subjectmatter hardly deserves that much emphasis. The available data indicate that the average yearly progress in reading is about one and one-third that of unselected pupils in other schools, and that the outcomes in other subjects are correspondingly satisfactory.

Some people feel that the retarded sections should eventually catch up to the other sections. A few pupils do catch up or go from a low to a high section in two or three years and a few others move from a low to a middle section. On the whole, however, the low sections cannot be expected to catch up, for the average IQ of these pupils in the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades is only 80. A more reasonable expectation is that such pupils should do better than they would have done in typical heterogeneous groups. Recently a comparison was made between the progress of children who were retarded one year or more at Eugene Field and children who were retarded the same amount in other Tulsa schools where very little curriculum adjustment was being made. The Eugene Field pupils showed 50 percent greater progress per year than the retarded children elsewhere who were trying to do work too difficult for them.

One of the most important outcomes of education, and one of the most difficult to measure, is the child's philosophy of life. If a child is happy we may perhaps assume that he is developing a desirable philosophy. We may also assume that if he is happy he will attend school more regularly and have fewer discipline problems while there. Some objective evidence is available concerning both discipline and attendance at Eugene Field. During the four years the present plan of grouping has been in effect, the average number of discipline cases sent to the principal's office has been reduced from fifteen per week

to three per week. This, we believe, indicates a definitely better adjustment between the pupil and the school.

School people generally seem to feel that the children with low IQ's are the most serious attendance problems. To check on this point, the writer made a study of the attendance of different IQ groups below 100 in six Tulsa schools. The results, summarized below, indicate that the percent of attendance does drop in the groups with lower IQ's.

<i>IQ groups</i>	<i>Number of pupils</i>	<i>Percent of attendance</i>
95-99	110	92
90-94	120	92
85-89	98	90
80-84	74	89
Below 80	91	87

A different picture of the slow child's attendance is obtained, however, after attempts have been made to adjust the school to him. As shown in the following summary, the percent of attendance for all pupils at Eugene Field is higher than that for the city as a whole, while the percent of attendance for sections VI-3, V-3, and IV-3 at Eugene Field, where the greatest adjustments have been made, is higher than that for all pupils at this school altho the average IQ in those sections is only 80.

	<i>Average IQ</i>	<i>Percent of attendance</i>
All Tulsa schools.....	103	90.5
All pupils in Eugene Field School.....	93	91.7
Sections VI-3, V-3, and IV-3 in Eugene Field School.....	80	93.7

In conclusion, the writer believes that the pupil who is commonly called slow because he does not master subjectmatter readily can be made into a happy citizen if he is placed with other pupils of similar ability and if every effort is made to adjust the curriculum to his individual needs.

AN APPRAISAL OF CERTAIN PROCEDURES IN THE CLASSIFICATION AND PROMOTION OF PUPILS

LEON J. DEMING

Superintendent of Schools, Oyster Bay, New York

DURING THE ELEVEN-YEAR PERIOD from 1927-28 to 1938-39 a marked improvement has occurred in the age-grade status of elementary pupils in the Oyster Bay public schools. Detailed figures for the earlier year appear in Table 1, while similar figures for the later year are shown in Table 2. The following is a summary of these data for all pupils in the kindergarten and first eight grades.

	1927-28	1938-39
Percent under-age for grade.....	16	6
Percent over-age for grade.....	19	1
Percent at normal age for grade.....	65	93
Total.....	100	100

This change in age-grade status is merely an outward indication of the better care and adjustment of individual children during the period under consideration. It is the result of a changed educational philosophy and of certain administrative and instructional policies established to make that philosophy effective. The chief aim of the school during this period has been to help boys and girls live and work happily together while each one proceeds at his optimum speed in the accomplishment of tasks adapted to his particular needs and abilities. The individual child has been the center of emphasis, and the school has tried to be a well-ordered home in which facilities are provided for all children and are adjusted to the requirements of each.

Method of grouping—The size of the school made necessary some grouping of pupils within grades, since there were too many pupils of each chronological age for one teacher to handle. Ability as measured by intelligence tests and achievement as measured by achievement tests and by the teacher's judgment were used as criteria for sectioning the boys and girls at each chronological age level. If, on the basis of these criteria, a pupil would have been placed with much younger children, one or more extra promotions were made so that he could have the advantage of being with children of his own chronological and social age. To expedite such extra promotions two special classes were organized to help the pupils make up the work of the grades skipped. These classes have served their purpose and are no longer in use.

Today the school is organized with three sections, A, B, and C, in each grade. Each A and each B section is under a separate teacher,

TABLE 1—AGE-GRADE STATUS OF PUPILS IN THE OYSTER BAY ELEMENTARY SCHOOL
SEPTEMBER 1927

GRADE	AGE																TOTAL NUM- BER	PERCENT		
	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17				Under- age	At normal age	Over- age
Kinder- garten	23	43	7	2	1												76	30.3	65.8	3.9
I		17	46	31	3	6											103	16.5	74.8	8.7
II			7	40	25	13	3	1									89	7.9	73.0	19.1
III				11	37	16	13	5	1	1							84	13.1	63.1	23.8
IV					8	27	26	5	5	1		1					73	11.0	72.6	16.4
V						6	33	13	16	7	2	5	1				83	7.2	55.4	37.4
VI						4	27	17	14	5	4						71	43.7	43.7	12.6
VII								4	21	23	5	10	2				65	6.1	67.7	26.2
VIII									2	3	10	10	7	1	1		34	14.7	58.8	26.5
All grades	23	60	60	84	74	72	102	47	60	47	21	23	4	1			678	16.5	64.8	18.7

Read table: Of the 76 pupils in the kindergarten, 23 were four years old (under-age for grade); 43 were five years old and 7 were six years old (at normal age for grade); 2 were seven years old and 1 was eight years old (over-age for grade). Thus, 30 percent of these pupils were under-age, 66 percent were at normal age, and 4 percent were over-age for the grade. Similarly read figures for the other grades listed.

TABLE 2—AGE-GRADE STATUS OF PUPILS IN THE OYSTER BAY ELEMENTARY SCHOOL
SEPTEMBER 1938

GRADE	AGE														TOTAL NUM- BER	PERCENT		
	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14					Under- age	At normal age	Over- age
Kinder- garten	3	54													57	5.3	94.7	0.0
I			56	2											58	0.0	100.0	0.0
II			5	50											55	9.1	90.9	0.0
III				2	62	4									68	2.9	97.1	0.0
IV					6	54	11								71	8.5	91.5	0.0
V						4	51	10	1						66	6.1	92.4	1.5
VI							4	63	9	3					79	5.1	91.1	3.8
VII								1	45	21	1				68	1.5	97.0	1.5
VIII									1	9	68	15			93	10.8	89.2	0.0
All grades	3	54	61	54	68	62	66	75	64	92	16				615	5.7	93.5	0.8

Read table: Of the 57 pupils in the kindergarten, 3 were four years old (under-age for grade) while 54 were five years old (at normal age for grade). Thus, 5 percent were under-age and 95 percent were at normal age for the grade. Similarly read figures for the other grades listed.

but the C sections for Grades I, II, and III are placed together with one teacher and the C sections for Grades IV, V, and VI with another teacher. The latter two groups might be considered special classes.

Operation of the plan—The staff of the school has made several studies at different age levels to evaluate this method of sectioning. The central fact that emerges from all the studies is that there is a great overlapping in ability and achievement among the various sections of a grade. Table 3 shows this situation for three sections of fifth-grade pupils. It is apparent that altho there are distinct differences in the medians of these sections with respect to intelligence quotients and composite achievement ages, there is marked overlapping of individuals in the three groups. As a result of such findings, the operation of the plan of grouping has been studied to obtain ad-

TABLE 3—CHRONOLOGICAL AGES, INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENTS, AND ACHIEVEMENT AGES OF THREE SECTIONS OF FIFTH-GRADE PUPILS, 1937-38

SECTION	NUMBER OF PUPILS	CHRONOLOGICAL AGE															
		Median	10-0	10-6	11-0	11-6	12-0	12-6									
V-A	26	11-0	3	9	13	1											
V-B	22	11-1	1	8	10	3											
V-C	27	11-3	1	6	13	5	1	1									
SECTION	NUMBER OF PUPILS	INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENT*															
		Median	50	55	60	65	70	75	80	85	90	95	100	105	110	115	120
V-A	25	108										2	3	13	4	2	1
V-B	21	98						2		6	5	5	2	1			
V-C	21	81	1				6	3	3	2	3	3					
SECTION	NUMBER OF PUPILS	COMPOSITE ACHIEVEMENT AGE ^b															
		Median	7-0	7-6	8-0	8-6	9-0	9-6	10-0	10-6	11-0	11-6	12-0	12-6			
V-A	25	11-3								1	7	8	4	3	2		
V-B	22	10-2						1	5	13	2	1					
V-C	25	9-8	1	1				9	5	8	1						

Read table: The 26 pupils in section V-A had a median chronological age of 11 years and no months. Three of these pupils had ages of 10-0 but less than 10-6; nine had ages of 10-6 but less than 11-0; thirteen had ages of 11-0 but less than 11-6; and one had an age of 11-6 but less than 12-0. Similarly read figures for the other sections and for the measures of intelligence and achievement.

* Kuhlmann-Anderson Intelligence Tests (Educational Test Bureau, Minneapolis).

^b Metropolitan Achievement Tests, Intermediate Battery (World Book Co., Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York).

ditional light on its advantages and limitations. Thru the past few years conferences with the teachers of the groups, individual case studies of some of the pupils, and examination of the school records of all of them have revealed some pertinent information. Of the seventy-five pupils represented in Table 3, forty-four have continued in the same sections in which they were placed in the first grade. Nineteen of these are and always have been in an A section, nine have been in a B section, and sixteen in a C section or special class. Apparently original placement at the highest and lowest levels has been more accurate and less subject to change than the placement of the middle group.

The history of the class as a whole shows considerable shifting among groups during the years the pupils have been in school. Six pupils now in the A section have previously been in a B section and one of them has also been in a C section. Seven of the pupils in the present B section were formerly in a C section or in a special class, while six of them were formerly in an A section. Six of the pupils in the present C section were formerly in a B section and four of them had previously been in an A section. It is significant that of the pupils whose sectioning has been changed, nineteen are boys and only ten are girls. Probably the natural docility of most girls leads us to overlook their needs of adjustment, while the boys more often indulge in overt activity as the first indication of poor adjustment.

Attempts have been made to characterize the different sections in terms which would indicate clearly why the teachers and the superintendent feel that there is enough distinction between the sections to make the plan of grouping worthwhile. The pupils who seem to fit best into an A section are those who are independent and capable of going ahead on their own initiative, who take considerable responsibility for their own as well as their fellows' actions, and who question, examine, and, in general, do critical thinking at their own level. The pupils who appear best suited to the B section are the average boys and girls who lack the sparkle and fire of the superior pupils in the A section, but who work hard and diligently altho they find few problems of their own to study and explore. The pupils who naturally fall in the C section are those who are slow-learning or mentally retarded, whose parents are not academically inclined, and who may be physically and socially retarded because of poor health and limited environment. These boys and girls cannot be expected to achieve in the course of a school year the work done by average pupils in the grade. Pupils in the C sections are promoted every year to the next grade, but the teachers of these sections continue with the same pupils and the work of the advanced grade is presented on the children's own level.

Certain other factors operate even more strongly than those already mentioned in determining the composition of the various sections. For example, there often arises the necessity for placing a child in an A section instead of a B section because his mother and father are friends of the parents of other pupils in the A section. Outside the school he is thrown with boys and girls in the A group and his whole adjustment to life will be happier if he is placed with them in school. In such a case the work is adjusted to the pupil's level of ability and he has the opportunity to win the approval of his parents because of his associates.

It has been our observation that many children drop from a B to a C group as the work grows more abstract. Often the environment in a home where a foreign language is spoken keeps a child from developing his full powers until he has been in a C section for several years.

The teachers, the supervisors, and the superintendent of the school are constantly on the alert for indications that might merit a change in sectioning. The purely artificial limit of three divisions inevitably makes the sectioning a little less functional than is desirable.

The continuing teacher—In recent years the school has experimented with having a teacher continue for a period of several years with the same group of children. Since one building houses the first three grades and another contains the remainder of the elementary school, it has been convenient for one teacher to begin with a group of pupils in the first grade and carry them to the third, and for another teacher to carry the same pupils from the fourth thru the sixth grade. In junior high school, also, this scheme is carried on by having one teacher keep the same group of children in more than one subject and in study hall. This arrangement not only gives the pupils an opportunity for continuous, integrating experiences but it also aids the teacher in recognizing that the individual pupil rather than subjectmatter or a set series of experiences is the fulcrum of the school. It further gives the teacher additional responsibility and incentive for helping each pupil to show improvement during the period in which he is under her guidance.

Conclusion—Examination and evaluation of the factors involved in sectioning have led the writer to conclude that such grouping at best is an artificial administrative necessity and that no hard and fast line can be drawn between groups. Each child should be studied carefully by himself and in relation to his fellows. Then he should be placed in the group that seems most favorable on the largest number of counts. While any classification of pupils according to ability is somewhat arbitrary, it is believed that the advantages of such a plan can be increased and its disadvantages minimized by using the methods described above and by keeping always on the alert for better ones.

SPECIAL CLASSIFICATION AND PROMOTION OF RETARDED
UPPER-GRADE PUPILS

H. H. MECKER

Principal, Blow School, St. Louis, Missouri

ONE OF THE MOST DIFFICULT PROBLEMS facing the schools today is the adjustment of retarded pupils. All school systems have a considerable proportion of these pupils; yet often not much is done about them. These boys and girls have abilities but they do not respond to the regularly organized school programs. They are the square pegs in round holes and they usually drop out of school sooner or later, disgusted and out of tune with the social order in which they find themselves. Many of them, no doubt, follow bad leadership and end up in a life of crime, petty if not serious.

Being mindful of this situation, the administrators of the St. Louis school system have attempted during the past five years to deal with the problem in a very definite and concrete way. In different parts of the city, under varying school conditions, different methods are being used in meeting the needs of retarded children in the upper grades. The particular plan described here is used in the Blow School.

Pertinent facts about the St. Louis organization—A few statements regarding the organization of the St. Louis school system are essential to a clear conception of the plan. The city has the 8-4 plan of organization. Due to overcrowded conditions in the high schools and the existence of many vacant rooms in elementary-school buildings, eleven eight-grade schools have added the ninth grade and are offering the first year of high-school work. Running parallel with this academic setup, two vocational schools of high-school rank have been established in which there is no college preparatory work.

For the past few years the pupils of the eighth-grade graduating classes have been divided into two groups known as Lists I and II. Those placed on List I have good records, have received a regular eighth-grade diploma, and are recommended for admission to the ninth grade of either the regular high school or the vocational school. Those placed on List II are fifteen years or more of age and have done only a fair grade of work in the elementary school. They have not succeeded well in a purely academic atmosphere and yet there is no reason for the elementary school to hold them longer. They receive diplomas which permit them to take the high-school entrance examinations, but unless they can pass these examinations they are not admitted to the ninth grade of either the high school or the vocational school without

further preparation. To give such pupils further opportunities, groups known as "high-school preparatory classes" have been organized.

In addition to the List II pupils just mentioned, there are a number of retarded children designated as List III pupils. These pupils are already fourteen or fifteen years of age but have not yet completed the eighth grade. They are potential List II pupils and their difficulties are such that they also need a special type of treatment which necessitates their withdrawal from the regular elementary grades. Like the List II group, they are placed in "preparatory" classes.

Organization in the Blow School—The Blow School was among the schools chosen to offer these differentiated types of work because its elementary enrolment has been diminishing and the building could readily be altered to house the new program. The building now has seventeen regular rooms and eleven special rooms (manual training shop, general vocational shop, foods laboratory, clothing laboratory, typewriting room, mechanical drawing room, science room, girls' gymnasium, boys' gymnasium, assembly room, and lunchroom). During the second semester of 1938-39 the building housed the following pupil groups:

Elementary.....	350 pupils
High-school ninth.....	115 "
Vocational ninth.....	200 "
Preparatory (Lists II and III).....	210 "

The elementary unit, which serves the immediate community, occupies one wing of the building and has no direct relation to the other three units. The last three types of pupils listed above have been organized into an integrated unit as a junior high school might be. The following principles have served as guides in this organization:

1. The unit is treated as a secondary-school unit made up of sixteen advisory groups.
2. The school day consists of a fifteen-minute advisory period and seven forty-five-minute periods.
3. The vocational, high-school, and preparatory units are not set apart from one another. Most of the teachers come in contact with all types of pupils.
4. The high-school pupils are promoted by individual subjects but the vocational and preparatory pupils are promoted on the basis of their entire programs.
5. The vocational and preparatory pupils are classified by sex, and special emphasis is placed upon their vocational interests.
6. All groups are "homogeneously" classified in terms of their abilities and other characteristics.

Characteristics of retarded pupils—An analysis has been made of the pupils enrolled in the different divisions of this junior high-school unit. Table 1 shows some of the measurable characteristics of four typical pupils in the retarded or high-school preparatory group (Lists II and III).

TABLE 1—CHARACTERISTICS OF TYPICAL PUPILS IN CERTAIN RETARDED GROUPS, BLOW SCHOOL, ST. LOUIS

CHARACTERISTIC	LIST III BOY	LIST III GIRL	LIST II BOY	LIST II GIRL
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Chronological age....	15-0 to 15-5	14-6 to 14-11	15-6 to 15-11	15-6 to 15-11
Mental age.....	11-0 to 11-5	11-0 to 11-5	11-0 to 11-5	12-0 to 12-5
Intelligence quotient..	75 to 79	75 to 79	75 to 79	80 to 84
Educational achievement age ^a	11-6 to 11-11	11-6 to 11-11	12-0 to 12-5	11-6 to 11-11
Educational achievement grade ^a	6:0 to 6:5	5:6 to 5:9	6:0 to 6:5	6:0 to 6:5
Reading grade ^a	6:0 to 6:5	5:6 to 5:9	6:0 to 6:5	7:6 to 7:9

Read table: The typical List III boy has a chronological age of 15 years-0 months to 15 years-5 months; a mental age of 11 years-0 months to 11 years-5 months; an IQ of 75 to 79; and an educational age of 11 years-6 months to 11 years-11 months. He rates in the first half of the sixth grade on total educational achievement and also on achievement in reading. Similarly read figures for the other types of pupils.

^a On the *New Stanford Achievement Test* (World Book Co., Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York).

Programs for retarded pupils—The special curriculums for the List II and List III pupils are planned to cover from two to four semesters. During the first semester a List II pupil follows a special program on an eighth-grade level. If his achievement is above average, he may be promoted directly to Vocational II, which is the second half of the ninth-grade vocational work, and at the end of his second semester he may pass to Grade X of the regular vocational school. On the other hand, if a List II pupil finishes his first-semester program with only average achievement, he is promoted to Vocational I (the first half of the ninth-grade vocational work), then to Vocational II, and finally to Grade X of the regular vocational school. Thus the typical List II pupil requires three semesters instead of two to reach Grade X.

The List III pupil follows a somewhat similar curriculum for either three or four semesters. First, he pursues a special program on a seventh-grade level for one semester. Then, if his accomplishment is above average he is promoted either to the first-semester program for List II pupils or directly to Vocational I. After a semester in one or the other of these programs he passes to Vocational II, and from there he goes to Grade X of the regular vocational school at the end of his third semester. If he is only about average in achievement, however, he may require four semesters to arrive at Grade X. In this case he progresses from the first-semester program for List III pupils to the first-semester program for List II pupils, and thence to the two semesters of ninth-grade vocational work.

The first-semester programs for the List II and List III pupils are the same as far as the names of the courses are concerned, but in each case the difficulty of the work and the expected level of accomplishment are based upon the ability of the group. The boys and the girls engage in different types of activities according to their needs, the activities being largely prevocational in nature. The program for boys includes English, practical arithmetic, social science, shop and related drawing, science, typewriting, and physical education. The course for girls includes English, junior business training, social science, home economics with related home problems, typewriting, physical education, and music. All pupils do such academic work as they can, but this work is directed chiefly along vocational lines.

Theoretically, these pupils may be admitted to regular high-school work whenever their teachers feel they are qualified to carry it, but so far, practically all the pupils who continue in school have chosen to go on with the vocational program, which the school emphasizes.

Progress of pupils—To give some idea of the progress made by these preparatory pupils, brief histories are presented for three such cases.

Case A—Girl

1. Born 1922-10-26; IQ—81
2. Enrolled in preparatory class from Blow Elementary School (Grade VI)—age 14 years
3. In List III program one semester—scholastic average, 81 percent; List II diploma awarded
4. In List II program one semester—scholastic average, 85 percent; List I diploma awarded
5. In Vocational II program one semester—scholastic average, 78 percent; promoted to Grade X of Hadley Vocational School—age 15 years, 4 months
6. Time saved by this procedure in progressing from Grade VI to Grade X—five semesters.

Case B—Boy

1. Born 1921-4-15; IQ—89
2. Enrolled in preparatory class from a parochial school (Grade VII)—age 15 years, 5 months
3. In List III program one semester—scholastic average, 87 percent; List II diploma awarded
4. In List II program one semester—scholastic average, 81 percent; List I diploma awarded
5. In Vocational II program one semester—scholastic average, 71 percent; promoted to Grade X of Hadley Vocational School—age 16 years, 10 months
6. Time saved by this procedure in progressing from Grade VII to Grade X—three semesters.

Case C—Boy

1. Born 1922-4-3; IQ—92
2. Enrolled in preparatory class from Blow Elementary School (Grade VII)—age 14 years, 5 months
3. In List III program one semester—scholastic average, 87 percent; List I diploma awarded
4. In Vocational I program one semester—scholastic average, 83 percent

5. In Vocational II program one semester—scholastic average, 77 percent; promoted to Grade X of the Hadley Vocational School—age 15 years, 9 months
6. Time saved by this procedure in progressing from Grade VII to Grade X—two semesters.

Case D—Girl

1. Born 1924-8-6; IQ—89
2. Enrolled in preparatory class from another state (Grade VI)—age 14 years, 1 month
3. In List III program one semester—scholastic average, 81 percent; List II diploma awarded
4. In List II program one semester—scholastic average, 87 percent; List I diploma awarded
5. In High-School I (first half of ninth grade) program one semester—scholastic average, 77 percent
6. In High-School II (second half of ninth grade) program one semester—scholastic average, 75 percent; promoted to Grade X of the high school—age 15 years, 8 months.
7. Time saved by this procedure in progressing from Grade VI to Grade X—three semesters.

Conclusion—Altho a few of these pupils find their way into the regular ninth-grade classes of the high school, the chief objective of the program is not to require the academic performance demanded of normal pupils, but to test and develop the vocational outlook and abilities of the retarded pupils with a view to getting them into the tenth grade of the vocational school as soon as possible so they may begin learning a trade. They are reaching the point where they will soon drop out of school and they must be prepared to do some useful work. The school does not measure the success of the pupils in terms of academic achievement as much as in terms of the development of an interest, a willingness to try, a desire to get into trade training, and a disposition to act according to approved social standards. The adjustment which these pupils have made to their new environment has convinced us that they are making progress, that they are gaining renewed confidence in themselves, and that they are beginning to enjoy the feeling of success.

AN ADMINISTRATIVE PLAN FOR DIAGNOSTIC AND REMEDIAL TEACHING OF CHILDREN WHO CANNOT READ

BERNICE LELAND

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THE PURPOSE OF THIS ARTICLE is to present a practical plan for rehabilitating children of normal intelligence who are handicapped by severe difficulty in learning to read. This plan, which is now in operation in the Detroit schools, was formulated in the interests of (1) children with very high degrees of disability, whatever the source or general character of their difficulties may be, and (2) classroom teachers who do not know what to do about such problems. Only the essential features of the program are described here. The discussion is not directly concerned with symptoms and sources of reading disability.

PURPOSES AND BASIC PRINCIPLES

The general purposes of the plan are as follows:

1. To discover those children whose symptoms indicate as early as the kindergarten or first grade that they will have difficulty in reading.
2. To discover and to analyze those most aggravated cases (primarily within the first three grades) who are not eligible for placement in classes for the mentally retarded.
3. To treat their difficulties by diagnostic and remedial teaching to the place where the homeroom teacher may continue the teaching independently.
4. To assist homeroom teachers in becoming informed and increasingly independent in the solution of reading problems, thus reducing to a minimum the number of children requiring attention outside the homeroom.

In achieving these purposes the following principles are fundamental:

1. Case analysis is an effective approach.
2. Effective treatment is intensive treatment. It is highly individualized, and the removal of the source of difficulty is the goal.
3. A careful record of analysis and teaching is essential.
4. Certain personality traits in the teacher selected for diagnostic and remedial work are of major importance. Specialized training in the major field of reading difficulty and in such allied fields as testing, mental hygiene, and social case work is a necessary requirement.

ORGANIZATION OF PERSONNEL

Each diagnostic teacher is assigned to three buildings and she becomes a member of the teaching staff in each one. She carries a maximum total teaching or case load of approximately fifty children.

Two full days each week are scheduled for the school which, for any reason, is the most needful. Two half-days each week are given to each of the other two schools, and the teacher devotes one day each week to coordinating activities such as interviews with parents and

teachers, testing, devising teaching materials, visiting classes, and keeping records.

The children are selected for the class by the diagnostic teacher and the supervisor in charge on the basis of requests submitted by classroom teachers in the building. A blank form is provided for this purpose (see Figure I) and teachers make requests as freely as they choose, provided they are able to state their problems accurately and to give the necessary supplementary information. The obvious needs of the child and of his teacher are the principal criteria for selection.

It is expected that the number of diagnostic teachers will always be relatively small, the number of eventual appointments corresponding to or being no greater than the number of districts into which the city is divided for purposes of school administration. There are twelve such districts at present. The diagnostic teacher will rotate among the schools of her given district.

DIAGNOSTIC AND REMEDIAL PROCEDURES

The diagnostic and remedial procedures consist of testing, teaching, recording, and interpreting.

Testing—Diagnostic reading tests¹ are used to reveal significant behaviors which offer clues to the degree, nature, and source of the difficulty. The same test is not given to all children in a routine manner. Rather, the test or tests are carefully selected on the basis of available clues as to a particular child's problem.

Reading achievement tests² are used to discover as accurately as possible what the child's grade competency is and in what general areas of the reading performance he is least competent. There are advantages in using a series of tests which are not in general use in the school. All diagnostic and achievement tests are administered by the remedial teacher.

Intelligence tests are given by the psychological clinic and the results are obtained from the clinic file. This record from the clinic includes a profile of the test results, a careful case history, and a summary of interpretations and impressions by the psychological examiner.

Symptomatic behavior is noted in reading and in other situations.

¹ *Betts Ready to Read Tests*, Keystone View Co., Meadville, Pennsylvania. ¶ *Diagnostic Reading Tests* (M. Monroe), C. H. Stoelting Co., Chicago, Illinois. ¶ *Gates Reading Diagnosis Tests*, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City. ¶ *Monroe Reading Aptitude Tests*, Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, Massachusetts.

² *Gates Silent Reading Tests: Primary Series*, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York. ¶ *Gray Standardized Oral Reading Paragraphs*, Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Illinois. ¶ *Haggerty Reading Examination: Sigma I*, World Book Co., Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York. ¶ *Instructional Tests in Reading* (Sangren and Wilson), Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Illinois.

FIGURE I—FORM USED BY TEACHERS IN REQUESTING A PUPIL'S PLACEMENT IN A REMEDIAL READING CLASS

Detroit Public Schools

File No. 68760 Date 9-29-1937

REQUEST FOR DIAGNOSTIC TEACHING IN READING

Name Doe John School M Grade 2B Room 104
 (Last) (First)

Date of Birth 9 1 30 Address 6423 B St. Sex Male
 mo. day year

Name of Parent John - Mary Occupation Housewife Economic Status Poor
 (separated)

SCHOOL PROBLEM

Cannot read. He doesn't even know how to write. He prints everything.

PHYSICAL AND MENTAL DATA

Anemia	0	Mouth breathing	0	Hearing	0	On gland treatment	Yes	No	No	
Thyroid	0	Teeth	1	Speech	0	Date	Group Rate	CA	MA	IQ
Tonsils	2x	Vision	0	Referred to Gland Clinic	No		A B C (C-) D E Detroit Learning Aptitude	7-3	7-0	97

EDUCATIONAL DATA

School	Date of administration	Grade	Room	Average mark	Half days present	Test results (Reading)			Median for grade
M	9-10-35	Kdg.	110		66	Test	Score		
	2- 3-36	Kdg.	110		16				
	9- 9-36	1B-Y	107		162	Word Recog.	0		
	2- 1-37	1A-Y	105		145				
	9-13-37	2B-Y	103		158				
	2- 1-38	2A-Y	103		176				
	6-24-38	3B-Y	104						

SYMPTOMATIC BEHAVIOR (Check)
 (Record others which seem significant to you)

Oral reading		Silent reading		General	
Long pauses		Lip movements		Confused manner	
Repetitions		Points		Daydreaming	
Substitutions	X	Losses place	X	Temper tantrums	
Word calling		Inadequate attention to details		Stubbornness	
Points to words	X	Does not complete checks		Holds book too near	
Changes meaning		Cannot carry out simple directions		right hand	X
Losses place		Inadequate grasps of main ideas		Writes with left hand	
Reverses words or letters				Not interested in books	X
				Inadequate ability to use English	
				Mirror writing or printing	

Signed _____
 Mary Smith Teacher
 William Brown Principal

Approved for Diagnostic Teaching _____
 Bernice Leland
 Date 9-30-1937

and a general interpretation of the information obtained from all sources provides a working hypothesis for starting the treatment.

Teaching—A teaching schedule of thirty-minute periods is set up in each building. The diagnostic teacher then directs herself to uncovering any additional factors contributing to the difficulty and to removing as far as possible the sources of each child's inability to read. The classes are regarded as informal teaching "clinics."

Every possible school adjustment favorable to recovery is made for each child. Materials and exercises best suited to the individual are devised by the diagnostic teacher, and as many children are taught in a group or within a thirty-minute period as the nature of their difficulties warrants. Sometimes only one child has the attention of the teacher for an entire period.

It is important to maintain flexibility in schedules and in groupings, and to shift children readily from one group to another as their performances indicate the desirability of some new arrangement. Each child has the benefit of two such carefully planned teaching periods each week. At all other times he is following the regular schedule of his section.

Recording—Recording is a very important aspect of diagnostic teaching. A detailed, continuing record of each child's performances and progress is kept from the time he enters the remedial group until he is dismissed or leaves for some other reason. These records are permanent and when completed are filed at the psychological clinic. A case record is reproduced in Figure II. The entries are somewhat abbreviated from the original to conform to limitations of space.

Interpreting—Not only is the teaching of these children based upon an interpretation of their behaviors, but facts of major importance are pointed out to the homeroom teachers and the probable significance of these facts is discussed. Conferences are arranged for this purpose, with the principal and the supervisor in charge also present, and a free exchange of ideas is encouraged. Parents and siblings are also interviewed and helped to understand their part in the process of rehabilitation.

Homeroom teachers observe the teaching procedures of the diagnostic teacher and are expected to show growth in understanding and improvement in their own attack upon disability problems. When a child is dismissed, the completed case record is available to his homeroom teacher. Assistance in the interpretation of these children is thus offered thru conferences, demonstrations, and records. The length of time required to rehabilitate a child under this plan depends, of course, upon how deep-seated the sources of his difficulty are, how responsive

FIGURE II—CUMULATIVE AND PERMANENT RECORD OF A PUPIL'S PROGRESS IN A
REMEDIAL READING CLASS

Detroit Public Schools

File No. 68760

RECORD OF DIAGNOSTIC TEACHING IN READING

10	1	37	to	4	7	38
mo.	day	year	mo.	day	year	

School M

Admitted 2B Grade 7 yrs. 1 mo. Age

Dismissed 2A Grade 7 yrs. 7 mos

Name John Doe

Date of Birth 9 1 30
month/day/year

Address 6423 B St.

Name of Parent John - Mary
(separated)

I. Tests

Diagnostic		Intelligence				
Date	Test (See Test Record Forms)	Date	Test	C.A.	M.A.	I.Q.
9-29-37	Monroe Reading Aptitude	12-14-37	Detroit Learning Aptitude	7-3	7-0	97
10-1-37	Group Test for Reversals (Univ. of Mich.)					

Achievement

Date		Test		Score		Grade		Date		Test		Score		Grade	
10-1-37		Gray's Oral Reading Paragraphs		0	-1			3-25-38		Gray's Oral Reading Paragraphs		1	-1		
10-1-37		Gates Primary Reading, Type 1		12	1.7			3-18-38		Gates Primary Reading, Type 1		29	2.47		
10-12-37		Gates Primary Reading, Type 2		10	1.7			3-22-38		Gates Primary Reading, Type 2		35	3.6		

II. Symptomatic Behavior

Social

Very friendly, talkative.
Lisps.
Likes school and teachers.
Obedient, well-adjusted at home and school.
Enjoys simple outdoor games, movies with siblings, and Dick Tracy radio.
Very happy-go-lucky, chuckles a great deal.

Educational

Mirror "writing"--prints only.
Reverses words, letters, numbers.
Confuses b, d, p, q, u, n.
Substitutes words similar in appearance
and phonetic elements.
Loses his place, points to words, and
repeats words and phrases.
Sound-blending inadequate.
Auditory discrimination inadequate.
Not interested in school work.

III. Significant Information

Teachers consider him "very slow," but had never noticed that printing is mirror-wise. Family are considered very difficult with "red" inclinations, looking for trouble on slightest provocation and "under the influence" of a friend with radical ideas. There are many children but parenthood is doubtful. An older "sister" of J.D. is believed to be his unwed mother, and that the boys of the family are "brothers" is doubted. Indulged by aged grandmother.

House is cluttered and untidy, but comfortable. Early history is negative except scarlet fever. Walked, talked at 14 mos. Psychological Clinic reports awkwardness with pencil but fair muscular coordination; excellent attentive ability, follows directions well; general orientation adequate; space relationships and sense of design poor; attention span for letters adequate; word associations limited.

FIGURE II—CUMULATIVE AND PERMANENT RECORD OF A PUPIL'S PROGRESS IN A
REMEDIAL READING CLASS (Cont.)

IV. Interpretation (Diagnosis)

Sources of difficulty appear to be:

1. Inadequate basic vocabulary of sight words.
 - (a) Confused on direction.
Word-like forms are not clearly imaged.
Letter forms are confused, also.
 - (b) Frequent absence during early vocabulary-getting stage.
 - (c) Low physical tone--infected teeth and tonsils.
Faulty sound discriminations, and blending ability.
2. Overprotection and indulgence at home.
Not sufficiently aggressive in learning situations.

V. Treatment

(1) Teaching Procedures

General	Specific
Development of basic vocabulary.	1. Use of "Easy Vocabulary" cards (Plymouth Press) <u>Words:</u> a. Matched with pictures. b. Shown in isolation on flash cards. c. Unknown ones traced on blackboard, written. d. Built up with letter cards at desk. e. Read in phrases at board. f. Used in variety of ways for drill-- in notebook. Drawing directions. Yes-no sentences. Classification. 2. Use of basic texts. (See "Materials") Vocabulary development preceded oral reading of story. Procedures c, d, e of above usually followed. 3. Flash card review of old vocabulary each lesson. Sometimes retracing necessary for relearning.
Establishing consistent left to right direction.	1. Tracing and sounding words at blackboard, until able to reproduce without copy. (Held hand in beginning to aid pattern formation.) 2. Building words with letter cards. 3. Use of manual guide. 4. Developing consonant sounds, and stressing initial sound of word as directional cue.
Training in auditory discrimination.	1. Listen for given sound in words and tell where heard--beginning, end or middle of word. 2. Clap hands when hearing word beginning with given sound from random list. 3. Suggest words beginning with given sound. 4. Listen for words--in list of three--that begin with given sound; <u>or</u> the word that did <u>not</u> begin with given sound. 5. Picture dictionary--of words beginning with given sound. 6. Game adopted from auditory discrimination test in Monroe Reading Aptitude Tests, using cards.
Training in sound blending.	1. Teacher began with two-sound words, as "m-e," and worked up to five-sound words. Child told word made.

FIGURE II—CUMULATIVE AND PERMANENT RECORD OF A PUPIL'S PROGRESS IN A
REMEDIAL READING CLASS (CONT.)

V. Treatment (Cont.)	
Date	(2) Interviews
10-1-37	With homeroom teacher. Pointed out mirror-printing, and explained significance in relation to reading.
10-19-37	With homeroom teacher. Asked her to place John's name on school dental clinic.
11-3-37	With vice-principal--who thought John had no real reading difficulty. Explained significance of directional confusion. Much interested.
11-6-37	With homeroom teacher who came in to observe teaching techniques for John's disability.
11-11-37	Diagnostic teacher visited homeroom to compare John's performance with that of his group. Recommended use of tracing technique and manual guide.
2-21-38	With homeroom teacher who reports marked progress by John in reading.
3-31-38	With homeroom teacher to determine if John's progress there would warrant his dismissal from diagnostic group.

(3) Materials				
Date	Books	Completed	pages	Supplementary (List)
10-16-37	"Easy Vocabulary" cards (Plymouth Press)	x		Letter cards
				Sound picture cards
11-13-37	Elson Pre-Primer	x		Stone's "Eye & Ear Fun" - Book I
12-17-37	Elson Supplementary Pre-Primer	x		
1-13-38	Alice & Jerry Pre-Primer	x		Phrase flash cards
1-24-38	Alice & Jerry Supp. Pre-Primer	x		Workbook for
2-13-38	Elson Basic Primer	x		a. Elson Pre-Primer
				b. Elson Primer

VI. Summary and Suggestions for Future

John has reading vocabulary and comprehension ability equal to his grade. He can distinguish accurately between sounds; has learned the names and sounds of all the consonants and diphthongs; can blend five sounds to form word. His directional confusion has been eliminated but some evidence of faulty eye-movements still remains. Further use of a manual guide for a time, exposing letters of word slowly from left to right during development, and tracing of words confused, is recommended.

Approximate time 17 hrs.

Signed Catherine Howell
Diagnostic Teacher

the child, the parents, and the teachers are, and how accurately the diagnosis and proper treatment are determined. The average time has been about one semester or approximately twenty hours of actual teacher-child contact.

As soon as his classroom teacher feels equipped to take over the problem and the child is able to compete successfully in the homeroom, he is dismissed from the diagnostic-teaching group. When the diagnostic teacher has rendered reasonable service in helping other teachers in the building to feel more secure with their reading problems and to be better equipped to discharge their responsibilities in regard to such problems, and when she has demonstrated that these most difficult children can be taught to read, she is assigned to another building. Set patterns of assigning and removing these teachers are avoided.

IMPORTANCE OF ADMINISTRATIVE COOPERATION

The plan outlined here is really a cooperative enterprise and, to be successful, must engage the active interest and participation of many persons who have contacts with the child in question. Teachers, parents, school nurses, physicians, social workers, mental examiners, and supervisors may all make constructive contributions. But no single person is in a position to do more for these children as a group or as individuals than the administrative head of the building in which a remedial-teaching class is organized. Such vital matters as providing adequate space and certain supplementary materials are in this administrator's hands. Time for teacher conferences must be arranged by the principal. The morale of the teaching staff and the establishment of friendly rapport between the diagnostic teacher and the staff are particularly influenced by the attitude of the office toward the whole idea of cooperative activity. Finally, the child's and parents' acceptance of the remedial class as an opportunity, or their rejection of it as a punishment, may be directly determined by the official administrative attitude toward the class. Such a class is a major project in the school where it is established and administrative support is essential to its success.

REORGANIZING THE SPEECH PROGRAM IN A CITY SCHOOL SYSTEM

ELVENA MILLER

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THERE ARE IN AMERICA 1,000,000 school children between the ages of five and eighteen so defective in speech as to require remedial treatment and training."¹ In the typical city school system about 7 percent of the children are so handicapped. It has been estimated that the defects of 85 percent of these children can be corrected by standard methods.²

In the average classroom children with unpleasant or inadequate voices, with faulty or careless articulation, with nervous or cluttered speech and an obvious lack of poise, and children who stutter present definite problems. A speech handicap means much more than is revealed on the surface. There is a significant correlation between faulty speech and certain reading disabilities.³ Grave personality problems frequently result from defective speech and a person thus hampered is handicapped socially and vocationally. Recent psychological studies have indicated that the intelligence quotients of certain children with delayed or defective speech were raised as their speech was improved.⁴ The need of a speech program in the schools has been recognized but not all the problems of administering such a program have yet been solved.

Speech correction programs in most public schools are based upon one of two different philosophies. Either speech correction is considered to be special education and the child is taken out of the classroom for instruction that is not definitely coordinated with his regular school-work, or such correction becomes a functional part of the child's physical, mental, social, and emotional development and is effected thru the integration of speech with other school subjects. Accepting the latter philosophy, the Seattle public schools during the past three years have undertaken an experimental program to discover how speech correction can best be administered in a city system.

Limitations of the earlier plan—For a number of years prior to this experiment speech-handicapped children attended correction centers

¹ White House Conference on Child Health and Protection. *Special Education: The Handicapped and the Gifted*. New York: Century Co., 1931. p. 351-57.

² *Ibid.*, p. 379.

³ Moss, Margery A. "The Effect of Speech Defects on Second Grade Reading Achievement." *Quarterly Journal of Speech* 24: 642-54; December 1938.

⁴ Stinchfield, Sara M., and Young, Edna H. *Children With Delayed or Defective Speech*. Stanford University, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1938. p. 37-40.

one morning and one afternoon each week. With only three speech teachers for a school population of over 54,000 this seemed the best way to organize the work so as to serve the entire city. About sixty children came regularly to each teacher. Some of the cases were pathological; others were merely developmental cases that could have been handled by properly trained primary teachers in the classroom. The speech teachers devoted one day each week to visiting the children in their classrooms and conferring with their parents and teachers. The work was well done, with a large percentage of rehabilitation and correction. However, it was often necessary for children to travel some distance, and those below the third grade had to be excluded. This meant that bad speech habits were often well established before remedial work could be given. Parents and principals frequently objected to this loss of time, even tho most of the children made improvement in their speech and in their regular schoolwork when they began to attend the speech centers. Because of the organization of the program it was considered special education and could not be definitely coordinated with classroom work. Teachers readily accepted this philosophy, and while they tried to cooperate in every way, they felt for the most part that speech education was something mysterious and not to be undertaken by the uninitiated.

Introducing the itinerant teacher of speech—Realizing that it is dangerous for an untrained teacher to tamper with the speech of a child who has a defect or disorder, but desiring to integrate the correction work more closely with the regular curriculum, the administration three years ago released one of the center teachers to do itinerant teaching, visiting about ten buildings twice each week. At the outset it was seen that in order to serve all the city's schools in this way, more teachers would be needed. However, certain advantages were obvious. Children of all grades were reached by the itinerant teacher; the need for pupil travel was eliminated; pupils were helped in their normal environments and they did not miss much of their regular work; the speech teacher in many cases became a guide for speech activities thruout the school; classroom teachers could confer with her easily and frequently and she could come nearer to integrating her speech work with that of the regular classroom. Data assembled over the three-year period indicate that the itinerant teacher usually helped more children both directly and incidentally than did the center teacher and that the percents of correction were about the same. It was discovered, however, that for the few most serious cases, especially those of long duration, the itinerant teacher did not have the time necessary to effect a correction. Such cases must be treated at a speech center.

There is also the danger that the itinerant teacher will undertake too heavy a case load, thus limiting her effectiveness. This situation obtains in many cities which conduct their speech correction work under this plan. It is well to remember that the White House Conference recommended fifty as an optimal load.⁵

Initiating a preventive program in primary grades—This program of itinerant teaching, altho designed primarily to enable the speech teacher to work directly with the handicapped children in their own environments, resulted in considerable in-service training of classroom teachers. A developmental speech program was soon set up to be carried on by the kindergarten and primary teachers with the assistance of the speech teacher. This plan functioned on the assumption (supported by Kopp,⁶ Ringer,⁷ Fröschels,⁸ and others) that most defects and disorders now being treated can be prevented by following a good speech-hygiene program with children as they are establishing their speech habits. The experience of one speech teacher has shown that such a program should be threefold:

1. Teachers and parents of handicapped children should be given a short course in normal speech development and simple speech correction.

2. Teachers and parents must be given opportunity to observe the speech teacher as she diagnoses the child's difficulty and gives him remedial treatment. Together they should work out a program of speech hygiene for the child and outline developmental procedure. The responsibility for carrying out this program must be placed upon the parents and the classroom teacher.

3. The speech teacher must act further as a consultant and should visit the child at least once a week. In the most serious cases she will work with the child herself, but active cooperation of those who are with him most is essential.

Certain difficulties have presented themselves in connection with this program. One is that at the beginning of such a program the regular teachers must be given a certain amount of specific speech education. In most buildings a few teachers' meetings can be scheduled for this purpose either at noon or after school, but there is need of a uniform plan that will reach all primary teachers in the system. This instruction can be given in a large group, thus saving the time of the speech teacher for consultation about specific cases. During the past year the supervisor of speech, in close cooperation with the director of kindergarten and primary education, conducted a short series of all-city meetings for primary teachers to be followed with a number of smaller regional meetings.

Classroom teachers have indicated that they get the greatest help

⁵ White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, *op. cit.*, p. 351-57.

⁶ Kopp, George A. "A Philosophy of Speech Correction." *Journal of Exceptional Children* 6: 176-78; February 1940.

⁷ Ringer, Margaret. Unpublished lecture before the Seattle Council for Exceptional Children.

⁸ Fröschels, Emil. *Speech Therapy*. Boston: Expression Co., 1933. p. 205-12.

from observation of the speech teacher at work. The difficulty of finding time for this has been met in different ways in different buildings. Some principals find it possible to teach for the room teacher, while others arrange for an older pupil to substitute. However, there is a limit to the number of times such arrangements should be made. Since primary children in many schools are dismissed from their classes from thirty to forty-five minutes before the others at noon and in the afternoon, these two periods can be used for the special work in speech. Also the speech teacher often finds it advantageous to go into the classroom and work with the child there while all the other pupils are engaged in informal activities. Then the room teacher is more or less free to observe the speech instruction.

A third difficulty, that of finding time for speech work in the already crowded curriculum, is solved when the classroom teacher recognizes that speech education is part of the education of the whole child and that it can best be carried on thru integration with reading, language, and the activity program. The speech teacher and the classroom teacher should work out together carefully-graded methods and practice materials to be coordinated with the regular curriculum. It must be remembered, however, that a few cases will need the daily attention of a speech pathologist and should be treated in a clinic or speech center.

The results of the "speech consultant" plan have been so encouraging that the program will be continued, and the indications are that eventually it will be extended to include the entire city. In the schools where it has been tried, principals report that the teachers are now discovering speech problems more readily and are asking for help, that more children are being reached, and that actual corrections are being made by the room teachers.

Need for further study—This plan of organization warrants careful appraisal. Seattle's experiment is so recent and so incomplete that it is not yet possible to make a final evaluation. The first lessons have been learned, however, and the interest of the classroom teachers, the helpful suggestions of the participating principals, their splendid cooperation, and their willingness to undertake something new have made it possible to work more effectively another year. In the meantime, an objective study has been started to extend over a period of five years. At the end of this time it will be known if such a program can result in the development of normal speech in most of the children in the primary grades. If the program proves effective the necessity for corrective work for older children will be lessened. Out of this experimentation there may develop a comprehensive program, not of speech reeducation alone, but of real speech education for all children.

STIMULATING AND GUIDING TEACHERS IN MEETING
INDIVIDUAL PUPIL NEEDS

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THIS DISCUSSION deals with the efforts of the Division of Early Childhood and Elementary Education in the Department of Public Instruction of Pennsylvania to stimulate and guide teachers in observing and caring for individual needs. Individual differences among teachers in relation to this problem are just as real and complex as are differences among children. In a state as large as Pennsylvania all stages of educational development are represented in the teaching body, and the character and extent of educational needs differ with each teacher. For the sake of organization in this article, teachers have been grouped somewhat arbitrarily with reference to their development and their particular needs for stimulation and guidance.

TEACHERS WITH SUPERIOR ALL-ROUND QUALIFICATIONS

Democratic procedures—Some teachers are already aware of the facts concerning individual differences and possess the desire and the ability to use the necessary guidance procedures. When such teachers are a part of a truly democratic school system they have all they need in the way of freedom and encouragement to do their best. The implication is that schools must work from within and promote the democratic process so that teachers may be free to think straight, to act upon their best thinking, and to take responsibility for their actions.

Recently the Division of Early Childhood and Elementary Education examined its own program to see whether or not its relationships with the various school districts were democratic in every respect. The Division recognized that if it were exercising arbitrary authority over administrators and supervisors, they in turn would dictate to their teachers and so finally would the teachers dominate their pupils. The Division has conceived its function to be one of guidance rather than of direction. Its method is to help districts or communities to develop their own curriculums, rather than to give them predetermined courses of study to follow. It distributes guidance materials rather than materials which can be used in a stereotyped manner. This guidance aim is kept in mind in all field work, in sectional conferences, in work on problems of local districts, and in organizing and working with curriculum-development groups. The emphasis is upon helping the

professional staff to analyze its own community in terms of resources and needs, to define its problems in terms of possibilities for advancement, to work out effective ways for solving its problems, and to evaluate results and take responsibility for them. Such guidance gives more than freedom to the teacher; it gives encouragement and recognition for clear thinking and for intelligent action. If a state department uses democratic procedures in its contacts with superintendents and supervisors, it is contributing to democratic local administration.

Adequate space and equipment—In addition, if teachers can be given appropriate equipment and ample space in which to work they will be greatly aided in creating a suitable environment for the development of the individual child. The Division has worked on this phase of the problem in cooperation with the School Plant Division of the state department. When plans for a large building program are in process in a community, recommendations have been formulated and sent to the School Plant Division, to the local superintendent of schools, and to the architect. Twenty-five to thirty square feet of classroom space per child, a library, an industrial and fine arts room, and a science room have been recommended for buildings designed to house 450 or more pupils. Sufficient space is one of the prime requisites for meeting individual needs among children.

As to equipment, it is recognized that certain materials are necessary for diagnosis and guidance even tho they may be expensive. Many school districts spend money for materials which are not particularly well suited to their purposes. As members of the Division visit classrooms with superintendents and supervisors they frequently find opportunities to evaluate equipment in use and to make suggestions for desirable changes. Superintendents and supervisors are encouraged to make use of the classroom teacher's judgment in the selection of certain materials.

Freedom, encouragement, and adequate space and materials are the main needs of those teachers who know their children as personalities and are eager and competent to care for them accordingly. By stimulating and guiding administrators and supervisors in their efforts to promote the democratic process and to provide adequate facilities for work, the Division is attempting to meet the needs of these teachers who have superior all-round qualifications.

TEACHERS WHO NEED STIMULATION

Some teachers are aware of the problems pertaining to individual differences among children but they have no particular urge to do anything about such problems. These teachers are somewhat acquainted

with certain fundamental principles but they have not understood their significance. For example, they may have learned to recite the laws of learning as a part of their preparation for teaching without really understanding the learner's need for readiness and for experiencing success. The basic principle of beginning with the learner on his own level may not be meaningful to these teachers in concrete situations. They have not learned to evaluate their own procedures in terms of the philosophy they verbally proclaim. Such teachers need more than mere comprehension; they need to interpret what they do in terms of what they have learned so that they may see the significance of their methods. They need help in judging their procedures and their results relative to a sound philosophy of education. Conferences and study groups organized among the teachers for the purpose of evaluating their teaching in light of children's characteristics and needs can help to interpret broadly the school program. An urge to "do something" may then arise in these teachers who need stimulation.

Professional study groups—The need for group thinking and action is met in part by the Division's efforts to stimulate and guide committee work among teachers and supervisors. One second-class district presents an example of notable progress in this respect. The superintendent and supervisor invited a curriculum specialist to help them and their teachers to formulate an educational philosophy. When the group had decided upon a philosophy based on democratic principles, they all studied local conditions and defined their most crucial teaching problems. Committees of teachers were organized and guided in work upon specific problems. These groups considered the opinions of the best authorities they could find and discussed all problems on the basis of intelligent application of the opinions. In discussion periods emphasis was placed on genuine interplay of ideas and the development of group achievement. Problems were considered in connection with the following topics: rewards and prizes, homework, departmentalization, manuscript writing, functional arithmetic, other agencies working with children in the community, a desirable first-grade program, and corporal punishment. As a result of this enterprise each teacher has become more alert to her responsibility in applying theoretical knowledge to actual situations. The teachers have learned how to work together and are realizing common purposes. Their continuous development is thus encouraged. Professional study groups of the type just described have been started in several districts in Pennsylvania.

Plans are being developed in the Division of Early Childhood and Elementary Education for regional working conferences of elementary

supervisors. A conference of this kind was held recently. There were present about eighty persons who are responsible for some supervision of elementary education. These persons were superintendents, assistant superintendents, supervising principals, directors of elementary education, and building principals from second-, third-, and fourth-class school districts of four neighboring counties. A representative from each school district and a member of this Division met together and planned the conference. The theme chosen was "Social Development of the Child thru Supervision." According to the plans, the supervisors divided themselves into study groups, raised problems, discussed them, and shared their thought with the entire conference. All participants were learning democratic procedures and the processes of group thinking and sharing by actually engaging in them. The assumption is that as they use these procedures themselves, the supervisors will be better able to apply them to the supervision of their teachers.

In addition to the stimulation gained from professional group association, any teacher profits from daily contact with well-qualified, dynamic teachers, supervisors, and administrators. Such educators inevitably throw out a challenge to others to achieve in some measure the professional skills and satisfactions that they have found.

TEACHERS WHO NEED HELP ON THE TECHNIQS OF GUIDANCE

Some teachers thoroly understand the significance of individual differences, but they have not visualized how to meet specific problems. They have not watched effective procedures and they cannot imagine how to undertake individual guidance. If they lack originality they are probably teaching as their teachers taught them—by mass methods of instruction. The technics of mass instruction and drill are familiar to them and the technics of individual guidance are difficult and relatively unknown.

If these teachers are resourceful and ambitious they may find ways of meeting this problem. Usually their first efforts amount to working out methods of dealing with individual differences in relation to mastery of subjectmatter. This is due to the fact that more is known about subjectmatter education; it is easier to deal with objectively; and the organization of the traditional school lends itself readily to compartmentalized learning. The teachers who are aware of individual differences but who do not know how to care for them need an opportunity for guided observation and study of accepted practices. Only in this way will they grasp technics and interpret procedures in terms of educational values relative to the growth of the whole child. These teachers need to learn how to study and work cooperatively with other

teachers on problems presented by individual children. Especially for the sake of these teachers the school program needs to be organized to permit emphasis on guidance rather than on mass instruction.

Observation of good practice—The Division encourages superintendents to allow teachers unfamiliar with guidance technics to observe as much good classroom practice as possible. Often a supervising principal or supervisor reports that she has accompanied a group of teachers on an observation trip to an outstanding school. Usually arrangements are made for discussion following these observations. When asked, the Division suggests places where an observation would be worthwhile. Many of the state teachers college laboratory schools have classes in session on Saturdays and the Division recommends that teachers in service watch these groups at work. One state teachers college conducts regular classes each Saturday for the express purpose of making continuous observation possible.

During the winter of 1938-39 the Division demonstrated desirable classroom equipment and procedures in a booth at the State Farm Show, where not only teachers but hundreds of laymen came to observe. Also the Division has published in bulletin form two illustrations of classroom practice. Altho it does not claim direct responsibility, the Division's emphasis on the need for teachers to observe good technics of individual guidance has probably contributed to the fact that state teachers colleges have lengthened the time required for student teaching.

TEACHERS WHO ARE CONCERNED CHIEFLY WITH SUBJECTMATTER LEARNING

There are many teachers and administrators who confine their attention mainly to individual differences in subjectmatter attainment. They believe that academic achievement is the all-important goal and they have not become sensitive to all the needs of children in meeting their problems of living. These educators know little about how to study children and guide them toward all-round development. They need help in reinterpreting their philosophy of education to include a sound conception of an integrated personality. They need practice in studying children in all types of life situations. Theirs is largely a problem of defining the purposes of their teaching in terms of the children they teach.

During the past few years the department of public instruction has worked with many people in the state in formulating a philosophy of education for the schools of Pennsylvania. A number of bulletins on the subject have been published. This philosophy gives recognition

to the all-round development of the child and to the concepts relative to individual differences. As a result there are noticeable evidences of a change in viewpoint in many districts. Teachers who formerly emphasized only subjectmatter achievement are now organizing their classroom procedures to recognize each child as a personality.

Adequate reports and records—Some teachers find it confusing to judge children on the basis of individual growth and adjustment when the report and record systems of the school put emphasis upon grade averages in various subjects. A recent Division bulletin on reporting pupil progress emphasizes evaluation in terms of the whole child and his potentialities for growth. A revision of a bulletin on pupil personnel records is in process of development. It will illustrate types of records to be used in the extensive study of the child and will emphasize the value of filing cumulative records in individual folders so that a teacher can have ready access to the data concerning a particular boy or girl. Reports and records have been discussed by members of the Division at various teachers meetings in the state. One address is published in the *Proceedings of Schoolmen's Week at Philadelphia in 1938*.¹ Record forms prepared in harmony with the philosophy of individual differences help teachers to put that philosophy into effect.

TEACHERS WHO ARE UNINFORMED ABOUT INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

A few immature teachers have not yet learned the principles of individual differences. They need an introduction to these concepts thru both direct and vicarious contacts with sources of information and with innovations and experiments which furnish the data from which conclusions can be drawn. They also need experience in studying children.

The Division helps teachers and supervisors by answering questions received thru the mail and by furnishing source materials and bibliographies on the subject. Also, it emphasizes the concept of individual differences wherever appropriate, i.e., in bulletin materials, in teachers conferences, and in analyzing classroom procedures with teachers and supervisors. The Division's supervisors are helping teachers to recognize and guide differences in children.

Courses in the state teachers colleges have been introduced to give teachers experience in child study. Many of the colleges have psychological, speech, and reading clinics which offer their services to teachers of the area.

¹Stuart, Cecilia U. "Records in Kindergarten and Elementary School." *Fundamentals in a Democratic School*. Twenty-Fifth Annual Schoolmen's Week Proceedings. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1938. p. 291-95.

PRE-SERVICE TRAINING AND SELECTION OF TEACHERS

The necessity for intelligent selection of teachers who see children as individuals and know how to guide them in terms of their needs has also been recognized by the Division. In setting up standards for elementary schools, the Division has included criteria for the selection of a good teacher. The recent teacher tenure law in Pennsylvania has brought school directors face to face with the importance of these criteria. The directors are beginning to see the desirability of relying upon the judgment of the superintendent since he is usually in the best position to evaluate the qualifications of a particular teacher.

In order that there may be a well-qualified personnel to select from, this Division actively cooperates with state teachers colleges. Contacts have been established with most of these colleges for the purpose of jointly studying the curriculums they are offering for the effective education of teachers. In one teachers college a course in curriculum building was given by a member of this Division for a picked group of teachers. It was organized along workshop lines whereby the teachers observed and participated in the development of a unit of experience along with a group of children. The main emphasis was given to child study and to procedures to meet the needs of individuals. Following this, a committee of college faculty members was organized to guide outstanding teachers in the area served by the college in the development of child-centered curriculums. As these teachers were planning their programs they met with the faculty committee from time to time thruout the year to discuss their situations, problems, and procedures. The faculty committee occasionally used the classrooms of some of these teachers as observation centers for the surrounding communities.

Recently members of the Division have met with faculty committees in a number of the state teachers colleges. These committees are making a study of how they are influencing and how they can influence the school life of their areas. Also several of the colleges have invited aid in analyzing their programs of teacher education.

The Division believes administrators must go back to the initial education of the teacher before many of the problems of the classroom can be adequately met. Thus it has taken the foregoing steps to stimulate sound pre-service training of teachers and to encourage their wise selection. In addition, the Division has presented to its bureau director a set of proposed qualifications for elementary supervisors and has recommended that the State Council of Education work toward

making it compulsory for one assistant county superintendent in each county to meet these qualifications.

SUMMARY

The grouping of teachers in terms of their needs must of necessity be artificial. In any stage of development a teacher's needs may include some or all of those which have been specifically designated here. Broadly conceived, the stimulation and guidance of teachers in observing and caring for individual pupil needs should include each of the following phases: (1) provision of freedom to act, (2) encouragement to act as the teacher's best judgment dictates, (3) opportunity for group thinking about problems in actual school situations, (4) study to see significant points relative to the learning process and the evaluation of the educational product, (5) firsthand experience in observing and interpreting good procedures, (6) guidance in formulating or redefining an educational philosophy, (7) experiences in child study, and (8) contacts with sources of pertinent information and experimental data. The Division of Early Childhood and Elementary Education in Pennsylvania is attempting to help stimulate and guide the teachers of the state in all these respects.

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.—Broadus, Louise E., and Norris, Forbes H., in *Enriching the Curriculum for the Elementary-School Child*, Eighteenth Yearbook, Department of Elementary School Principals, 1939, p. 278.

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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 yearbooks.

Membership in the national Department has continued to grow during the year 1939-40. The number of members as this yearbook went to press was 6257, including 215 life members. The total number exceeds that of a year ago by 156, or between 2 and 3 percent, while the number of life members is 24 larger than last year. These facts indicate that elementary-school principals and supervisors are maintaining their interest and their faith in the work of the Department, and that they continue to believe in pooling their resources as a means of improving their own professional status as well as 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.

- ABERDEEN, S. DAK.—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB.** (1) Sada C. Post, Lincoln School. (2) Violet Schrimpf, Simmons School.
- AKRON, OHIO.—ELEMENTARY MEN PRINCIPALS' CLUB.** (1) John F. Hagen, 267 N. Firestone Blvd. (2) Esmond V. Thomas, 142 W. Burns Ave.
- AKRON, OHIO.—WOMEN PRINCIPALS' CLUB.** (1) Hazel B. Sellers, 25 Adelford Ave. (2) Mildred E. Stebbins, 247 Rhodes Ave.
- ALAMEDA, CALIF.—PRINCIPALS' CLUB.** (1) Lowell Mell, 2623 Clay St. (2) Mrs. Mabel Dye, 2308 San Jose St.
- ALBANY, N. Y.—WOMEN PRINCIPALS' AND SUPERVISORS' CLUB.** (1) Rose T. Hughes, 118 N. Lake Ave. (2) Mary A. Murray, 214 Partridge St.
- ALEXANDRIA, VA.—PRINCIPALS' CLUB.** (1) Mildred Stead, Maury School. (2) Miss Leslie Cox, Washington School.
- ANDERSON, IND.—SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' CLUB.** (1) Mrs. Ranna Creason Potes, 933 W. Ninth St. (2) Katherine Langell, 227 W. 11th St.
- ATLANTA, GA.—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB.** (1) Mary Lin, Mary Lin School. (2) Lois Hollingsworth, Sylvan Hills School.
- BAKERSFIELD, CALIF.—PRINCIPALS' CLUB.** (1) Mary Lavers, 2204 San Emidio St. (2) J. Ted Chism, 1514 King St.
- BATTLE CREEK, MICH.—PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.** (1) Leo Shaw, Southwestern Junior High School. (2) Mrs. Catherine Daugherty, Wilson School.
- BAY CITY, MICH.—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB.** (1) Anna T. Reardon, Wenona School. (2) Alta Porter, Washington School.
- BEAUMONT, TEXAS.—PRINCIPALS' AND SUPERVISORS' CLUB.** (1) Louise Hobby, 2245 Neches St. (2) Mrs. W. A. Perry, 2560 McFaddin St.
- BERKELEY, CALIF.—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.** (1) Emery J. Currence, 1729 Hopkins St. (2) Beecher H. Harris, 1181 Grizzly Peak Blvd.
- BIRMINGHAM, ALA.—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' CLUB.** (1) W. T. Snoddy, Acipco School. (2) George Hendricks, Gate City School.
- BLOOMFIELD, N. J.—PRINCIPALS' CLUB.** (1) M. A. Bigelow, Carteret School. (2) L. J. Krueger, Demarest School.
- BOSTON, MASS.—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.** (1) Joseph E. Lynch, Hugh O'Brien School, Roxbury. (2) Patrick L. Geary, Phillips Brooks District, Dorchester.
- BRIDGEPORT, CONN.—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' CLUB.** (1) Julia Fenton, 135 Benham Ave. (2) Elizabeth Roche, 61 Redding Pl.
- CAMDEN, N. J.—PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.** (1) Glenn Ott, Liberty School.
- CANTON, OHIO.—PRINCIPALS' CLUB.** (1) L. H. Booker, W. North School. (2) Mary Leech, Woodland School.
- CANTON, OHIO.—WOMEN PRINCIPALS' CLUB.** (1) Mary B. Swope, 335 Fifth St., N. W. (2) Esther Karp, 308 High Ave., N. W.
- CASPER, WYO.—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB.** (1) Mrs. Martha England, Lincoln School. (2) Margaret Chambers, Grant School.
- CEDAR RAPIDS, IOWA.—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB.** (1) Jenna Strahan, 2342 Grande Ave. (2) Marjorie Donohue, 516 12th St., S. E.
- CHARLESTON, S. C.—PRINCIPALS' CLUB.** (1) Simon Fogarty, Crafts Public School. (2) George C. Rogers, Memminger High School.
- CHATTANOOGA, TENN.—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.** (1) W. O. Hornaday, Cedar Hill School. (2) Susie McNulty, Normal Park School.
- CHICAGO, ILL.—ELLA FLAGG YOUNG CLUB.** (1) Marie Mattocks, 914 Gunnison St. (2) Adelaide Lynch, 7934 Kimbark Ave.
- CHICAGO, ILL.—GEORGE HOWLAND CLUB.** (1) Edward E. Keener, 600 S. Madison Ave., La Grange. (2) Claude L. Williams, 7736 East End Ave., Chicago.
- CHICAGO, ILL.—PRINCIPALS' CLUB.** (1) Joseph B. Shine, 9350 Throop St. (2) Rena Flanagan, 139 N. Mayfield Ave.
- CICERO, ILL.—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB.** (1) Hobert Bolerjack, Columbus School. (2) Agnes J. Holmes, Woodbine School.
- CINCINNATI, OHIO.—ASSISTANT PRINCIPALS' CLUB.** (1) Nelson L. Burbank, Sands School. (2) William Henry Schroeder, Oakley School.
- CINCINNATI, OHIO.—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' CLUB.** (1) Oscar C. Martin, Oakley School. (2) Elizabeth Guilfoile, Twelfth District School.
- CLEVELAND, OHIO.—PRINCIPALS' CLUB.** (1) Edna Morgan, 2943 Berkshire Rd. (2) Margaret M. White, 11907 Browning Ave.
- CLEVELAND HEIGHTS, OHIO.—PRINCIPALS' AND SUPERVISORS' CLUB.** (1) Albert B. Harvey, Roosevelt Junior High School, 1771 Lee Rd. (2) Irene Hess, Canterbury School, 2530 Canterbury Rd.
- CLIFTON, N. J.—PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.** (1) Harold J. Adams, High School Annex. (2) Margretta Dobbins, School No. 6.
- CLIFTON, N. J.—SCHOOLMASTERS' CLUB.** (1) Harold J. Adams, 239 Trenton Ave. (2) Charles W. Robinson, 265 W. Second St.
- COLUMBUS, OHIO.—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ROUND TABLE.** (1) Miss Ilo Maddux, 1535 N. High St. (2) Dorothy C. Morris, 558 Lilley Ave.
- CONNELLSVILLE, PA.—PRINCIPALS' CLUB.** (1) David C. Guhl, 1214 Sycamore St. (2) Dorothy Mathias, 244 Fairview Ave.
- COUNCIL BLUFFS, IOWA.—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB.** (1) Mary Peterson, 723 W. Washington St. (2) Anna Ivory, 128 Glen Ave.

- DALLAS, TEXAS**—PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) E. W. Muse, Rosemont School. (2) Mamie Boone, John Henry Brown School.
- DANVILLE, VA.**—PRINCIPALS' COUNCIL. (1) W. Harold Ford, Bellevue School. (2) Pencele Fulton, 170 S. Main St.
- DAVENPORT, IOWA**—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Arthur C. Hall, Hayes School. (2) Kleth L. Benner, Buchanan School.
- DAYTON, OHIO**—ASSOCIATION OF ADMINISTRATIVE WOMEN IN EDUCATION. (1) Maude L. Rupel, 506 W. Norman Ave. (2) Maude J. Slaght, 142 W. Second St.
- DAYTON, OHIO**—PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) D. L. Sollenberger, R. R. 4, Smith Rd. (2) Sue Seybold, 1833 Auburn Ave.
- DENVER, COLO.**—PRINCIPALS' AND DIRECTORS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Claude B. Pendleton, Cole Junior High School, 32nd Ave. and Humboldt St. (2) Mrs. Minnie McCoy, Berkeley School, W. 51st Ave. and Lowell Blvd.
- DES MOINES, IOWA**—PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Bessie Bacon Goodrich, 3415 Witmer Park Way. (2) Walter O. Allen, 1236 32nd St.
- DETROIT, MICH.**—WOMEN PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Clara Ellen Starr, Box 814, Royal Oak. (2) Florence E. Parker, 5474 Trumbull Ave., Detroit.
- DUBUQUE, IOWA**—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Grace Ryan, 1265 Langworthy Ave. (2) Martha Marlin, Temple Hall.
- DULUTH, MINN.**—PRINCIPALS' AND SUPERVISORS' CLUB. (1) Selma Petrich, Cobb and Washburn Schools. (2) Alice Bradseth, Lakeside School.
- EAST PROVIDENCE, R. I.**—PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Carl T. Thompson, 104 Hope St., Rumford. (2) Cora E. Welch, 6 Wheeler Ave., East Providence.
- ELIZABETH, N. J.**—PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Richard L. Gleason, George Washington School No. 1. (2) Henry Karsten, Benjamin Franklin School No. 13.
- EL PASO, TEXAS**—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Alicia Swann, 2931 Aurora St. (2) Gertrude Higgins, 1015 N. Florence St.
- ERIE, PA.**—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' AND SUPERVISORS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Marie O. Gingenbach, 345 E. 12th St. (2) Minnie M. Mullerstein, 721 E. 23rd St.
- EVANSTON, ILL.**—PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Lois M. Davis, 921 Sheridan Rd. (2) Mrs. Grace Richardson, 1119 Maple Ave.
- EVERETT, MASS.**—PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Martin Sanborn, Everett High School. (2) Mabel M. Gardner, 46 Forest Ave.
- EVERETT, WASH.**—PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) W. T. Meyer, South Junior High School. (2) Ernest F. Nicolino, Longfellow School.
- FALL RIVER, MASS.**—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Catherine A. Silva, 539 Division St. (2) Agnes M. Malcolm, 1491 Highland Ave.
- FLINT, MICH.**—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Mrs. Cleo Popp, Hazelton School. (2) Marie Nelson, Martin School.
- FORT SMITH, ARK.**—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ROUND TABLE. (1) C. E. Beard, Trusty School. (2) Mollie Williams, Belle Point School.
- FORT WORTH, TEXAS**—PRINCIPALS' AND VICE-PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Jessica Lloyd, Alice Carlson School. (2) Julia Chrisman, Diamond Hill School.
- FRESNO, CALIF.**—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CONFERENCE. (1) Jennie E. Radley, Route 1, Box 60, Sanger. (2) Mr. Lars Barstad, 1335 Safford Ave., Fresno.
- GARY, IND.**—PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) John N. Reid, 438 Roosevelt St. (2) Melville C. Bryant, Sr., 2588 Madison St.
- GRAND RAPIDS, MICH.**—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' EXCHANGE CLUB. (1) Mrs. Lou I. Sigler, Ottawa Hills School. (2) Bertha Smith, Sigbee School.
- HARTFORD, CONN.**—PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Louis W. Batchelder, 87 Cumberland St. (2) Beatrice Silverman, 46 Capen St.
- HAZEL PARK, MICH.**—PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Mr. Lee Clark, Martin Rd., Ferndale. (2) Avis M. Blakeslee, Wanda School, Ferndale.
- HOLYOKE, MASS.**—WOMEN PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Eva C. Moynihan, 2089 Northampton St. (2) Lillian M. Doroughue, 309 Walnut St.
- HOPEWELL, VA.**—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Cashell Donahoe. (2) T. Edward Temple.
- 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) Julia Peed, Winona School. (2) Wilma Moore, 117 E. Eighth St.
- INDIANAPOLIS, IND.**—COUNCIL OF ADMINISTRATIVE WOMEN IN EDUCATION. (1) Mrs. Grace A. Granger, 1918 Carrollton Ave. (2) Mrs. Mildred B. Orr, 3422 N. Colorado Ave.
- JACKSON, MICH.**—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Martha B. Chase, 808 Bush St. (2) Mrs. Jennie Mandigo, 318 S. Grinnell St.
- JERSEY CITY, N. J.**—MALE PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Dr. Charles Wolverton, Public School No. 11. (2) Emmett J. Campbell, Experimental School.
- JERSEY CITY, N. J.**—THE WOMEN PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Mary E. Stone, Public School No. 33, Union St. (2) Caroline Lavery, Public School No. 24, Virginia Ave.
- KALAMAZOO, MICH.**—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Eugene Thomas, 2317 Springhill Dr. (2) Nelson J. Budde, 613 Campbell Ave.
- KANSAS CITY, KANSAS**—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Lucy Jones, Gould Hotel. (2) Minnie Martin, 1118 Haskell St.
- KANSAS CITY, MISSOURI**—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) A. E. Martin, 1524 White St. (2) U. L. Riley, 716 Ewing St.
- KNOXVILLE, TENN.**—PROFESSIONAL CLUB. (1) Clara J. McCauley, 2007 Lake St. (2) Gerald Bell, 1190 Edgewood Ave.
- LA FAYETTE, IND.**—PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Ray V. Linville, Washington School. (2) H. E. Sweeney, Centennial School.

- LA GRANGE, GA.**—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Kate Floyd, Hill Street School. (2) Clara Vaughan, Dawson Street School.
- LANSING, MICH.**—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) C. May Wagner, 1030 S. Washington Ave. (2) Marion Lang, 533 E. Mt. Hope St.
- LAWRENCE, KANSAS.**—(1) Susan Todd, McAllaster Grade School.
- LAWRENCE, MASS.**—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Lillian B. Haverty, 297 S. Broadway. (2) Helen F. Galney, 1 Kingston St.
- LAWRENCE, MASS.**—GRAMMAR MASTERS' CLUB. (1) John P. Fleming, A. B. Bruce School. (2) James F. Hennessey, Oliver School.
- LIBERAL, KANSAS.**—COOPERATIVE PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Harry Carr. (2) Earl Stambrook.
- LITTLE ROCK, ARK.**—PRINCIPALS' ROUND TABLE. (1) W. F. Hayes, 1813 Schiller St. (2) Bessie Stevenson, 1726 Gaines St.
- LONG BEACH, CALIF.**—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Arthur W. Cox, Edison Elementary School. (2) Ira 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) C. W. Preston, 206 N. Kingsley Dr., Los Angeles. (2) Ella L. Riese, 2801 Walnut St., Huntington Park.
- 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) William W. Dennett, Morey Junior High School. (2) John E. Barr, Washington Training School.
- MCALISTER, OKLA.**—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Ellis B. Richie, Edmond Doyle School. (2) A. D. Hefley, Eugene Field School.
- MALDEN, MASS.**—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Minnie G. Thompson, 108 Highland Ave. West Melrose. (2) Jennie E. Shute, 30 Hancock St., Malden.
- MEDFORD, MASS.**—WOMEN PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Hazel Mulkerin. (2) Winnifred Crockwell.
- MERIDIAN, MISS.**—PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Mrs. Laurie Mae Carter, 3211 24th Ave. (2) Annie Bordeaux, 1719 24th Ave.
- MILWAUKEE, WIS.**—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) William F. Buboltz, 3000 N. Murray Ave. (2) Margaret Leard, 2971 N. Farwell Ave.
- MILWAUKEE, WIS.**—PUBLIC SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Ralph Chamberlin, 1801 W. Olive St. (2) Florence A. Flanagan, 1111 N. Tenth St.
- MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.**—PRINCIPALS' FORUM. (1) Jane Holtz, Irving School. (2) Gertrude Sutton, Hamilton School.
- MOUNT VERNON, N. Y.**—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Josephine W. Leighton, Longfellow School. (2) Mrs. Edith B. Cordes, Hamilton School.
- MUSKEGON, MICH.**—PRINCIPALS' AND SUPERVISORS' COUNCIL. (1) Ethel M. Bowden, No. 5 Hamilton Apts. (2) Eugenie Oole, 48 E. Iona St.
- NEPTUNE, N. J.**—ADMINISTRATORS' GROUP. (1) O. J. Moulton, 89 Heck St. (2) Guy L. Quinn, 2106 Bangs Ave.
- NEWARK, N. J.**—PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Thomas F. McHugh, Wilson Avenue School. (2) Harold H. Phillips, Sussex Avenue School.
- NEWARK, N. J.**—VICE-PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Helen Reichert, Cleveland Junior High School. (2) Mrs. Mary Schneider, Oliver Street School.
- NEW BEDFORD, MASS.**—PRIMARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Joanna Sweeney, 48 Morgan 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.
- NEW HAVEN, CONN.**—PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Elizabeth R. Malcolm, 181 Blake St. (2) Caroline Jourdan, Eaton School.
- NEW ORLEANS, LA.**—PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Ruth Markey, Frank T. Howard School No. 1, 3220 Cleveland Ave. (2) Henry M. Vosbein, McDonogh School No. 18, 1133 St. Ann St.
- NEWPORT, R. I.**—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Barbara C. Taylor, 9 Pleasant St. (2) Hermann G. Patt, John Clarke School.
- NEW YORK, N. Y.**—PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) John F. Conroy, Junior High School No. 118, The Bronx, 577 E. 179th St., New York City. (2) Charles T. Trace, Public School No. 221, Empire Blvd. and Troy Ave., Brooklyn.
- NORFOLK, VA.**—PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Mrs. E. M. Marx, Robert E. Lee School. (2) Roselyn Brownley, Bay View School.
- OAKLAND, CALIF.**—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Fred B. Zimmerman, Stonehurst School. (2) Sarah L. Young, Parker School.
- OGDEN, UTAH.**—PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) John Junk, Central High School. (2) Don Barney, 1157 28th St.
- 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 St.
- OMAHA, NEBR.**—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Edith Isaksou, 5022 Davenport St. (2) Florence Brooker, 4529 S. 19th St.
- ORLANDO, FLA.**—ORLANDO-WINTER PARK ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Mrs. Annie B. Lord, 1808 Weber Ave.
- OSHKOSH, WIS.**—PRINCIPALS' CONFERENCE. (1) Charles I. Yule, 110 Grand Ave. (2) William N. Skowlund, 17 Saragota Ave.
- PALO ALTO, CALIF.**—ADMINISTRATORS' CLUB. (1) C. L. Suffeld, 543 Channing St. (2) Mrs. Gladys Harrington, Convalescent Home.
- PASADENA, CALIF.**—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) De Roy F. Cobb, 1485 N. Chester Ave. (2) George N. Boone, 1654 Francisca St.
- PATERSON, N. J.**—PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Edwin W. Bramhall, School No. 23.

- PEORIA, ILL.—ELEMENTARY MEN PRINCIPALS' CLUB.** (1) M. H. Stephens, 737 W. Gift Ave. (2) Floyd L. Barloga, 1423 N. Glen Oak St.
- PEORIA, ILL.—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB.** (1) Joseph Murphy, 309 Fredonia St. (2) Corinth Lange, 3875 N. Sheridan Rd.
- PERTH AMBOY, N. J.—PRINCIPALS' CLUB.** (1) Royal R. Predmore, 79 Hornsby Ave., Fords. (2) Miss Ingford Oksen, Public School No. 2, Perth Amboy.
- PHILADELPHIA, PA.—PRINCIPALS' CLUB.** (1) A. Reaga Mullen, Cornman School, 12th and Melon Sts. (2) Jean M. Tweed, Taylor School, Randolph St. and Erie Ave.
- PITTSBURGH, PA.—PRINCIPALS' CLUB.** (1) Charles A. Gorgas, Crescent School, Bennet and Tokio Sts. (2) Elizabeth Becker, East Park School, Lockhart St.
- PORTLAND, OREGON—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.** (1) L. E. Rhearson, Dunway School. (2) Rein Jackson, Beach School.
- PORTSMOUTH, VA.—PRINCIPALS' CLUB.** (1) George B. Ish, 58 Court St. (2) A. J. Mapp, 200 Maryland Ave.
- PROVIDENCE, R. I.—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' CLUB.** (1) Francesca Cosgrove, 258 Doyle Ave. (2) Margaret E. Blessing, 12 Blackstone Blvd.
- PUEBLO, COLO.—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL MEN PRINCIPALS' CLUB.** (1) M. N. Porter, Fountain Elementary School. (2) Paul L. Kirk, Keating Junior High School.
- PUEBLO, COLO.—PRINCIPALS' CLUB.** (1) Cora May Gwynn, Parkview School. (2) Caroline Strack, Edison School.
- PULASKI, VA.—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.** (1) Eva Vaughn, Jefferson School. (2) Lillian L. Smith, 125 Fourth St., N.
- RACINE, WIS.—PRINCIPALS' COUNCIL.** (1) E. W. Zieball, 1219 West Lawn Ave. (2) H. B. Temme, 614 Arthur Ave.
- REVERE, MASS.—PRINCIPALS' CLUB.** (1) Zulette Potter, Liberty School. (2) Mary E. Colburn, Abraham Lincoln School.
- RICHMOND, VA.—LEAGUE OF PRINCIPALS.** (1) L. E. Bush, 3911 Brook Rd. (2) D. C. Beery, 1621 Claremont Ave.
- ROCHESTER, N. Y.—COUNCIL OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS.** (1) Howard H. Lewis, 465 Seward St. (2) Benjamin H. Root, 85 Hillside Ave.
- SACRAMENTO, CALIF.—PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.** (1) Percy McChesney, Newton Booth School. (2) Arthur Mohr, Donner School.
- SAGINAW, MICH.—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' CLUB.** (1) Alda Mumaw, 120 S. Mason St. (2) Ruth Murphy, 121 S. Mason St.
- SAINT JOSEPH, MO.—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB.** (1) Reuby Moore, 2220 Eugene Field Ave. (2) Ethel Farthing, 1115 Ashland, Ave.
- SAINT LOUIS, MO.—CLUB OF WOMEN PRINCIPALS.** (1) Ida M. Hooss, 5330 Pershing Ave. (2) Nellie McCarthy, 3618 Lafayette Ave.
- SAINT LOUIS, MO.—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.** (1) Eulis J. Jackson, 1055 Tuxedo Blvd., Webster Groves. (2) E. L. Gooch, 2303 Big Bend Blvd., Maplewood.
- SAINT PAUL, MINN.—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB.** (1) Annie Ginsberg, Phalen Park School. (2) Bertha Dossdall, Mattocks School.
- SAINT PETERSBURG, FLA.—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.** (1) Mabel M. Kelson, 111 17th Ave., S. (2) Mrs. Gedna Jewel.
- SALINA, KANSAS—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB.** (1) Carrie Krueger, Hawthorne School. (2) Anna McCormick, Bartlett School.
- SALT LAKE CITY, UTAH—PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.** (1) I. Daniel Stewart, Sumner School. (2) Freda Kiser, Liberty School.
- SAN DIEGO, CALIF.—PRINCIPALS' AND SUPERVISORS' CLUB.** (1) Edward C. Taylor, 4305 Trias St. (2) Mrs. Mary I. McMullen, 584 San Antonio Ave.
- SAN FRANCISCO, CALIF.—ELEMENTARY VICE-PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.** (1) Nellie C. Sullivan, 130 Frederick St. (2) Almee T. Kelly, Sanchez School.
- SAN FRANCISCO, CALIF.—PRINCIPALS' CLUB.** (1) Ralph Lehman, Roosevelt Junior High School. (2) Carrie Daly, 556 Larkin St.
- SAN JOSE, CALIF.—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB.** (2) A. H. Horrall, 408 Almaden Ave.
- SAVANNAH, GA.—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' AND SUPERVISORS' CLUB.** (1) William A. Eyer, Jr., Thirty-Eighth Street School. (2) Lillian Nussbaum, Massie School.
- SEATTLE, WASH.—PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.** (1) J. Edward Petite, Ravenna School. (2) Ray K. Imus, Cleveland High School.
- SIoux CITY, IOWA—ADMINISTRATION CLUB.** (1) Viola Anderson, West Junior School. (2) Susanna Avery, Bancroft School.
- 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.—PUBLIC SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS' CLUB.** (1) Byron C. Kirby, Oliver School. (2) Julia Malone, Lincoln School.
- SOUTH PORTLAND, MAINE—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.** (1) Lula M. Gowen, 93 Preble St. S., South Portland. (2) Gwendolin E. Wing, 10 Lewis St., Portland.
- SPOKANE, WASH.—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB.** (1) Susan M. Lacy, W. 204 Euclid Ave. (2) Lila Smith, S. 2907 Grand Blvd.
- SPOKANE, WASH.—WOMEN PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.** (1) Pauline Drake, Parsons Hotel. (2) Clara E. Mader, E. 1110 Fifth Ave.
- STOCKTON, CALIF.—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.** (1) Mrs. Ivah Capps, 1520 S. Sutter St. (2) Mrs. Alma Wood, 205 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) Kenneth P. Drake, Porter Junior High School. (2) John V. Meath, Eastwood High School.

SYRACUSE, N. Y.—WOMEN PRINCIPALS' AND SUPERVISORS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Mabel E. Churchill, 687 Allen St. (2) Marcella Jones, 511 Cortland Ave.

TACOMA, WASH.—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' STUDY CLUB. (1) Elmer T. Thune, Stanley School. (2) C. G. Jespersen, 510 North J St.

TOLEDO, OHIO—PRINCIPALS' AND SUPERVISORS' CLUB. (1) Winifred Pittenger, 661 Lincoln Ave. (2) Mabel Willis, 2574 Monroe St.

TOPEKA, KANSAS—PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) M. C. Poort, 622 Rockledge Ave. (2) Ezekiel Ridley, 624 Western Ave.

TRENTON, N. J.—SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Isabell Hill, Junior High School No. 4. (2) Katherine Mitchell, Grant School.

TULSA, OKLA.—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Paul L. Hellman, 2540 E. 14th Pl. (2) R. H. Kennedy, 1908 N. 41st St.

UTICA, N. Y.—PRINCIPALS' AND SUPERVISORS' CLUB. (1) A. Ray Calhoun, 1907 Brian Ave. (2) Mary A. Dempsey, Wetmore School.

WATERBURY, CONN.—PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) John M. Brophy, Driggs School. (2) Anna M. Skehan, 81 Waterville St.

WICHITA, KANSAS—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Laura Snyder, 1345 S. Clifton St. (2) Anna Foreman, 1526 Parker St.

WICHITA FALLS, TEXAS—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' CLUB. (1) Esther Berry, 1409 Taylor St. (2) T. B. Parnell, Regan Junior High School.

WICHITA FALLS, TEXAS—PRINCIPALS' AND SUPERVISORS' CLUB. (1) J. I. Woodard, 2300 Tilden St. (2) Gene Forman, 2202 Taft St.

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, 7 Fiske St. (2) Elizabeth M. Shea, 15 Montvale Rd.

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.—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' PROFESSIONAL CLUB. (1) Julia C. Sprenkel, Madison Elementary School. (2) Raymond H. Kornbau, 231 N. Richland Ave.

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 DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS. (1) Margaret Hanes, 1101 N. 44th St., Birmingham. (2) Mrs. Katherine O. Brown, Dolomite.

ARIZONA—MARICOPA COUNTY ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' AND SUPERINTENDENTS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Loren Vaughn, Jr., 2222 N. 21st St., Phoenix. (2) Arthur L. Mercer, Liberty Elementary School, Liberty.

SALT RIVER VALLEY ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Loren Vaughn, Jr., 2222 N. 21st St., Phoenix. (2) Arthur Mercer, Liberty School, Liberty.

CALIFORNIA—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

BAY SECTION. (1) Carrie Daly, 556 Larkin St., San Francisco. (2) Eva M. Ott, 61 Agnes St., Oakland.

BUTTE COUNTY SCHOOLMASTERS' CLUB. (1) George McIntyre, Chico High School, Chico. (2) E. A. Hendrix, Biggs Elementary School, Biggs.

CENTRAL SECTION. (1) J. A. Thomson, North Fork. (2) Mrs. Vera Riggins, Box 16, Chowchilla.

CENTRAL COAST SECTION. (1) J. Paul Hylton, Fremont School, San Luis Obispo. (2) Oda Hogan, Pacheco Elementary School, Hollister.

CONTRA COSTA COUNTY. (1) Kenneth M. Forry, Elementary School, Martinez. (2) Genevieve de Simas, R. F. D., Martinez.

FRESNO COUNTY. (1) Mrs. Esther Van Natta, 1211 Wilson Ave., Fresno.

MARIN COUNTY. (1) Neil N. Cummins, Larkspur. (2) Clarence G. Herkner, 124 N St., San Rafael.

MONTEREY COUNTY. (1) Curtis Bell, Marina. (2) Mrs. Laura Tarver, 227 Church St., Salinas.

NORTH COAST SECTION. (1) Emil J. Splering, Ferndale School, Ferndale. (2) Clyde A. Patenaude, Korbel School, Korbel.

NORTHERN SECTION. (1) E. P. O'Reilly, William Land School, 11th and You Sts., Sacramento. (2) Roy Learned, Washington School, 17th and E Sts., Sacramento.

SAN JOAQUIN COUNTY. (1) Mrs. Erma R. Reese, Route 1, Box 91, Acampo. (2) Wendell W. Hoar, 401 W. Tenth St., Tracy.

SAN LUIS OBISPO COUNTY. (1) Mrs. Frances Judkins, Pismo Beach. (2) Lealand Stier, Cayucos.

SAN MATEO COUNTY. (1) Walter Jack, 240 San Mateo Dr., San Mateo.

SANTA CLARA COUNTY SCHOOLMASTERS' CLUB. (1) Hugh S. Falchoner, 905 Fremont St., Santa Clara. (2) D. J. Sedgwick, Cupertino.

SANTA CRUZ COUNTY. (1) Ada Samson, 77 Cleveland St., Santa Cruz. (2) Edith King, Aptos.

SONOMA COUNTY. (1) Inez Kaartinen, Penngrove. (2) Edith Peterson, % County Supt. of Schools, Santa Rosa.

SOUTHERN SECTION. (1) Leonard G. Hummel, 1020 D St., Chino. (2) Ida Iversen, 349 N. Wilton Pl., Los Angeles.

STANISLAUS COUNTY. (1) James M. Monroe, Box 133, Patterson. (2) Maxine de Lappe, 915 14th St., Modesto.

TULARE COUNTY. (1) E. G. Rice, Ivanhoe School, Ivanhoe. (2) Bernice Arnett, East Lyne School, Box 69, Ivanhoe.

COLORADO—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

EASTERN DIVISION. (1) Lloyd Gillette, Washington School, Boulder.

FREMONT COUNTY. (1) Leo Durkee, Canon City.

MESA COUNTY. (1) Joe Rigg, Cameo. (2) Anna McGinley, Route 2, Grand Junction.

NORTHERN COLORADO ELEMENTARY MEN'S CLUB. (1) Charles B. Cox, Hawthorne School, Englewood.

SOUTHERN DIVISION. (1) J. F. Scott, Park School, La Junta.

WESTERN DIVISION. (1) L. B. Orvis, Emerson School, Grand Junction.

FLORIDA—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

DUVAL COUNTY. (1) Katherine Sproull, 1545 Hubbard St., 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.

MID-WEST DISTRICT. (1) C. L. Costin, Wewahitchka.

POLK COUNTY. (1) Grover J. Carter, Davenport. (2) Mrs. Maude Yawn, Ft. Meade.

ST. JOHNS DISTRICT. (1) L. L. Dugger, Macclenny. (2) Mrs. Constance Road, St. Augustine.

SANTA ROSA COUNTY. (1) Prof. A. L. Gillman, Route 2, Milton. (2) M. Luther King, Bagdad.

SOUTHWEST DISTRICT. (1) Mrs. G. B. Thomas, Clewiston.

SUWANNEE DISTRICT. (1) J. A. Hodges, Jasper.

TAMPA DISTRICT ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' COUNCIL. (1) Mrs. Edna Bassett Erwin, Oak Park School, Tampa. (2) Bertha McDonald, 109 W. Shore Blvd., Tampa.

WEST FLORIDA DISTRICT. (1) J. C. Word, Milton.

GEORGIA—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

FIRST DISTRICT. (1) W. A. Eyler, Jr., Thirty-Eighth Street School, Savannah. (2) Lillian Nussbaum, Massie School, Savannah.

SECOND DISTRICT. (1) Florence Wiloughby, Moultrie. (2) Mrs. B. R. Stocks, Tifton.

THIRD DISTRICT. (1) Eva Gardner, Columbus. (2) Jessie Beard, Columbus.

FOURTH DISTRICT. (1) Ruth Hopkins, La Grange. (2) Myrtis Field, Griffin.

FIFTH DISTRICT. (1) Mary Standard, Moreland School, Atlanta. (2) Mary Russell, Center Hill School, Atlanta.

SIXTH DISTRICT. (1) Pendleton Mitchell, Edgehill School, Route B, Gibson. (2) Major Silvey, G. M. C., Milledgeville.

SEVENTH DISTRICT. (1) Carrie Mae Patterson, Chickamauga. (2) Mildred McWhorter, Menlo.

NINTH DISTRICT. (1) J. A. Neighbors, Chicopee. (2) Herbert W. Robinson, Dawsonville.

TENTH DISTRICT. (1) Clifford Sego, Augusta. (2) Mrs. Roselle Toss, Point Peter.

DE KALB COUNTY. (1) Mrs. J. W. Mozley, 1324 Briarcliff Rd., Atlanta. (2) Mrs. Julian Harris, Stone Mountain.

FULTON COUNTY. (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, DeSoto Hotel, Savannah. (2) Margaret A. Murphy, 11 E. Perry St., Savannah.

ILLINOIS—PRINCIPALS' CLUB, DISTRICT 75. (1) Lura Ethel Cloyd, 2108 Sherman Ave., Evanston. (2) Philip Jacobson, 2855 Sheridan Pl., Evanston.

IOWA—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

NORTH CENTRAL DISTRICT. (1) Lillian B. Olson, Spencer. (2) Alice Laun, Spencer.

NORTHEAST DISTRICT. (1) Mrs. Caroline M. Preston, Jackson School, Cedar Rapids. (2) Anna Steimetz, Franklin Elementary School, Dubuque.

SOUTHEAST DISTRICT. (1) Arthur C. Hall, Hayes School, Davenport.

KANSAS—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

DISTRICT 1. (1) Elizabeth A. Sparks, Central School, Kansas City.

DISTRICT 2. (1) Grace Reno, Iola.

DISTRICT 3. (1) Ferne Reynolds, 701 North B St., Arkansas City.

DISTRICT 4. (1) Martin Little, Emporia.

DISTRICT 5. (1) L. H. Caldwell, 1506 N. Vassar St., Wichita.

DISTRICT 6. (1) Glen Lowry, Beloit.

DISTRICT 7. (1) Carl Nufeldt, Sylvia.

GARDEN CITY DISTRICT. (1) Harry W. Carr, Liberal.

HAYS DISTRICT. (1) Darrol Noles, Wakeeney.

HUTCHINSON DISTRICT. (1) Kenneth Hill, Turon.

KANSAS CITY DISTRICT. (1) Ira E. Hunt, 816 Ohio St., Lawrence.

PITTSBURG DISTRICT. (1) Bessie Baker, Oswego.

SOUTHWEST DISTRICT. (1) Oliver W. Drussel, Ulysses. (2) Cecil Baker, Sublette.

TOPEKA DISTRICT. (1) Harry Adamson, Manhattan.

WICHITA DISTRICT. (1) E. C. Wine, 1147 Perry St., Wichita.

WYANDOTTE COUNTY. (1) Donald Kirby, Bonner Springs. (2) Elsie Waldron, 2111 N. 29th St., Kansas City.

KENTUCKY—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

NORTHERN SECTION. (1) Martha Dean, Erlanger. (2) Alice Edelmaier, 10 E. 26th St., Covington.

UPPER SECTION. (1) J. D. Bowling, Lothair. (2) M. C. Napier, Hazard.

LOUISIANA—CADDO PARISH PRINCIPALS' CLUB.

(1) Ruth Bryson, 1018 Jacobs St., Shreveport. (2) Mrs. Ethel Boyett, 2421 Highland St., 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 SECTION. (1) Paul H. McIntire, North School, Portland. (2) Richard Barbour, Freeport.

WASHINGTON COUNTY SCHOOLMEN'S CLUB. (1) Supt. LeRoy Moan, East Machias. (2) Earle D. Merrill, Machias.

MARYLAND—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

ALLEGANY COUNTY. (1) Earl F. Brain, High School, Frostburg. (2) John F. Manley, 116 Wood St., Frostburg.

MONTGOMERY COUNTY. (1) Miss Ravenel A. Monfred, 18 Diamond Ave., Gaithersburg. (2) Mary Ann Penn, Redland School, R. F. Maryland, Rockville.

MASSACHUSETTS—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

DISTRICT 1. (1) Mary Molloy, 146 Veazie St., North Adams. (2) Harold J. Millett, 23 Melrose St., Adams.

DISTRICT 2. (1) K. Merton Bozolan, Center School, Belchertown. (2) Miss Mella Boron, 86 Pleasant St., Amherst.

DISTRICT 4. (1) Sara E. Chase, Washington School, Springfield.

DISTRICT 5. (1) William F. Butler, Lamartine School, Worcester.

DISTRICT 6. (1) Mary Quinn, Highland Avenue School, Fitchburg. (2) Marie M. Gearan, D. M. Dillon School, Fitchburg.

DISTRICT 8. (1) Earle B. Tracy, 207 Middlesex St., North Andover. (2) F. Milton Howard, 22 Pleasant St., North Andover.

DISTRICT 9. (1) Milton L. Fuller, Collins School, Gloucester. (2) Elizabeth G. Harding, Hardie School, Beverly.

DISTRICT 10. (1) Morton Seavey, Peter Bulkeley School, Concord. (2) Bertha E. Forster, 11 Simonds Rd., Melrose.

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. (1) Walter Gibson, Lafayette School, Lincoln Park.

REGION 2. (1) George Holzhauser, Mt. Pleasant.

REGION 5. (1) Wellington Huss, Alpena.

REGION 6. (1) John Springman, Pierce School, Birmingham.

REGION 7. (1) Myrtle A. Elliott, 1037 Ashmun St., Sault Sainte Marie.

HAZEL PARK GRADED DISTRICT. (1) Mr. Lee Clark, Martin Rd., Ferndale. (2) Avis M. Blakeslee, Wanda School, Ferndale.

MISSOURI—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

CENTRAL MISSOURI GRADE PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Charles G. James, 610 W. Maple St., Independence. (2) Catherine Garmon, 1016 E. Broadway, Sedalia.

CENTRAL SECTION. (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 SECTION. (1) C. H. Allen, 414 E. Normal St., Kirksville. (2) Neva Lamb, Marceline.

ROLLA DISTRICT. (1) Hugh J. Puyear, Washington.

ST. FRANCOIS COUNTY. (1) James A. Sanders, Leadwood. (2) Nellie Humprey, Esther.

ST. JOSEPH DISTRICT. (1) Mammie Miles, 724 Robidoux St., St. Joseph.

ST. LOUIS COUNTY. (1) Mabel McAllister, Home Heights School, Ritnour District, St. Louis County. (2) Mamie Reed, Price School, Ladue.

ST. LOUIS COUNTY MEN PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Charles C. Kegelman, 7047 Emma Ave., St. Louis. (2) M. F. Drury, Jackson Park School, University City.

ST. LOUIS DISTRICT SCHOOLMASTERS' CLUB. (1) Thomas F. Gentry, 421 Edgewood Dr., Clayton. (2) R. L. Short, 6932 Amherst Ave., University City.

SOUTHEAST SECTION. (1) J. E. Brown, Caruthersville. (2) Dorothea Miller, Sikeston.

UNIVERSITY SECTION. (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 Elementary Education, City Schools, Norfolk.

DISTRICT 4. (1) Gladys Sheridan, Alcott School, Hastings.

DISTRICT 5. (1) Bernadette Gale, 905 E. Second St., McCook.

DISTRICT 6. (1) Lillian Galleher, Central Ward School, Scottsbluff.

NEW JERSEY—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

ATLANTIC COUNTY. (1) Hubert H. Smith, Board of Education, Hammonton.

BERGEN COUNTY. (1) Charles T. Diefenbach, Browning School, Tenafly.

BURLINGTON COUNTY CONSOLIDATED SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Mrs. Elsie Wright, Wrightstown. (2) Mrs. Betty Lewis, Tabernacle.

CUMBERLAND COUNTY. (1) Mrs. Mary Lynch, 15 N. Giles St., Bridgeton.

GLOUCESTER COUNTY. (1) Marian Beck, County Helping Teacher, Paulsboro.

MONMOUTH COUNTY ROUND TABLE. (1) William Crosley, Manasquan. (2) Fred England, Shrewsbury.

MORRIS COUNTY. (1) Charles Curtis, Board of Education, Rockaway.

OCEAN COUNTY. (1) Joseph E. Clayton, High School, Point Pleasant Beach.

SOMERSET COUNTY. (1) G. Harvey Nichols, High School, Bound Brook.

WARREN COUNTY. (1) Ira P. Hoffman, Board of Education, Belvidere.

NEW MEXICO—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

CENTRAL SECTION. (1) Sister Catherine Miriam, St. Vincent Academy, Albuquerque. (2) Adolfo Chavez, Albuquerque.

DONA ANA COUNTY. (1) Haskel Smith, 835 N. Armijo St., Las Cruces. (2) Mrs. Clem Russell, Mesilla Park.

GRANT COUNTY. (1) Marvin Roberts, Hachita.

LEA COUNTY. (1) Raymond H. Robbins, Lovington. (2) Mrs. Mettie Jordan Mack, Eunice.

SOUTHEASTERN SECTION. (1) Jimmy Gammill, Jal. (2) Bonnie Moore, Monument.

NEW YORK—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

CENTRAL WESTERN ZONE. (1) Earle W. Nash, Beechwood Station, Rochester.

CENTRAL ZONE. (1) Anna L. Murtagh, Prospect School, Solvay.

EASTERN ZONE. (1) Mrs. Adelaide W. Baker, Loudonville School, Loudonville.

LONG ISLAND ZONE. (1) Carl Griffing, East Quogue School, East Quogue.

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.

SOUTH EASTERN ZONE. (1) Howard G. Sackett, Morse School, Poughkeepsie.

SOUTHERN ZONE. (1) Harry Romayne, City Hall, Elmira.

WESTERN ZONE. (1) Helen I. Brown, School No. 80, 600 Highgate St., Buffalo.

HUDSON VALLEY SCHOOLMASTERS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Joseph C. Kaag, 56 Marion Ave., Poughkeepsie. (2) Wilber T. Archibald, 84 S. Randolph Ave., Poughkeepsie.

NASSAU COUNTY. (1) Henry Carsten Ducker, School No. 3, Baldwin. (2) Lillian Y. Wells, Brookville School, Brookville.

NASSAU COUNTY SCHOOLMEN'S COUNCIL. (1) E. H. Le Barron, Hicksville. (2) Glenn C. Halladay, Oyster Bay.

ROCKLAND COUNTY. (1) Louis L. D. Nicoletto, Haverstraw. (2) Florence Noyes, New City.

NORTH CAROLINA—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

NORTH CENTRAL DISTRICT. (1) Mary Moore, Virginia Street School, Goldsboro. (2) Ruth C. Deaton, Afton-Elberon School, R.F.D. 2, Norlina.

NORTHEASTERN DISTRICT. (1) T. A. Gray, Winstead School, Wilson.

NORTHWESTERN DISTRICT. (1) Mrs. Kathryn W. Shippman, Oak Hill School, High Point. (2) Mrs. Elnora Anderson, Lakeside School, Leaksville.

SOUTHEASTERN DISTRICT. (1) Mrs. J. H. Barrington, Lumberton School, Lumberton. (2) Mrs. Gussie Dills Parker, Clinton School, Clinton.

SOUTH PIEDMONT DISTRICT. (1) A. W. Kelley, Aycock School, Kannapolis. (2) Ann Sherwood, Frank B. John School, Salisbury.

WESTERN DISTRICT. (1) Dean B. Pruette, Valdese Elementary School, Valdese. (2) Mrs. M. L. Nesbitt, Gladys School, Candler.

OHIO—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

CENTRAL SECTION. (1) F. A. Sheridan, Southwood School, Columbus. (2) Eva Devanny, Brown Elementary School, Dayton.

EASTERN SECTION. (1) Herbert Dilley, Duncan Falls. (2) Lillian Brennel, Zanesville.

NORTHEASTERN SECTION. (1) Paul E. Smith, Roosevelt School, Canton. (2) Edna McFarlin, Lincoln School, Barber-ton.

NORTHWESTERN SECTION. (1) Kenneth Sanford Clem, Findlay. (2) Sadie D. Musser, Lima.

SOUTHEASTERN SECTION. (1) Wayne T. Matthews, 191 N. Congress St., Athens. (2) J. C. Yunker, Portsmouth.

SOUTHWESTERN SECTION. (1) John J. Bunn, R. F. D., Middletown.

BUTLER COUNTY SCHOOLMASTERS' CLUB. (1) Paul Miller, Seven Mile. (2) W. E. Davis, West Middletown.

GALLIA COUNTY. (1) Hobart Niday, Gallipolis. (2) Howard Broyles, R. F. D., Gallipolis.

HAMILTON COUNTY. (1) Martin D. Bishop, Madeira School, Madeira. (2) Jane McDermott, Montgomery.

OKLAHOMA—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

EAST CENTRAL DISTRICT. (1) M. A. Hall, Route 1, Okemah. (2) Carl Kniffin, 1200 W. 13th St., Sulphur.

NORTHEASTERN DISTRICT. (1) E. W. Claiborne, 1540 Kinley St., Bartlesville. (2) Mary Shirley, 1114 Fremont St., 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 Armstrong, Boswell.

OREGON—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

CLACKAMAS COUNTY. (1) Walt Kraxberger, P. O. Box 11, Gladstone. (2) Mrs. Katharine McRae, 524 Promenade St., Oregon City.

COLUMBIA COUNTY SCHOOLMASTERS' CLUB. (1) Robert L. Henagin, Rainier. (2) Carroll Newth, Clatskanie.

DOUGLAS COUNTY. (1) E. S. Hall, 833 Military St., Roseburg. (2) Ruth Swinney, 435 Fowler St., Roseburg.

HOOD RIVER COUNTY. (1) Wayne McMurray, Odell. (2) Lewis Tiffany, Parkdale.

LANE COUNTY. (1) Vernon Meyer, Wendling. (2) Mrs. Nina Stutz, Trent.

MARION COUNTY. (1) L. B. McClendon, Route 1, Box 31, Salem. (2) Mrs. Helen Patton Phillippi, Stayton.

MULTNOMAH COUNTY. (1) J. A. Wickham, 4930 S. E. 67th Ave., Portland.

WASHINGTON COUNTY. (1) C. W. Loose, Tualatin.

YAMHILL COUNTY. (1) Guy L. Lee, McMinnville Junior High School, McMinnville. (2) Grace Duren, Route 1, Salem.

CENTRAL OREGON PRINCIPALS' CONFERENCE. (1) Kenneth Ramey, Mt. Hood. (2) John Root, Hood River.

EASTERN OREGON SECTION. (1) Arthur Klesz, Box 645, Ontario. (2) Kermit Myers, Vale.

SOUTHERN OREGON PRINCIPALS' CONFERENCE. (1) Cecil Roberts, Grants Pass. (2) Eunice Blodgett, Grants Pass.

WESTERN OREGON SECTION. (1) Harry W. Cameron, Elementary School, Silver-ton. (2) Jack O'Keefe, Donald.

PENNSYLVANIA—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

ALLEGHENY COUNTY PRINCIPALS' ROUND TABLE. (1) George W. Cassler, Coraopolis. (2) Melvin A. Steiner, Ingram.

LANCASTER COUNTY. (1) A. Lincoln Charles, Taylor Bldg., Columbia. (2) Elizabeth Heller, Route 5, Lancaster.

TENNESSEE—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

EAST TENNESSEE DISTRICT. (1) John L. Gwin, 2115 Union Ave., Chattanooga. In-termediate Division, Middle Sec-tion. (1) Franklin Rigsby, Lawrence-burg.

SOUTHEASTERN SECTION. (1) Roy B. Terry, Dept. of Education, Chattanooga. (2) Thomas H. Allen, Jr., Box 235, Cleveland.

WEST TENNESSEE DISTRICT. (1) John George, Bartlett.

TEXAS—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

DISTRICT 1. (1) Dr. B. C. Watts, Deer Park. (2) Nellie Buttery, Lamar Annex Hotel, Houston.

DISTRICT 3. (1) J. C. Gates, Beeville. (2) C. E. Burnett, Corpus Christi.

DISTRICT 5. (1) Miss Allie Rich, Petersmith School, Ft. Worth. (2) Irby B. Carruth, Bonham.

DISTRICT 6. (1) J. F. Reeves, Supt. of Schools, Ft. Stockton.

DISTRICT 7. (1) E. H. James, Central Elementary School, Vernon.

DISTRICT 8. (1) Edward Munson Potter, 1408 N. Bois d'Arc, Tyler. (2) Mrs. Mamie Whitaker, Henderson.

DISTRICT 10. (1) W. H. Norwood, Supt. of Schools, Corsicana. (2) R. A. Armistead, 709 W. Third St., Corsicana.

DISTRICT 11. (1) A. L. Stewart, Brady. (2) J. I. Warren, Supt. of Schools, Miles. CENTRAL DIVISION OF ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS AND SUPERVISORS. (1) R. M. Hix, 905 Magnolia St., Hearne. (2) Mrs. A. J. Sewell, Belton.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) F. E. Wilks, Taylor. (2) Ruby Jones, 927 N. 17th St., Waco.

JEFFERSON COUNTY ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' AND SUPERVISORS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Wayne Young, 2010 14th St., Port Arthur. (2) Roy Garey, French School, Beaumont.

TRANS-PECOS DIVISION. (1) Mary Alice Allen, 1210 Los Angeles St., El Paso.

UTAH—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

BOX ELDER COUNTY. (1) Leon F. Christiansen, Willard. (2) Oleen Palmer, Perry.

CACHE COUNTY. (1) Joseph Malenberg, Clarkston. (2) Homer Hyde, Hyde Park.

DAVIS COUNTY. (1) Mark Argyle, Clearfield.

UNITAH COUNTY. (1) John Stagg, Vernal. (2) Thomas E. Caldwell, Vernal.

UTAH COUNTY. (Includes three school tracts—Alpine, Nebo and Provo). (1) Fred C. Strate, 733 N. University Ave., Provo. (2) H. R. Staheli, Provo.

WEBER COUNTY. (1) Leland Rhees, Harrisville, Route 3, Ogden. (2) Don Carver, Plain City.

GRANITE SECTION. (1) A. O. Clark, 23rd E. 48th St., Salt Lake City. (2) W. H. Dayton, 34th W. Seventh St., Salt Lake City.

PARK CITY, MORGAN, N. SUMMIT, S. SUMMIT AND WASATCH SECTION. (1) Eugene McCusker, Park City. (2) J. Hibbert, Marion.

SEVIER SECTION. (1) J. E. Christensen, Richfield. (2) Alma S. Edwards, Joseph.

SOUTH SANPETE DISTRICT. (1) Clive Despain, Centerfield.

VERMONT—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

CHAPLAIN VALLEY SECTION. (1) Mrs. Thelma H. Jobling, Burlington.

ORANGE-WINDSOR COUNTY. (1) Carl Anderson, Thetford. (2) Charles S. Rising, White River Junction.

SOUTHEASTERN SECTION. (1) Natt B. Burbank, Bellows Falls.

WINOOSKI VALLEY SECTION. (1) Ariel A. Benway, Richmond.

VIRGINIA—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

CHESTERFIELD COUNTY. (1) Flora M. Hill, Colonial Heights School, Colonial Heights. (2) Thelma Crenshaw, Matoaca School, Matoaca.

FAIRFAX COUNTY. (1) Ethel Sims, R. F. D. 2, Alexandria. (2) Mary S. Wine, Route 1, Alexandria.

GILES COUNTY. (1) Mrs. C. A. McClaugherty, Pearisburg. (2) R. M. Fink, Narrows.

PRINCESS ANNE COUNTY. (1) Mary R. Kellam, Virginia Beach. (2) Thelma Cummings, Virginia Beach.

ROANOKE COUNTY. (1) Annie Hancock, Broad Street School, Salem. (2) Mrs. Gay McClenny, Mount Vernon School, Salem.

WASHINGTON COUNTY. (1) Madge Leonard, Route 1, Bristol. (2) Virginia Thomas, Prospect Ave., Bristol.

DISTRICT F. (1) Paul G. Hook, Moody School, Clifton Forge. (2) Mrs. Catherine P. Watts, 1060 Rivermont Ter., Lynchburg.

DISTRICT H. (1) Mrs. J. N. Howdershell, Annandale School, Alexandria. (2) Eleanore W. King, Robert E. Lee School, Arlington.

WASHINGTON — ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

BENTON, KLICKITAT AND YAKIMA COUNTIES. (1) Edna L. Keene, Box 344, Prosser. (2) A. L. Lawson, Route 7, Yakima.

COWLITZ COUNTY. (1) Ralph Johnson, Woodland. (2) John Fuller, Woodland.

GRAYS HARBOR COUNTY. (1) Claude Musgrove, Wishkah Valley. (2) Ann Preuss, McClary.

SKAGIT COUNTY. (1) John Amend, 916 S. 11th St., Mt. Vernon. (2) Mrs. Max Ford, 521 Nelson St., Sedro-Woolley.

WHATCOM COUNTY GRADE SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Gordon W. Leen, Acme. (2) Clinton McBeath, Everson.

CENTRAL SECTION. (1) Edna L. Keene, Box 344, Prosser. (2) A. L. Rosenhall, Bingen.

DISTRICT ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' STUDY CLUB. (1) Elmer T. Thune, Stanley School, Tacoma. (2) C. G. Jespersen, Fern Hill School, Tacoma.

NORTH CENTRAL SECTION. (1) John Rutherford, Lincoln School, Wenatchee. (2) Adrian Douglas, South Wenatchee.

PUGET SOUND SCHOOLMASTERS' CLUB. (1) M. E. Durham, 2823 21st, W. Seattle. (2) Frank Farrar, 7752 33rd Ave., N. W., Seattle.

REGIONAL DIRECTORS.

Brock, Frank M., Alki School, Seattle. Edmondson, Earl E. E., Rose Valley Elementary School, Kelso.

Fitzgerald, Marie, Hutton School, Spokane.

Fowler, Ivan A., A. J. West School, Aberdeen.

Glen, G. V., Principal, Grand View.

Hardesty, Bonner K., Principal, Dixie.

Hemenway, Mrs. Julia S., Elementary School, Kennewick.

Laughon, Wendell, Principal, Du Pont.

Pinckney, Paul W., Columbia School, Bellingham.

Rutherford, John, Lincoln School, Wenatchee.

Sharnbroich, Lorraine, Jefferson School, Port Angeles.

WEST VIRGINIA — ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

BARBER COUNTY. (1) C. B. Harvey, Philippl. (2) Mrs. Audra Gall, Lambert, Bellington.

BRAXTON COUNTY. (1) Gilbert Reed, Flatwoods. (2) Vaughn H. Duffield, Gassaway.

CABELL COUNTY. (1) A. F. Evans, 2728 Guyan Ave., Huntington. (2) Mrs. Margaret Phillips, 165 Ricketts Pl., Huntington.

CALHOUN COUNTY. (1) Paul Powell, Grantsville. (2) Ivah M. Brannon, Orma.

CLAY COUNTY. (1) Alva M. Bennett, Fola. (2) Maxine Downey, Clay.

DODDRIDGE COUNTY. (1) Alton Childers, Morgansville. (2) Rymer Starkey, Ashley.

FAYETTE COUNTY. (1) R. E. Caven-
dish, Minden. (2) C. C. Neal, Oak Hill.
GREENBRIER COUNTY. (1) C. P. Cor-
ron, White Sulphur Springs. (2) How-
ard Scott, Ronceverte.

HAMPSHIRE COUNTY. (1) W. L.
Thompson, Three Churches. (2) S. W.
Judy, Romney.

HARRISON COUNTY. (1) Burlin M.
Rector, Church Court, Shinnston. (2)
Lucy Robinson, Towers School, Clarks-
burg.

JEFFERSON COUNTY. (1) Fred Wel-
shane, Shepherdstown.

KENAWHA COUNTY. (1) Paul J. Stev-
ers, 933 West Virginia Ave., Dunbar.
(2) Charles Wharton, First Ward School,
Dunbar.

LEWIS COUNTY. (1) Glenn L. Brown,
Weston. (2) Alice Garriet, Weston.

LOGAN COUNTY. (1) Ernest B. Crad-
dock, Henlawson. (2) Alice Ruth Baker,
Amherstdale.

MCDOWELL COUNTY. (1) E. B. McCue,
Bartley. (2) E. C. Bailey, Welch.

MARION COUNTY. (1) F. Walter Cox,
1024 Fennimore St., Fairmont. (2) Lar-
ney Gump, Monongah.

MARSHALL COUNTY. (1) Roy Yeater,
805 Fifth St., Moundsville. (2) Ada
Cummins, Rosby's Rock.

MERCER COUNTY. (1) Margaret Easley,
1101 Augusta St., Bluefield. (2) Moody
Bailey, Matoka.

MINERAL COUNTY. (1) Frank Burgess,
New Creek. (2) Paul Kalbaugh, Elk
Garden.

MONONGALIA COUNTY SCHOOLMASTERS'
CLUB. (1) Mrs. Edith Glenn, 345 Jack-
son Ave., Morgantown. (2) Sylvia
Lynch, Route 1, Morgantown.

MONROE COUNTY. (1) Roy Ash, Union.
(2) Ethlene McGuire, Gap Mills.

OHIO COUNTY. (1) Charles Woodruff,
Elm Grove Junior High School, Wheel-
ing. (2) Ethel Lee Wallace, 41 15th St.,
Wheeling.

PLEASANTS COUNTY. (1) O. B. Farren,
St. Marys. (2) C. D. Wagner, Belmont.

POCAHONTAS COUNTY. (1) Max Pos-
cover, Durbin. (2) J. K. Arbogast, Cass.

PRESTON COUNTY. (1) Frank Stemple,
Aurora. (2) J. V. Gainer, Tunnelton.

RALEIGH COUNTY. (1) Hume Vogt,
Box 1435, Beckley. (2) Mrs. Melissa
Dickerson, Box 12, Beckley.

RANDOLPH COUNTY. (1) Stark A. Wil-
moth, Elkins. (2) Margaret Rigglesman,
Elkins.

ROANE COUNTY. (1) Maysel Whiting,
Spencer. (2) Maxine Carper, Amma.

SUMMERS COUNTY. (1) Mrs. Ruby H.
Williams, Box 613, Hinton. (2) George
Utterback, Clayton.

TAYLOR COUNTY. (1) Howard A.
Walls, 113 Beech St., Grafton. (2)
Arthur Wolfe, Grafton.

TUCKER COUNTY. (1) Earl Corcoran,
Parsons. (2) Martha Bomberger,
Thomas.

TYLER COUNTY. (1) L. O. Lawson,
Middlebourne. (2) Alden Wince, Wick.

UPSHUR COUNTY. (1) Russell West-
fall, Adrian. (2) Mrs. Zula Davis, Buck-
hannon.

WAYNE COUNTY. (1) Mrs. Louise
Hutchison, 1400 Pine St., Kenova. (2)
Mrs. Beatrice Ward, 732 Jefferson Ave.,
Huntington.

WEBSTER COUNTY. (1) Alva Anderson,
Bergoo. (2) Okey McCourt, Webster
Springs.

WOOD COUNTY. (1) W. E. Lawson,
2903 N. Avery St., Parkersburg. (2)
Austin H. George, Elizabeth Pike, Par-
kersburg.

WYOMING COUNTY. (1) G. B. McGrew,
Wyco.

WISCONSIN—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRIN- CIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

ASHLAND AREA. (1) Bessie Alcorn,
Ashland. (2) Bertha E. Brensike, Ash-
land.

CHIPPEWA FALLS AREA. (1) Freda
Johnson, Chippewa Falls.

JANESVILLE AREA. (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. Hef-
ernan, 2112 S. Ninth St., Sheboygan.

PLATTEVILLE AREA. (1) Frances Bent-
ley, 612 Pine St., Platteville.

STEVENS POINT CENTRAL AREA. (1)
Lucy Doyle, 503 Church St., Stevens
Point.

SUPERIOR AREA. (1) Josephine Ben-
son, 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
SCHOOL PRINCIPALS. (1) Glenn Barrow,
Irontdale. (2) R. Voyt Hill, 865 W. Fifth
St., Birmingham.

ARKANSAS—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS'
SECTION. (1) Carter Short, Fayetteville.
(2) Lela Nichols, Hot Springs.

CALIFORNIA—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL
PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Alton E.
Scott, District Superintendent, San Juan
Bautista. (2) Edwin Clark, Avenal.

COLORADO—ASSOCIATION OF ELEMEN-
TARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS. (1) Monell
V. Nelson, Central Platoon School, Ft.
Morgan. (2) Mrs. Ethel M. Storey,
South-Central School, Lamar.

CONNECTICUT—DEPARTMENT OF ELE-
MENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS. (1) Caro-
line Gray, C. A. Bingham School, Bristol.
(2) Ralph W. Carrington, Bunker Hill
School, Waterbury.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA—ELEMENTARY
PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Eva M.
Trushelm, Congress Heights School. (2)
Katherine Doonan, J. R. West School.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA—ELEMENTARY
PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) J. C.
Payne, 654 L St., N. E. (2) Mrs. Ruth G.
Savoy, 1814 Vernon St., N. W.

FLORIDA—DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY
PRINCIPALS. (1) Frances Belcher, Clear-
water. (2) Helen E. Nippert, 1014 Thrd
St., N., St. Petersburg.

GEORGIA—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Mrs. H. B. Carreker, Glenwood School, Decatur. (2) Maude A. Rhodes, 185 Westminster Dr., N. E., Atlanta.

IDAHO—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Ray Peterson, Burley. (2) W. C. Sorenson, Emmett.

ILLINOIS—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Otis K. McMahon, Carterville. (2) Don D. Shute, East Peoria.

INDIANA—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' DEPARTMENT. (1) Agnes Mahoney, 4227 Broadway, Indianapolis. (2) Loren Reed, Clinton.

IOWA—DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS. (1) D. D. Kinser, Jackson and Taylor Schools, Davenport. (2) Mrs. Leona Wilcox, 1916 44th St., Des Moines.

KANSAS—ASSOCIATION OF ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS. (1) C. P. Wetlanfer, Hays. (2) Ruth Mitchell, Salina.

KENTUCKY—SUPERVISORS' AND PRINCIPALS' GROUP. (1) Etta Paulson, Morehead Teachers College, Morehead. (2) Mrs. Lela Vice Powell, Frenchburg.

LOUISIANA—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' SECTION. (1) T. L. Stafford, Opelousas. (2) Mrs. G. Martin, Natalbany.

MARYLAND—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' DIVISION. (1) Earl F. Brain, High School, Frostburg. (2) Robert Jones, Jackson School, Lonaconing.

MASSACHUSETTS—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) LeRoy E. 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. Dale Reynolds, Sampson School, Detroit.

MINNESOTA—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' SECTION. (1) Annie Ginsberg, Phalen Park School, St. Paul. (2) Lettisha Henderson, Dept. of Education, Court House, St. Paul.

MISSISSIPPI—DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS AND SUPERVISORS. (1) Sallie B. Newman, Supvr. of Elementary Schools, Jackson. (2) Robert Wayde Ousley, 2424 20th St., Gulfport.

MISSOURI—DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS. (1) Emma O. Mumm, Hosea School, St. Joseph. (2) James A. Sanders, Leadwood Elementary School, Leadwood.

NEBRASKA—DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS. (1) Mrs. Nellie C. Williams, Sherman School, Omaha. (2) Mabel Jackson, Clinton School, Lincoln.

NEW HAMPSHIRE—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) James Armstrong, North Conway Grammar School, North Conway. (2) Elsa Thunburg, Hancock School, Franklin.

NEW JERSEY—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Raymond S. Michael, Junior High School No. 3, Trenton. (2) Mrs. Mary V. Peters, Ventnor Avenue School, Ventnor City.

NEW MEXICO—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' SECTION. (1) Jimmy Gammill, Box 96, Jal. (2) Mrs. Mettie Jordan Mack, Eunice.

NEW YORK—ASSOCIATION OF ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS. (1) Mary Lawlor, Salem Hyde School, Syracuse. (2) Walter A. Le Baron, Franklin School, Schenectady.

NORTH CAROLINA—DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS. (1) Dean B. Pruette, Valdese Elementary School, Valdese. (2) Mrs. Verta I. Coe, Brentwood School, High Point.

OHIO—DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS. (1) Dr. Wilbur A. Yauch, Roosevelt School, Euclid. (2) Edna Morgan, Paul Revere School, Cleveland.

OKLAHOMA—DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS. (1) H. H. Stephenson, Whittier School, Muskogee. (2) A. O. H. Setzpfandt, Barnard School, Tulsa.

OREGON—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' DEPARTMENT. (1) C. H. Quicksall, Graham. (2) Martin Nelson, Lane School, Portland.

PENNSYLVANIA—DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS. (1) D. J. Mahoney, Conyngham School, Wilkes-Barre. (2) Dr. William W. Hazlett, Benjamin Franklin School, Philadelphia.

RHODE ISLAND—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Gilbert F. Hall, 23 Legion Way, Cranston. (2) Elizabeth Baldwin, 209 Newell Ave., Pawtucket.

SOUTH CAROLINA—DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS. (1) W. J. Castine, Batesburg. (2) Spencer Elliott, Walterboro.

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—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' AND SUPERVISORS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Etta DeKraay, 303 Fifth Ave., S. E., Aberdeen. (2) Adah E. Minard, Watertown.

TENNESSEE—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' SECTION. (1) L. W. Dwyer, Giffin School, Knoxville. (2) Lucile Ham, Peabody School, Memphis.

TEXAS—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' AND SUPERVISORS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Franklin M. Mathis, 212 Lindsey Lane, Tyler. (2) A. E. Wells, Glade-water.

UTAH—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Frank Stevens, Corinne. (2) Victor J. Bott, Lincoln School, Brigham.

VIRGINIA—DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS. (1) James E. Bauserman, Box 51, Fairfax. (2) Mary S. Wine, Route 1, Alexandria.

WASHINGTON—DIVISION OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS. (1) W. O. E. Radcliffe, Lincoln School, Bellingham. (2) W. C. Ryan, University Heights School, Seattle.

WEST VIRGINIA—ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) W. E. Lawson, 2903 N. Avery St., Parkersburg. (2) Mrs. Margaret Phillips, 165 Ricketts Pl., Huntington.

WISCONSIN—ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. (1) Stephan A. Oellerich, 616 S. Ingersoll St., Madison. (2) Fred S. Schnell, 2722 Highland Ter., Sheboygan.

LIST OF MEMBERS

THE DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

FOR THE YEAR 1939-40, CORRECTED TO JUNE 1, 1940

† Indicates the Life Members of the Department

One asterisk (*) indicates the City, County, and District Representatives
of the Department

Two asterisks (**) indicate the State Representatives of the Department

§ Indicates those members who are deceased

ALABAMA

- Ansley, Foster, 2408 N. 12th Ave., Birmingham
- Attebery, J. S., Forrest Hill Dr., Crichton
- Baker, Mrs. Minnie, 3018 12th Ave., N., Birmingham
- Ballenger, Fred J., Supt. of Schools, Fairfax
- Barrow, Glenn, 1731 Fourth Ave., Iron-dale
- Belser, Birdie A., 103 N. Lewis St., Mont-gomery
- Belser, Dr. Danylu, College of Education, University of Alabama, University
- Blair, Mrs. J. E., 522 Seventh Ave., W., Decatur
- Brown, Eura, 950 Walnut St., Gadsden
- Bryant, Mrs. Fred B., 2025 Leighton Ave., Anniston
- Calhoun, E. B., 1127 S. 23rd St., Birming-ham
- Carlisle, Mrs. Cecil A., 321 Poinciana Dr., Birmingham
- Centerfit, Miss Innee, 1246 S. Court St., Montgomery
- Couch, Malcolm G., Prin. of Schools, Par-rish
- Cox, E. E., Supt. of Schools, Box 365, Guntersville
- Cox, George D., 1408 N. 20th St., Bir-mingham
- Evans, Wilson, Kate Duncan Smith D.A.R. School, Grant
- Flock, Mrs. Elizabeth C., 7 N. Bayou St., Mobile
- Follis, Hattie, 3013 Ave. F., Ensley, Bir-mingham
- Goldthwaite, Therese, Decatur Street School, Montgomery
- Grace, H. T., Supt. of Schools, Enterprise
- Green, Mary Ward, 805 12th Ave., Tusca-loosa
- Hall, William R., R. F. D. 5, Box 63-B, Birmingham
- Hamil, E. Cranston, 22 Macy Pl., Mobile
- Hanlin, J. Paul, 833 McMillan Ave., Bir-mingham
- Havard, Bernard V., Junior High School and Elementary School, Dozier
- Hendricks, George L., Gate City School, Birmingham
- Hill, R. Voyt, Martin School, 1325 12th St., N., Birmingham
- Hopper, Jessie, 109 S. Grove St., Hunts-ville
- **Johnston, Robert C., 2030 Magnolia Ave., S., Birmingham
- Jones, Lenore, 1606 Monterey Pl., Mobile
- Kelly, F. L., The Graymont School, 300 Eighth Ave., W., Birmingham
- Livingston, James A., Gantt
- McLatchy, Gertrude E., Elyton School, 100 Tuscaloosa Ave., Birmingham
- MacMillan, Emma, 120 Cramer Ave., Montgomery
- Martin, Ralph, 8010 First Ave., N., Bir-mingham
- Matzenger, Lena, 1058 Selma St., Mobile
- Mays, J. M., Flomaton
- Meigs, Mrs. Mary S., 1209 Glenwood Ter., Anniston
- Moore, A. C., Supt. of Schools, Atmore
- Moore, Mrs. J. W., Stafford School, Tusca-loosa
- Moseley, C. C., P. O. Box 1025, Anniston
- Moss, Dalton, Box 83, Oneonta
- Murphree, Mrs. Myra B., Box 235, Pratt-ville
- Norton, H. B., Robinson School, 8409 First Ave., S., Birmingham
- Oldham, Hart, Elementary School, Clover-dale
- O'Neal, Edmund J., Training School, Waugh
- Pogue, James V., Gibson School, 956 N. 50th St., Birmingham
- Price, N. H., 300 Sixth St., S. W., Bir-mingham
- Reagan, William A., 1736 26th St., Fair-view, Birmingham
- Reynolds, Mrs. Nellie Dunn, Northport
- Rives, Janie L., 5 High St., Montgomery
- *Rodgers, G. T., 601 Winona Ave., Mont-gomery
- Rogers, Bettie, Elementary School, Union Springs
- Rumsey, Margaret, Elrod
- Sanders, E. O., 2745 Pike Ave., Ensley, Birmingham
- Sapp, Ella F., 1511 Fourth Ave., Bessemer
- Sasser, Mrs. Roxie J., Elem., Supvr., Shelby County, Board of Education, Columbiana
- †Sheffield, Mrs. Frances L., 10 N. Ann St., Mobile
- Shores, Mrs. Elizabeth, Box 795, Gadsden
- Showalter, Dr. E. R., Prof. of Education, Alabama Polytechnic Institute, Auburn
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- Upton, Mrs. C. M., Box 737, Wylam
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- Wagner, J. L., Elementary School, Gads-den
- Wiener, Florence E., 252 S. Ann St., Mo-bile

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ARIZONA

*Benedict, Franklin J., Benson Grammar School, Benson
 *Bradford, H. F., Route 5, Box 442, Phoenix
 Brown, Clarence S., Box 68, Ajo
 *Carlisle, O. L., Prin. of Schools, Somerton
 *Case, Maurice, Box 1476, Miami
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 *Doepke, Lydia M., Box 375, Clarkdale
 Hall, Robert T., Box 317, Miami
 Hatch, E. Kay, Pomerene Public School, Dist. No. 64, Pomerene
 Hatch, Merrill, Arlington School, Arlington
 Keen, Julia C., 1905 E. Fourth St., Tucson
 King, J. W., P. O. Box 2256, Phoenix
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 Landry, P., Box 3613, Phoenix
 Loper, John D., P. O. Box 2191, Phoenix
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 Mercer, Arthur, Liberty School, Liberty
 Meyers, George L., Keams Canyon Boarding School, Keams Canyon
 Oswald, Edward, School Dist. No. 2, Williams
 Porter, M. D., Supt. of Schools, Holbrook
 Reed, Virginia, Clawson School, Douglas
 *Riggs, Edwon L., Dysart School No. 89, Peoria
 Rippey, Dr. Andrew D., Laboratory School, State Teachers College, Flagstaff
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 Shepherd, Rulon T., Supt. of Schools, Box 391, Mesa
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 Stinchfield, Bess, 2230 Alvarado Rd., Phoenix
 Sullivan, W. R., Elementary School, Palo Verde
 *Tate, Martin C., South Ward School, Safford
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ARKANSAS

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 *Beard, C. E., Trusty School, Ft. Smith
 Blair, Mr. A. Witt, Peabody School, Ft. Smith
 Bustion, Mrs. Paul, Elementary School, Magnolia
 Byrd, Portia, Retta Brown School, El Dorado
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Fearing, Mrs. Ben, Cleveland Avenue School, Camden
 Futrall, Alma, Dept. of Education, Lee County, Marianna
 Hames, Beulah, Paris Grade School, Paris
 *Haraway, Fannie, Jefferson School, Helena
 Jinske, Dr. Henry W., Prof. of Education, Arkansas College, Batesville
 Jones, Ralph B., Junior High School, Ft. Smith
 Lewis, Mary J., Howard School, Ft. Smith
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 Shannon, A. G., Supt. of Schools, Stamps
 Spencer, Terrell, DuVal School, N. 14th and L Sts., Ft. Smith
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 *Williams, Mollie, Belle Point School, Ft. Smith

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 Berry, Bertha Irene, 1261 S. Mariposa St., Glendale
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 *Birch, J. E., R. F. D. 106, Willows
 Bishop, Ethelyn, 612 N. New Hampshire St., Los Angeles
 Bishop, Frank E., Dist. Supt. of Schools, Corona
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 Brems, Edna M., Embassy Hotel, San Diego
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 †Brown, Guy E., 585 South L St., Livermore
 Buckalew, Harry L., 1019 N. Van Ness St., Fresno
 Buell, Charles, Bar-V Ranch School, Nuevo
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 Burleson, Boletta A., 2036 Bolmer Dr., Los Angeles
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 Buttner, Mrs. Ella I., Homestead School, Mill Valley
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 Calder, Jessie F., 3956 72nd Ave., Oakland
 Calvert, Aubrey W., 521 Columbia St., El Monte
 Calvert, Everett T., 2779 Rose Ave., Altadena
 Carmichael, Bessie M., 348 Louisburg St., San Francisco
 Carothers, Alice L., 1920 218th St., Torrance
 Carpenter, Charles F., 1432 Englewood Ave., Fresno
 Carroll, Hazel I., 4947 Melrose Hill, Hollywood
 Carver, Mary H., 3755 Seventh Ave., San Diego
 Cavanagh, Neva Mary, 353 Harold St., Ft. Bragg
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 Monagan, Roger T., Longfellow School, 6593 Smiley St., St. Louis
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 Barrie, Margaret J., Lincoln School, Hawthorne
 Bateman, Edyth J., Madison Avenue School, Atlantic City
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 St., Perth Amboy
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- Orr, Ethel M., Board of Education, 22
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- Scott, Anna C., 215 N. Central Ave., Engle-
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- Sorven, Edward J., McKinley School, New-
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- Sexton, Wray E., 23 Hoffman St., Maple-
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- Shaner, Deborah, Robert Stacy Junior
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- Sheninger, Albert H., Sigsbee Ave., Alpha
- Sheppard, Irene B., 232 High St., Burling-
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- Sherman, Eugene F., R. F. D. 1, Sewell
- Shoe, John M., Middlesex County Voca-
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- Shotwell, Fred C., 1 School Plaza, Frank-
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- Viemeister, Edmund H., 10 N. 12th St.,
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- *Wamsley, Mrs. Jessie M., Walls School,
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of the INDIVIDUAL CHILD

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