

PERIODICAL ROOM
GENERAL LIBRARY
UNIV. OF MICH.

JUN 27 1934

RESEARCH BULLETIN

OF THE NATIONAL
EDUCATION
ASSOCIATION

VOL. XII · No. 3
MAY · 1934

Education for Character

Part II: Improving the School Program

Published by the RESEARCH DIVISION of the
NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

RESEARCH BULLETIN OF THE

Published five times each year
in January, March, May,
September, and November

NATIONAL
EDUCATION
ASSOCIATION

President, JESSIE GRAY

Secretary, J. W. CRABTREE

The payment of the \$5 membership fee of the National Education Association entitles one to receive for one year the Research Bulletin, the Journal, the Annual Volume of Addresses and Proceedings, and certain other publications of the Association. One dollar of each \$5 membership fee is for a year's subscription to

the Research Bulletin. The Research Bulletin may be subscribed for separately at \$1 per year. Copies may be purchased for 25 cents, and in quantities at a reduced rate. Those entitled to receive the Research Bulletin regularly are asked to report at once any change of residence, giving old as well as new address.

Entered as second-class matter February 10, 1923, at the Post Office at Washington, D. C., under Act of August 24, 1912. Acceptance for mailing at special rate of postage provided for in Section 1103, Act of October 3, 1917, authorized February 10, 1923.

Director of Research: William G. Carr; Associate Director: Frank W. Hubbard
Assistant Directors: Richard R. Foster, Ivan A. Booker

Executive and Editorial Offices . . . 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

Purchasing Copies

Additional copies of this issue of the Research Bulletin may be obtained at the following prices, postpaid if remittance accompanies order:

- Single copies, 25c.
- 2 to 9 copies—10% reduction.
- 10 to 99 copies—25% reduction.
- 100 or more copies—33⅓% reduction.

Orders for Research Bulletins not accompanied by remittance are subject to transportation charges. Make checks payable to National Education Association.

Subscriptions

The Research Bulletin may be received regularly thru a special subscription at \$1 per year. Many of the early issues of the Research Bulletin are already out

of print. The special subscription at \$1 per year offers an opportunity to maintain a complete file of future Research Bulletins.

Reproduction of Material in Research Bulletins

Material appearing in Research Bulletins may, with the usual acknowledgments, be reproduced for the advancement of education. No authority other than this notice is needed previous to such reproduction. In such cases a letter describing the proposed use of materials will be appreciated. Address communications to the Research Division, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

On request, the Division of Publications will supply at cost mats of figures which appear in the Research Bulletin.

CONTENTS

	Page
FOREWORD	84
I. OBJECTIVES AND GENERAL PROVISIONS OF THE CHARACTER-BUILDING PROGRAM.....	85
Aims of the program.....	85
General provisions for character building in public school systems.....	89
Nature and scope of an adequate program.....	93
II. BUILDING CHARACTER THRU THE CURRICULUM.....	96
General curriculum principles.....	96
General methods of teaching and learning.....	98
Content and method in specific school subjects.....	101
Class participation in special character-building activities.....	102
Out-of-class school activities.....	109
III. BUILDING CHARACTER THRU INDIVIDUAL GUIDANCE.....	117
Discovering pupils with behavior problems.....	117
The case method of studying the maladjusted pupil.....	119
Counseling by teachers and principals.....	121
Specialists as counselors.....	122
Organization of the school guidance program.....	124
Specialized service outside the schools.....	127
IV. BUILDING CHARACTER THRU SCHOOL AND CLASSROOM ADMINISTRATION.....	130
Function of school administration in character building.....	130
Influence of the schoolboard.....	130
Character of the school personnel.....	131
Contribution of school organization.....	132
Significance of school plant administration.....	134
Management of school and classroom.....	135
Relation of the school to outside agencies.....	137
Public support of the character-building program.....	139
V. A FEW SELECTED BOOKS AND PERIODICALS ON CHARACTER AND CHARACTER EDUCATION.....	140

LIST OF TABLES

1. Percents of Teachers and Children Responding in Various Ways to Suggested Solutions of a Moral Problem.....	86
2. Percent of School Systems Reporting Various General Provisions for Character Education.....	90
3. Statements Selected by Superintendents of Schools as Best Describing Relationship between Home and School in Programs of Character Education.....	91
4. Percent of School Systems Reporting the Use of Bulletins and Course-of-Study Materials in Character Education.....	92
5. Percent of School Systems Reporting Various Provisions as to the Use of Personnel in Character Education.....	94
6. Average Percent of Cheating on Certain Tests in Two Types of Public School.....	98
7. Average Percent of Cheating in Two Types of Public School in Relation to the Occupational Level of Parents.....	98
8. Relative Frequency of Large Issues in the Moral Situations Faced by Six-Year-Old Children.....	105
9. Relative Frequency of Elements in Situations Leading to Intentional Misrepresentation of Fact by Six-Year-Old Children.....	105
10. Number of Organizations to Which High-School Graduates Had Belonged during Four Years in High School.....	110

LIST OF FIGURES

I. Organization of Personnel for Guidance in Thornton Township High School, Harvey, Ill.....	126
II. Organization and Functions of the Bureau of Educational Counsel of LaSalle-Peru Township High School and LaSalle-Peru-Oglesby Junior College, Ill.....	127
III. Proposed Organization of a Central Bureau or Department of Guidance for a Large School System.....	128

FOREWORD

ECONOMIC and social changes of comparatively recent date have greatly complicated the problems of human conduct and have seriously weakened the older forms of social education and control. Intelligent efforts to develop in each individual the desire and the capacity for finer social living are needed today more than ever before. The school, of course, cannot assume all or even the major share of responsibility for improving character. It will, however, be derelict in its duty if it fails to do everything in its power toward this end.

In recognition of these facts, the National Education Association has recently given special attention to the subject of character building. In 1932 the yearbooks of the Department of Classroom Teachers and the Department of Superintendence both dealt with problems in this field. Now the Research Division, in response to a need for useful material in more compact form, has prepared two bulletins on the subject. The March 1934 issue reviewed some characteristics of modern life which have important implications for character development, and summarized available research concerning the nature of character and the psychological and social factors involved in its formation. The facts and conclusions presented in that bulletin furnish the background and general viewpoint for the present issue, which deals with the improvement of character thru the school.

This bulletin does not present a ready-made program of materials and devices for character building. Scientific study in this field is difficult, and objective evidence on many points is inconclusive or lacking. Nevertheless, in the findings of research, expert opinion, and modern school practise there is much that can be utilized in improving education for character. Using these as guides, the bulletin outlines the general type of program which seems to be necessary in the school, and makes numerous suggestions concerning the details of such a program. References for further study are included thruout the text.

The present widespread interest in character development should make this bulletin particularly welcome. Together with the preceding issue, it should have a wide circulation among teachers and school administrators, among those who are engaged in the preparation of teachers, and among people generally who are interested in improving human character and the society in which we live.

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary,*
National Education Association.

I. Objectives and General Provisions of the Character-Building Program

The preceding issue of the *Research Bulletin*¹ presented information concerning the psychological nature of character and the many factors involved in its formation. This issue deals with the work of the school in developing desirable character. Whereas the earlier bulletin was concerned primarily with basic principles, this one undertakes to show what these principles probably mean for a school program of character building. In doing this, the bulletin uses the results of pertinent research, expert opinion, and current practise in the schools. The discussion of many topics, however, is necessarily brief. For further elaboration and for specific illustrations the reader is usually referred to other sources.

Aims of the Program

An understanding of desirable goals in character growth is essential to the development of an adequate program in the schools. It is not sufficient to define desirable character as "general goodness" and to assume that all right-minded people agree as to what this term means. There are, no doubt, some very fundamental questions of conduct upon which general agreement exists. But there are also marked differences of opinion both as to the primary objective of moral living, and as to what behavior is desirable in many specific situations. These varying viewpoints are significant for education, not only because they sometimes call for different types of conduct, but also because some of them imply different approaches to the problem of improving character and personality.

It is not within the scope of this bulletin to analyze in detail the various definitions of good character which have been proposed.² It will be worthwhile, however, to review briefly several concepts which have recently received emphasis in school practise or in educational literature: (1) good character as conformity to the mores of society; (2) good character as a composite of desirable traits and ideals; (3) good

character as a composite of specific habits and attitudes needed in life; (4) good character as harmonious adjustment of the personality; and (5) good character as self-expression. These definitions overlap somewhat, but each one emphasizes something which is not necessarily implied in the others. All of them include important values, but none seems entirely satisfactory as the *primary* objective of character development. Following the discussion of these five, therefore, is a statement of what appears to be a better and more inclusive standard, together with suggestions concerning subordinate objectives and the use of specific criteria for good conduct.

Some General Statements of the Character Objective

Good character as conformity to the mores of society—This standard for character probably receives the major emphasis in most school systems, altho it may not be specified in the course of study. It calls for conduct in accord with the expectations of one's social group—doing what the majority approves. Such a criterion has considerable merit. Many important types of behavior are approved by society because they have been proved valuable thru centuries of human experience. The older generation tends to pass on to the younger the forms and procedures which it has found useful, and these should not be cast aside indiscriminately. People who ignore them get into unnecessary difficulties, and often do serious harm to themselves and to others.

On the other hand, abject obedience to convention is as undesirable as complete non-conformity. Many practises tend to persist after the need for them has passed. In a period of rapid social change, attitudes and habits once useful may soon become futile or actually harmful. New modes of action must be tried out. Such experiments should be based upon the solid experience of the past, but they should not be unduly limited by that expe-

¹ National Education Association, Research Division. "Education for Character. Part I: The Social and Psychological Background." *Research Bulletin* 12: 41-80; March, 1934.

² Such an analysis is found in: National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. *Character Education*. Tenth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1932. p. 31-59.

rience. Important as traditional ways of living undoubtedly are, some additional criterion is needed which will permit the introduction of new ways when the old ones are no longer appropriate.

Good character as a composite of desirable traits and ideals—The concept of good character as a composite of traits, virtues, or ideals is found in many character-education programs and courses of study. It is a convenient concept because it utilizes terms that are familiar in everyday life. Moreover, a series of trait-names such as honesty, loyalty, self-control, and cooperation appears offhand to be an economical device for giving teachers and children a bird's-eye view of the entire area of character. However, certain objections have been made to using such a list to represent the ultimate goal of character development: (1) the trait objective tends to overemphasize conformity to the conventional mores and to resist changes in specific modes of behavior when new conditions demand such changes; (2) in many situations two or more traits which seem desirable come into conflict; few if any traits can be applied rigidly and universally without sacrificing some equally important value; and (3) the trait concept encourages the use of teaching methods that are psychologically unsound. The third of these objections has several aspects: (a) a trait is often thought of as a distinct power or faculty of the mind which can be developed by train-

ing in a few situations so that it will function in all situations; (b) the child's attention is likely to be focused upon himself or upon the traits which he is exhibiting, rather than upon the consequences of his acts; (c) the teacher's attention is likely to be directed too much toward the child's overt conduct and too little toward the underlying causes of that conduct; and (d) there is a tendency to introduce broad generalizations before the child has had sufficient specific experiences to give them adequate meaning. These objections do not imply that trait-names should never be mentioned or that ethical generalizations have no place in a character-building program. Evidently, however, the primary standard for character should be more flexible and more in accord with accepted psychological principles than is the concept of general traits.

Good character as a composite of specific habits and attitudes needed in life—This definition also occurs frequently in bulletins and courses of study in character education. It accords more closely with the facts concerning the nature and formation of character than does the concept of general traits. Personality development is based upon specific responses to specific situations. On the other hand, the infinite variability of life situations makes it impossible to teach children a definite response for every specific moral situation which they may encounter. Generalization must be provided for by grouping situations and responses

TABLE 1.—PERCENTS OF TEACHERS AND CHILDREN RESPONDING IN VARIOUS WAYS TO SUGGESTED SOLUTIONS OF A MORAL PROBLEM

Problem and suggested solutions	Percent of 159 teachers			Percent of 177 children		
	Right	Excusable	Wrong	Right	Excusable	Wrong
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<i>Problem: If you and a friend or relative of yours are responsible for a certain piece of work, what should be your attitude?</i>						
<i>Suggested solutions:</i>						
1. Be sure that you are not imposed upon and have to do more than your share.	11	38	51	15	24	61
2. Tell your partner right at the beginning that you are not going to do more than he does.	5	36	59	14	19	67
3. Be sure to do at least your part.	89	10	1	92	7	1
4. Do it all if your partner is lazy and shoves all the work off on you.	30	28	42	43	27	30

Read table thus: Of the 159 teachers responding, 11 percent marked the first suggested solution "right"; 38 percent marked it "excusable"; and 51 percent marked it "wrong." Similarly read the figures for children and for the other three solutions suggested.

Source: Jones, Vernon. "Ideas on Right and Wrong Among Teachers and Children." *Teachers College Record* 30: 529-41; March, 1929.

according to types. Moreover, situations occur for which there seems to be no single correct response, or at least no response upon which competent people can agree as the *only* correct one. Jones,³ for example, found a lack of agreement among teachers as well as among children with respect to sixteen different situations involving moral choice. Four possible solutions to each situation were presented, and each person was asked to mark at least one of these four solutions "right." The other three could be marked "excusable" or "wrong." The teachers agreed unanimously on only two of the sixty-four solutions, and on only fifteen solutions did as many as 95 percent agree. The percent of individuals making various responses to one of the situations is shown in Table 1. The investigator concluded that the lack of agreement among the teachers does not indicate that moral guidance is unwarranted, but rather that preachment is often not justified. In other words, it seems presumptuous, if not dangerous, to formulate character objectives solely in terms of specific reactions to specific situations, when there may be room for significant differences of opinion as to the rightness or wrongness of many of these reactions.

Even if it were possible to obtain complete agreement as to the correct habits and attitudes in most situations at present, who could tell how long these reactions would continue to be most appropriate? In a period of rapid social change, any comprehensive list of desirable reactions is likely to include some which eventually will become obsolete and perhaps actually harmful. As the child grows older, therefore, he should have a standard of conduct which transcends the specific habits and generalized responses which he has learned, so that he will be disposed to modify these reactions whenever such modification promises to yield increased human values.

Good character as harmonious adjustment of the personality—Personality adjustment is perhaps seldom stated explicitly as the primary aim of school programs for character building. It receives major emphasis, however, in the literature of mental hygiene and in the work of many specialists in individual guidance. Expressed in more familiar terms, this objective

means personal happiness for the individual. Personal happiness requires the absence of internal conflicts and the coordination of the individual's interests and abilities for the achievement of satisfying ends. The desirability of such adjustment is unquestionable, but it is necessary to inquire what kinds of conduct make the individual happy and satisfied. If he is free from inner conflicts while engaged in practises that decrease other people's happiness, he is defective in character. He may be mentally and emotionally healthy, but he is not the most desirable type of person.

Inner maladjustments often cause unsocial or antisocial behavior, and their prevention or removal is essential to the highest type of character. But there must be a higher criterion than that of inner adjustment—a standard requiring the welfare and happiness of the group as well as of the individual. Ideally, there should be no conflict between the two, but when such conflicts do arise, the true happiness and real needs of the group must take precedence over the personal satisfaction or self-adjustment of the individual.

Good character as self-expression—Some school systems are occasionally accused of placing this objective above all others—of permitting or encouraging children to express freely their foremost desires and impulses. Probably such accusations greatly exaggerate the facts in most cases. There is, however, a certain superficial plausibility about the doctrine of self-expression that may lead to unfortunate practises. While it is essential to provide outlets for the fundamental drives, some kinds of outlets are preferable to others. For most people the important issue is not whether they should express or inhibit their desires, but which desires should be expressed and which ones should be inhibited in any given situation. Only if the individual's desires were completely harmonized and integrated about a supremely worthy purpose would it be safe to allow them free and full expression at all times. In any event, the goodness or badness of desires and specific modes of expressing them can be determined only by reference to some standard other than self-expression itself.

³ Jones, Vernon. "Ideas on Right and Wrong among Teachers and Children." *Teachers College Record* 30: 529-41; March, 1929.

Good Character as the Integration of Values

The nature of a more satisfactory definition of the character objective has been suggested in the foregoing discussion. The Commission on Character Education of the Department of Superintendence described it as "the integration of values; doing the best possible thing in each situation."⁴ A somewhat fuller statement of it follows:

The good act is one which creates as many and as worthy satisfactions as possible for as many people as possible over as long a time as possible. The rule holds for every race and nation, every age of man. Whether child of three or maid of twenty or sage of sixty, the good character is one who continuously acts in such a way that from his actions flow the results which enrich the living of all those who are affected, over as long a time as the influence of his actions may persist.⁵

Subordinate or contributing objectives—The primary objective as just stated is so broad and flexible that it is useful only as a very general guide to the type of character-education program which should be developed. Heaton has amplified it in a statement of attributes or abilities⁶ from which the following have been adapted:

1. A growing ability to meet situations in ways that are the most satisfying to the greatest number of people over the longest period of time.
2. Freedom from unnecessary emotional conflicts or disturbances.
3. Progressive ability to meet temptations by directing energy into wholesome channels and inhibiting undesirable impulses.
4. Appreciation of the taken-for-granted things of life, such as the services of home, school and community, and the gifts of nature.
5. Appreciation for the achievements, ideals, and ways of living of the race.
6. Ability to modify one's attitudes and conduct in harmony with new truths and new experiences.
7. A scientific, critical attitude that is sensitive to social and personal defect or error.
8. Ability to direct one's life with a decreasing amount of supervision and a maximum of inner control and motivation.
9. A growing consciousness of membership in more and ever larger groups of society.

10. Ability to cooperate with other people and to gain the maximum of satisfaction from association with them.

11. Adjustment to vocation, to leisure time, to married life, to the community group, and to other aspects of adult social life.

12. A feeling of obligation to render any possible service to the home, school, community, nation, and world-society.

13. A desire for the continuous progress of industrial, economic, and political life so that all people may profit increasingly therefrom.

14. Integration or organization of the individual's life increasingly about larger and more worthwhile purposes.

No such list of attributes or abilities will be wholly satisfactory to everyone, and perhaps many equally good lists might be prepared. A carefully formulated statement of this kind, however, helps to indicate the broad scope necessary in a sound program of character building.⁷

Specific criteria for good conduct—Even with the elaboration suggested above, the central aim of "doing the best possible thing in each situation" leaves room for differences of opinion as to what is the "best" thing to do in a particular situation. Are there to be no really *specific* objectives, no definite rules of conduct to which children must learn to conform, no lists of habits or ideals which will guide children in their choice of responses to the innumerable situations of life?

A wise conclusion seems to be that specific standards may be used to advantage, especially with younger children, but such standards should be considered as means of achieving desirable ends rather than as ends in themselves. The child needs to know, specifically, what kinds of conduct people generally approve. He needs to learn what ways of living have been found most useful, most beautiful, and most satisfying to the largest number of people in the past. When he is very young, he should be shown precisely what to do in many important situations. Then, thru constantly meeting situations, in which he desires to make the best

⁴ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. Tenth Yearbook, p. 55.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 56.

⁶ Heaton, Kenneth L. *The Character Emphasis in Education*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933. p. 6-7.

⁷ For a modern, detailed, and practical treatment of the fundamentals of morality, see: Cabot, Richard C. *The Meaning of Right and Wrong*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1933. 463 p.

possible responses, he will form many desirable habits and discard many unsuitable ones. Gradually he will generalize from these specific experiences, and will learn to utilize general principles in meeting new problems. Of course he will need guidance in this process of learning. But usually the guidance should not be arbitrary. All rules of conduct, whether general or specific, must be subordinated to the ultimate criterion of creating and preserving as many values as possible for all persons concerned in each situation. To the extent that new situations are different from familiar ones, old ideas, habits, and ideals must be modified to fit the new conditions. Moreover, if in any situation two or more of the subordinate criteria conflict, as they often do, individual judgment and choice must take the place of arbitrary rules and precepts. The Tenth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence sums up this viewpoint as follows:

The objective, as it has been presented so far, is very general and very inclusive. When it is presented to teachers and children, it must, of course, have a more specific point and focus. That center of attention is not to be some traits to be expressed, some rules of conduct, some ideal of truth or beauty. The center of attention is to be the situation. The need for character is all bound up in the event itself. It is tangible and concrete and real. It cannot be escaped or relegated to copy books. Life is one situation after another, and each situation has possibilities of richer or poorer living, of greater or less integration of values.⁸

General Provisions for Character Building in Public School Systems

Desirable character objectives, together with the available facts in regard to character formation, indicate that an effective school program for building good character must be very broad. In fact, the entire life of the school should be planned, directed, and evaluated with reference to character values. To what extent is this principle being applied in public school systems? What general provisions for the character development of children have been made in these systems? The following paragraphs give answers to these questions based upon the questionnaire responses of 645 superintendents of schools and upon a review of

character-education bulletins and courses of study used in school systems. Altho much of the information was obtained in 1930, the data reported are believed to be sufficiently representative of present conditions for the purpose of this discussion.

Phases of the school environment utilized—Table 2 summarizes the 645 responses from superintendents of schools with respect to the phases of the school program utilized for character development in their systems. These data indicate that most of the cities relied largely upon the regular class work and upon extracurriculum activities to stimulate character growth. The number using regular class work was greater than the number using extracurriculum activities in the elementary and junior high school, but not in the senior high school.

Separate class periods for character education were provided in the elementary school by only 13 percent and in the senior high school by only 8 percent of the cities. The percent providing such periods was somewhat greater in the large cities than in the small ones. In only 10 percent of the systems were elementary-school pupils attending classes in week-day church schools during regular school hours, and in only 3 percent were senior high-school pupils attending such classes.

Definite programs of individual pupil guidance and counseling were provided in the junior high school by 19 percent and in the senior high school by 22 percent of the systems. No information was obtained concerning such programs in the elementary school.

It is not clear to what extent the school systems reporting the use of regular classes and extracurriculum activities for character building actually had formulated definite plans for improving the character influences of these parts of the program. In response to another question, however, about one-half of the superintendents stated that the occasions for emphasis upon character in regular classrooms were situations arising in the immediate experience of the pupils or problems growing out of reading and discussion in connection with regular school subjects. The other half indicated that

⁸ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, Tenth Yearbook, p. 57.

TABLE 2.—PERCENT OF SCHOOL SYSTEMS REPORTING VARIOUS GENERAL PROVISIONS FOR CHARACTER EDUCATION

General provisions	Percent of school systems in							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
		126 cities under 2,500 in population	140 cities 2,500-5,000 in population ^a	142 cities 5,000-10,000 in population ^b	126 cities 10,000-30,000 in population ^c	80 cities 30,000-100,000 in population	31 cities over 100,000 in population	645 cities of all sizes
1. Thru classes in regular subjects:								
a. In elementary schools		80	81	84	82	81	84	82
b. In junior high schools		68	72	74	70	69	74	71
c. In senior high schools		73	73	80	75	80	87	76
2. Thru separate class periods for character education:								
a. In elementary schools		9	9	16	13	16	19	13
b. In junior high schools		6	7	15	11	11	29	11
c. In senior high schools		6	5	7	10	13	13	8
3. Thru out-of-class school activities:								
a. In elementary schools		59	59	67	65	71	71	64
b. In junior high schools		58	63	67	63	73	68	64
c. In senior high schools		61	65	71	70	79	71	76
4. Thru a program of individual guidance and counseling: ^d								
a. In junior high schools		7	15	23	16	33	39	19
b. In senior high schools		8	19	18	28	35	48	22
5. Thru classes conducted during school hours by church schools in local churches:								
a. For elementary-school pupils		6	6	11	14	13	19	10
b. For junior high-school pupils		2	4	6	7	5	10	5
c. For senior high-school pupils		2	1	3	4	4	3	3

Read table thus: Of the 126 cities under 2500 in population reporting, 80 percent made provisions for character education thru classes in regular subjects in their elementary schools; 68 percent made such provision in their junior high schools; and 73 percent made such provision in their senior high schools. Similarly read the figures for other population groups and for other types of provision for character education.

^a Five of these cities reported that they had no junior high schools.

^b Two of these cities reported that they had no junior high schools.

^c Four of these cities reported that they had no junior high schools.

^d The question asked on this point was: "Do you have one or more people to whom is specifically delegated the responsibility of organizing and carrying out a school counseling or pupil guidance program and who devote one-third or more of their time to this work?"

desirable attitudes and conduct were not usually brought to the conscious attention of the children but were supposed to be learned incidentally.

Relation between home and school expected—The superintendents were also asked to choose from among several statements the one which, in their judgment, best described the relationship that under present conditions should be expected to exist between the home and the school in regard to character education. Of the 621 replies summarized in Table 3, a considerable majority indicated the belief that hearty and intelligent cooperation between the two agencies is essential and that the school should earnestly seek such cooperation. A number of the superintendents, however, felt that the school can expect little or no assistance from the average home, and that it is profitable only to give parents enough information so that they will not oppose the school's program.

School bulletins and courses of study available—Table 4 shows the extent to which the 645 school systems were using special bulletins or course-of-study materials in character education. Fewer than half of the systems had separate bulletins or outlines in this field for any one type of school, and in fewer than one-fifth were specific suggestions for character building included in courses of study dealing with the regular school subjects. Both types of materials were provided somewhat more often

for the elementary school than for either the junior or the senior high school. The special bulletins were prepared more often by outside agencies than by officers and teachers within the school system.

In connection with this inquiry, and subsequently, the Research Division received more than three hundred different bulletins dealing with various phases of character education. These varied widely in size, scope, and quality. Some consisted of only a few mimeographed pages, while a few were more than a hundred printed pages in length. In many systems only a single bulletin had been prepared, while in others several bulletins were in use. Many were largely collections of materials and devices for use in connection with the regular subjects or in separate character-education periods. Others emphasized such special phases of the program as individual guidance, clubs and other extra-curriculum activities, classroom administration and discipline, pupil participation in school government, recreational activities outside the school, and character ratings and reports to parents. Relatively few of these published materials outlined a really broad program and indicated definite plans for carrying it out in all phases of the school environment. It is not safe to assume, however, that the program of any particular school system is limited to those types of activity which have been described or recommended in special character-education

TABLE 3.—STATEMENTS SELECTED BY SUPERINTENDENTS OF SCHOOLS AS BEST DESCRIBING RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HOME AND SCHOOL IN PROGRAMS OF CHARACTER EDUCATION

Statements of relationship	Number and percent of superintendents	
	Number	Percent
1	2	3
1. The hearty, intelligent, and active cooperation of parents is vigorously and continuously sought, and this cooperation is expected to play an important part in achieving desired character education results. Parents are fully informed as to the character education objectives of the school and as to how they can cooperate most intelligently as regards their own children.....	407	65
2. The home is given sufficient information concerning the character education work of the school so that it will not oppose it. The school expects but little positive effort on the part of the home in carrying on a consistent program of character education.....	75	12
3. The school recognizes that the typical home lacks interest in character education and is losing its effectiveness as a character training medium. The school must expect to carry the major burden of character education unaided by the home.....	85	14
4. Combinations and modifications of the above statements.....	54	9
Total	621	100

Read table thus: Of the 621 superintendents of schools replying to the question of school and home relationships, 407 or 65 percent selected statement No. 1; 75 or 12 percent selected statement No. 2; 85 or 14 percent selected statement No. 3; and 54 or 9 percent preferred to combine or modify the first three statements in various ways.

**TABLE 4.—PERCENT OF SCHOOL SYSTEMS REPORTING THE USE OF BULLETINS AND COURSE-OF-STUDY MATERIALS
IN CHARACTER EDUCATION**

Bulletins or courses of study used	Percent of school systems in						
	126 cities under 2,500 in population	140 cities 2,500-5,000 in population ^a	142 cities 5,000-10,000 in population ^b	126 cities 10,000-30,000 in population ^c	80 cities 30,000-100,000 in population	31 cities over 100,000 in population	645 cities of all sizes
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Special bulletins or courses of study on character education prepared by local school staff:							
a. Used in elementary schools	13	12	18	13	26	16	16
b. Used in junior high schools	11	13	15	11	19	19	14
c. Used in senior high schools	13	11	8	11	18	13	12
2. Special bulletins or outlines on character education prepared by outside agencies:							
a. Used by elementary schools	25	29	21	27	21	10	24
b. Used in junior high schools	21	26	23	21	18	3	21
c. Used in senior high schools	21	24	22	20	19	6	20
3. Specific suggestions for character education included in regular course-of-study bulletins:							
a. Used in elementary schools	19	11	21	17	16	23	17
b. Used in junior high schools	15	9	17	10	15	16	13
c. Used in senior high schools	13	7	14	11	15	16	12

Read table thus: Of the 126 cities under 2500 in population reporting, 13 percent had special bulletins or courses of study on character education prepared by the local school staff for use in elementary schools; 11 percent had such bulletins or courses of study for use in junior high schools; and 13 percent had them for use in senior high schools. Similarly read the figures for other population groups and for other types of provisions.

^a Five of these cities reported that they had no junior high schools.

^b Two of these cities reported that they had no junior high schools.

^c Four of these cities reported that they had no junior high schools.

bulletins. For this reason no comprehensive list or classification of such bulletins according to their scope is presented here. A few which represent relatively broad programs are listed below:⁹

Boston. *Course in Citizenship Through Character Development.* "Grades I to VIII" and "Kindergarten and Grade I." School Documents Nos. 10 and 16. Boston: School Committee, 1928 (reprint) and 1926. 96 and 105 p.

Denver. *Character Education in the Denver Public Schools.* Monograph No. 14. Denver: Public Schools, 1929. 31 p.

Kansas City, Mo. *Character Building: Elementary School Procedures.* Kansas City School Service Bulletin, Vol. 4, No. 3. Kansas City, Mo.: Department of Education, 1931. 121 p.

Los Angeles. *Character and Conduct: High School Course of Study.* School Publication No. 60; and *Citizenship.* School Publication No. 92. Los Angeles: City Schools, 1926, 1927. 79 and 148 p.

Maryland. *The Teaching of Citizenship in the Elementary School.* Maryland School Bulletin, Vol. 8. Baltimore: State Department of Education, 1926. 262 p.

Minneapolis. *Citizenship Training in the Minneapolis Public Schools: Elementary Grades.* Educational Bulletin No. 13. Minneapolis: Public Schools, 1928. 24 p.

Nebraska. *Courses of Study for Normal Training High Schools: Character Education.* Bulletin H. Lincoln, Nebr.: State Department of Public Instruction, 1929. 140 p.; and Gregg, Fred. M. *A Course of Study in Character Education for School and Home.* Lincoln, Nebr.: Lincoln School Supply Co., 1929. 169 p.

New Hampshire. *Character Education: An Outline Recommended for the Public Schools of New Hampshire.* Concord, N. H.: State Board of Education, 1927. 88 p.

Norfolk, Va. *Character Education in Norfolk Elementary Schools.* Norfolk, Va.: City School Board, 1928. 207 p.

Oklahoma. *Character Education: A Handbook for Teachers.* Bulletin No. 131. Oklahoma City: State Department of Public Instruction, 1931. 98 p.

Oregon. *Character Education.* Salem, Ore.: State Department of Public Instruction, 1930. 64 p.

Pontiac, Mich. *The Program of a Department of Character Education.* Pontiac, Mich.: Public Schools, 1932. 6 p.

St. Louis, Mo. *Socializing-Integrating Activities for Kindergarten and Grades I-VI; Socializing-Integrating Activities for Grades VII, VIII, and IX; and Socializing-Integrating Activities for the High School.* Curriculum Bulletins Nos. 9, 21,

and 38. St. Louis: Board of Education, 1926. 160, 65, and 67 p.

Utah. *Character Education: Supplement to the Utah State Course of Study for Elementary and High Schools.* Salt Lake City: Department of Public Instruction, 1929. 176 p.

These and other bulletins more limited in scope will be mentioned later to illustrate particular types of materials and procedures.

Personnel responsible for the program—Another important question in connection with the general scope of the character-building program has to do with the personnel responsible for this work. Table 2 has shown that school counselors were utilized in the junior high schools of 19 percent, and in the senior high schools of 22 percent, of the 645 cities reporting. Table 5 indicates that in most systems the teachers of regular school subjects were wholly responsible for character education, especially in the elementary grades. Only about 5 percent of the cities employed specially-trained teachers to assist in this work in the junior and senior high school, and the proportion employing such teachers in the elementary school was still smaller. In about 10 percent, persons representing some agency or agencies outside the school participated regularly in the character-building program of each type of school. About the same proportion had a school committee or council, composed of teachers and principals, which devoted considerable time and attention to problems in this field. Only fourteen cities, or about 2 percent, reported the employment of a special supervisor or director of the character-education program.¹⁰

Nature and Scope of an Adequate Program

The questionnaire returns and school publications referred to above indicate marked differences in the nature and scope of character-building programs in various school systems. While some systems have broad programs, many others tend to emphasize only one or a few phases of the school environment as sig-

⁹ See also the statement of a proposed program for the state of Michigan, in: Heaton, Kenneth L. "Emphasizing Character Outcomes in the Public School." *Religious Education* 29: 104-12; April, 1934.

¹⁰ More recent information indicates that Pontiac, Michigan, is the only one of these fourteen school systems which still employs a special director of character education.

TABLE 5.—PERCENT OF SCHOOL SYSTEMS REPORTING VARIOUS PROVISIONS AS TO THE USE OF PERSONNEL IN CHARACTER EDUCATION

Use of personnel	Percent of school systems in							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
		126 cities under 2,500 in population	140 cities 2,500-5,000 in population ^a	142 cities 5,000-10,000 in population ^b	126 cities 10,000-30,000 in population ^c	80 cities 30,000-100,000 in population	31 cities over 100,000 in population	645 cities of all sizes
1. Regular teachers wholly responsible for character education:								
a. In elementary schools		79	81	80	82	78	74	80
b. In junior high schools		64	69	70	61	58	48	66
c. In senior high schools		67	68	71	64	68	58	67
2. Specially-trained teachers employed to assist in this field:								
a. In elementary schools		2	2	4	1	1	—	2
b. In junior high schools		4	3	5	6	8	16	5
c. In senior high schools		5	4	2	6	10	6	5
3. Persons from outside agencies participating regularly in the school program:								
a. In elementary schools		10	15	10	3	10	16	10
b. In junior high schools		12	11	12	5	13	13	11
c. In senior high schools		13	12	11	8	14	10	11
4. Special director or supervisor of character education employed		2	3	2	1	3	3	2
5. Local school committee or council on character education devotes attention to this field		11	11	11	8	14	23	11

Read table thus: Of the 126 cities under 2500 in population reporting, 79 percent made their regular classroom teachers wholly responsible for character education in the elementary schools; 64 percent made such teachers wholly responsible in the junior high schools; and 67 percent made them wholly responsible in the senior high schools. Similarly read the figures for other population groups and for other types of personnel provisions.

^a Five of these cities reported that they had no junior high schools.

^b Two of these cities reported that they had no junior high schools.

^c Four of these cities reported that they had no junior high schools.

nificant for character development. The latter practise is not consistent with present knowledge of the way in which character develops, or with the desirable objectives of character building suggested earlier in this chapter.

Unfortunately, there is little experimental evidence as to the relative character values of many elements in the school environment. As rapidly as possible further investigation should be undertaken to determine these values more satisfactorily and to provide a sounder basis for the selection of materials and methods. Even with the existing limitations of our knowledge, however, it is possible to sketch the outline of an adequate program, and to make many tentative suggestions concerning its details. The general outline is indicated here, while the consideration of details is reserved for the subsequent chapters.

There is good reason to believe that every school system should strive to influence the character of children definitely thru the following channels:

1. Thru the entire curriculum
 - a. Content and method in regular class work
 - b. Out-of-class school activities
2. Thru individual counseling and guidance
 - a. By teachers and principals
 - b. By specialists
3. Thru school and classroom administration
 - a. Administration within the school system
 - b. School relations with other social agencies

It will be noted that the above outline does not specifically mention separate class periods devoted to character-building activities. To the extent that such periods are necessary and useful, they should be provided as a part of the regular curriculum. Time may well be

taken for special character-building activities, but there is considerable doubt as to whether they should be administered as a separate course of study entitled "Character Education."¹¹

Whether the school system should provide special bulletins and special personnel under the heading of "Character Education" will depend partly upon local conditions. Since character influences operate thruout the life of the school, the entire school program should be thought of as the character-building program. Bulletins on the curriculum, out-of-class activities, counseling, and school and classroom management should contain all available suggestions for good character development. But if such materials are not available, and if the school program as a whole needs considerable revision in the direction of the character objective, special bulletins showing how to approach this objective may be very useful.

The same principle seems applicable with respect to the personnel responsible for character development. In a school system with a broad and well-developed program, a special supervisor or director of character education would seem to be unnecessary. Teachers, principals, curriculum specialists, child-guidance specialists, and central administrative officers should see to it that the character objective receives major emphasis. On the other hand, some systems may find it desirable, as a stimulus both to the regular school staff and to the community as a whole, to set up a special service division for character education with a specially-trained person as director, whose duty is to help in the reorganization and improvement of the entire school program with reference to character building.

¹¹ Special character-building activities are discussed in some detail on p. 102 of this bulletin.

THE MORAL has been conceived in too goody-goody a way. Ultimate moral motives and forces are nothing more or less than social intelligence—the power of observing and comprehending social situations,—and social power—trained capacities of control—at work in the service of social interest and aims. There is no fact which throws light upon the constitution of society, there is no power whose training adds to social resourcefulness that is not moral.—John Dewey, *Moral Principles in Education*, p. 43.

II. Building Character thru the Curriculum

In considering how the school curriculum can contribute most to good character development in children, this chapter uses the term "curriculum" to include all of the planned experiences which are given to the pupils, as well as many experiences which are not planned definitely in advance. The chapter first reviews a series of principles basic to the curriculum as a whole. It then presents material bearing upon general methods of teaching, content and method in specific subjects, and class participation in special character-building lessons or activities. Finally, the chapter suggests ways and means of improving character thru out-of-class school activities such as clubs, assemblies, dramatics, athletics, and student participation in school government. The major emphasis is placed upon materials and methods of group instruction and guidance. Problems of individual pupil guidance and of school and classroom administration are discussed in separate chapters.

General Curriculum Principles

The Tenth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence describes an adequate character-building curriculum briefly as follows:

Any curriculum that makes a sincere, intelligent, and courageous approach to the real problem of living is a character education curriculum.¹

A curriculum which brings to youth a consciousness of the problems of life, some understanding of these problems, a sense of personal responsibility in contributing to their solution, a reasonable de-

gree of technical efficiency of procedure, and a rich personal life in harmony with the good of others, is achieving the end of character education.²

These statements need much more elaboration than is possible in a bulletin of this scope. It may be helpful, however, to review here certain pertinent principles which have been stated or implied in the recent writings of curriculum specialists and others.³ These principles are presented with full realization of the fact that educators are not entirely agreed in regard to all of them. In the brief statement accompanying each principle, an effort is made to resolve conflicting viewpoints so far as possible.

1. *A character-building curriculum will provide for the needs, interests, and potentialities of each individual child.* This principle requires that careful attention be given to individual differences among children, and rules out the lock-step type of educational program designed for the hypothetical "average" child. It calls for such differentiation in subjectmatter and teaching methods as will enable each pupil to make the most of his capacities and to adjust himself harmoniously to his physical and social environment. There is, of course, a common body of abilities, knowledges, and appreciations which ideally should be shared by all. Provision must be made, however, for those who have special incapacities and for those whose abilities and interests are greater or more varied than the average.

2. *A character-building curriculum will consider the requirements of adult society as well*

¹ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. *Character Education*. Tenth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1932. p. 179.

² *Ibid.*, p. 192.

³ In selecting these principles, the following sources were consulted: Almack, John C. *Education for Citizenship*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1924. p. 80. ¶ Bobbitt, Franklin. *Curriculum Investigations*. Supplementary Educational Monographs No. 31. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1926. p. 4. ¶ Bobbitt, Franklin. *How to Make a Curriculum*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1924. p. 7-8, 41-42, 44-59, 61-62, 280-86. ¶ Bonser, Frederick G. *The Elementary School Curriculum*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1923. p. 1-25. ¶ Charters, W. W. *Curriculum Construction*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1923. p. 12-25, 97-102, 152-54. ¶ Davis, Calvin O. *Our Evolving High School Curriculum*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1927. p. 140-45, 149-63, 230. ¶ Germane, Charles E., and Germane, Edith G. *Character Education*. New York: Silver, Burdett and Co., 1929. Part I, p. 28-32. ¶ Hopkins, L. Thomas. *Curriculum Principles and Practices*. Chicago: Benjamin H. Sanborn and Co., 1929. p. 9-11, 14-15, 27-31, 129-33, 135-37, 139-42, 193, 292-99, 304, 608-10. ¶ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. *The Nation at Work on the Public School Curriculum*. Fourth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1926. p. 10-11, 13-18, 407. ¶ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. *Character Education*. Tenth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1932. p. 179-90. ¶ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. *Research in Constructing the Elementary School Curriculum*. Third Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1926 (reprint). p. 18-22. ¶ National Education Association, Research Division. "Keeping Pace With the Advancing Curriculum." *Research Bulletin* 3: 115, 117-18; September and November, 1925. ¶ National Society for the Study of Education. *Foundations of Curriculum-Making*. Twenty-Sixth Yearbook, Part II. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1926. p. 12-25, 73-75, 85-87, 154-55. ¶ Rugg, Harold, and Shumaker, Ann. *The Child Centered School*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1928. p. 55-67, 112-23, 128-30. ¶ Williams, L. A. *The Making of High School Curricula*. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1928. p. 184, 195-96, 201.

as the needs and interests of children. There is a school of educational theory which would base the curriculum almost entirely upon child interests and desires. Most authorities, however, view the growth of personality as a continuous process, whose ultimate goal is the most satisfactory participation in life on the mature or adult level. The relative immaturity of children must be taken into consideration thruout the educational system, but the basic needs of individual and social living appear to be the same for children as for adults. During the limited time spent in the school, therefore, it seems unwise to permit transitory or relatively unimportant interests of children to crowd out activities of more permanent and fundamental importance. Even more objectionable is the inclusion of activities which have no significant relation to either child or adult life.

3. *A character-building curriculum will undertake to transmit our heritage of common culture and experience; to consider contemporary issues and achievements; and to develop a generation of people who will contribute to an improved social order.* Since the aim of education is to improve individual and social living, children must be given the benefit of mankind's previous experiences and achievements insofar as these are valuable for present and future living. A curriculum is inadequate, however, if it deals exclusively with past occurrences and achievements. It must present significant issues of the present day, point out current trends in social, economic, and political life, and attempt to develop in pupils the desire and the capacity to help direct these trends for the welfare of all in the future.

4. *A character-building curriculum will be concerned primarily with the weighing of values and the solution of real life problems, and secondarily with the acquisition of routine skills and factual subjectmatter.* The importance of fundamental knowledge and skills is not to be underestimated, but these should be selected and organized with reference to the practical needs of modern social life. These practical demands are not limited to the unthinking performance of certain actions which have received general social approval. They require the willingness and the ability to consider relative values and to solve problems of living for which no ready-made solution is at

hand. To meet this requirement, the curriculum must present abundant opportunities for choosing among different values, not among adult values alone or childish values alone, but among all values in such a way that life for everyone will be made as rich as possible from beginning to end. Such a selection of values cannot be made without the acquisition of certain skills or the knowledge of pertinent facts. The latter are tools, however, rather than major objectives, and this fact must influence profoundly the selection, organization, and presentation of subjectmatter in the curriculum.

5. *A character-building curriculum will be planned in advance, but will be flexible enough to permit the introduction of new materials and first-hand pupil experiences whenever these are available and useful.* Generally speaking, those who believe that the curriculum should be limited to the spontaneous interests and activities of childhood also assert that such a curriculum cannot be formulated in advance. They contend that it must develop from day to day in accordance with the desires of the pupils. On the other hand, those who believe that education should prepare for both child and adult life contend that this is impossible without careful selection and organization of educational materials in advance. Most curriculum workers have adopted the latter view, with the proviso that the planned program must be subject to interruption and modification whenever necessary to capitalize the current interests and life-situations of the pupils.

6. *A character-building curriculum will be constructed with the cooperation of all parties concerned—pupils, teachers, curriculum specialists, subjectmatter specialists, and society in general.* A curriculum developed without the aid of all parties concerned can hardly make a "sincere, intelligent, and courageous approach to the real problem of living." Competent laymen should be consulted because they have a knowledge of adult social needs and responsibilities. Curriculum and subjectmatter specialists are needed to insure that materials are authentic, wisely selected, and organized for economical learning. The assistance of capable teachers is essential because of their intimate contact with, and knowledge of, the classroom situation. Teachers may help in the actual writ-

ing of the formal courses of study, but even more important, they must transform the cold outlines of these courses into a vital influence among children in the classroom. Last, but by no means least, is the contribution which should be made by the pupils themselves. Without the liberal injection of their personal observations, experiences, and problems, the curriculum stream becomes sluggish, artificial, and devoid of relation to child life outside the school.

7. *A character-building curriculum will be continually reconstructed and brought up to date.* In a world of changing social and economic relationships, it is imperative that the curriculum be modified whenever any part of it ceases to have significant relation to life. This principle is especially important because most school systems find it impossible to effect a thoro revision of their teaching materials all at once. If such revision were possible, and if the job were very well done, the resulting curriculum might need only minor changes for a period of five or ten years. Under present conditions, however, a policy of continuous curriculum reconstruction is necessary to bring and to keep school work in close relation to life outside the school.

General Methods of Teaching and Learning

Altho the proper selection of curriculum content is of paramount importance for character building, even the most carefully chosen subjectmatter cannot be expected to produce good results unless it is wisely organized and ap-

TABLE 6.—AVERAGE PERCENT OF CHEATING ON CERTAIN TESTS IN TWO TYPES OF PUBLIC SCHOOL

Type of School	Percent of cheating in grade				
	4	5	6	7	4-7
Conventional	28	34	29	31	31
Experimental	28	24	13	15	21

Read table thus: In both the conventional and the experimental school, the average fourth-grade pupil cheated in 28 percent of the opportunities which the tests provided; in the conventional school, the average fifth-grade pupil cheated in 34 percent of the opportunities provided, whereas in the experimental school the average fifth-grade pupil cheated in only 24 percent of the opportunities provided. Similarly read figures for the other grades.

Source of data: Hartshorne, Hugh, and May, Mark A. *Studies in Deceit*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1928. Book I, Figure 62, p. 316.

propriately taught. Moreover, general methods of teaching probably influence character in ways that are somewhat independent of the subjectmatter used. Hartshorne and May⁴ found an apparently significant difference in honesty between children attending schools which employed conventional methods of instruction and those attending schools which used more modern methods. The new-type schools studied were using a project approach and were directing the children's attention away from tests, grades, and marks, toward the pursuit of school activities for inherently worthwhile purposes. A comparison between two public schools with respect to the amount of cheating on certain tests yielded the results shown in Table 6. Even when the pupils in these schools were grouped according to the occupational level of their parents, the experimental school showed less cheating at each level, as indicated in Table 7.

TABLE 7.—AVERAGE PERCENT OF CHEATING IN TWO TYPES OF PUBLIC SCHOOL IN RELATION TO THE OCCUPATIONAL LEVEL OF PARENTS

Occupational level of parents	Percent cheating relative to parental group	
	Conventional school	Experimental school
1. Professional, large business, managerial service, commercial service	31	19
2. Artisan proprietors, owners of small business, foremen, highly skilled laborers	28	21
3. Skilled laborers, such as plumbers, electricians, plasterers, mechanics	48	17

Read table thus: In the conventional school, the average pupil whose parents were in the first occupational group cheated in 31 percent of the opportunities provided by the tests, whereas in the experimental school the average pupil whose parents were in the same group cheated in only 19 percent of the opportunities provided. Similarly read figures for the other occupational groups.

Source of data: Hartshorne, Hugh, and May, Mark A. *Studies in Deceit*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1928. Book I, Figure 63, p. 319.

In view of such evidence, it will be useful to review here some of the implications of general teaching procedure for attaining the primary character objective of "doing the best thing in each situation." Unfortunately, research in methods of learning and teaching has seldom been concerned directly with this objective. The discussion in the following para-

⁴ Hartshorne, Hugh, and May, Mark A. *Studies in Deceit*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1928. Book I, p. 317-20.

graphs, therefore, is based largely upon present knowledge of learning in general, as indicated by a variety of studies⁵ and by various writings on educational method.⁶

Avenues of human experience—Bobbitt⁷ has enumerated eight general ways in which normal human beings learn: (1) thru direct observation of countless things in the environment; (2) thru performance of function—the practise of activities observed in other people and considered desirable for one's self; (3) thru reading, a form of indirect observation thru language, and probably the most important single medium of learning; (4) thru oral report, a less frequent but important form of indirect learning thru language; (5) thru pictures, by which indirect visual observation is made possible, with the addition of indirect auditory experience in the talking motion picture; (6) thru prolonging, repeating, and intensifying one's experiences by thinking them over, telling them to others, or dramatizing them with the cooperation of others; (7) thru problem solving, in situations which call for decisions, conclusions, and plans for future action; and (8) thru generalization, observing that a number of specific instances fall under a general rule or principle, which will in turn be useful in solving subsequent problems. All of these modes of learning should be utilized so far as possible in the school. Character development will be facilitated by opening to children all possible avenues of experience.

The significance of pupil activity—Recent advances in psychological theory indicate that

children need to put into practise the things which they learn thru direct observation, reading, oral report, and pictures, if these things are to function in their everyday lives. Since constructive action is the central objective of the good life, and since such action is impossible without right practise, it is insufficient to limit school work to activities of observation. Nor is it sufficient for children to reach conclusions concerning the problems of life without attempting to carry out these conclusions in conduct. There is much truth in the statement that one learns to do by doing.

On the other hand, there is serious danger of misinterpreting the theory of activity. Some educators appear to place undue emphasis upon activity for its own sake—physical activity which is not directed into worthwhile channels by careful observation or thought. Undirected physical activity, or activity directed solely by the spontaneous impulses of children, undoubtedly has its proper place, but as a general school procedure it is likely to produce chaotic and haphazard learning, and may actually interfere with the attainment of desirable character objectives.

Subjects vs. problems or centers of interest—The division of the curriculum into subjects was due originally to logical considerations and the influence of specialists in the various fields of learning. Under this arrangement effective learning was defined primarily as the memorization and logical classification of facts. In the current wave of revolt against this inadequate scheme of education, a few educators have gone

⁵ For a critical summary of research on learning and teaching in general, see: National Education Association, American Educational Research Association. "Psychology of Learning, General Methods of Teaching, and Supervision." *Review of Educational Research* 3: 279-368; October, 1933.

⁶ Among the most helpful of such writings are the following: Allen, Richard D. *Case-Conference Problems in Group Guidance*. New York: Inor Publishing Co., 1933. "The Case-Conference Method of Instruction," p. 7-16. ¶ Carr, William G., and Waage, John. *The Lesson Assignment*. Stanford University, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1931. 98 p. ¶ Collings, Ellsworth. *Project Teaching in Elementary Schools*. New York: Century Co., 1928. 571 p. ¶ Douglass, Earl Roy. *Modern Methods in High School Teaching*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1926. 544 p. ¶ Garrison, Noble Lee. *Technique and Administration of Teaching*. New York: American Book Co., 1933. 593 p. ¶ Germane, Charles E., and Germane, Edith G. *Character Education*. New York: Silver, Burdett and Co., 1929. Part I, p. 3-105. ¶ Heaton, Kenneth L. *The Character Emphasis in Education*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933. p. 91-113, 137-91. ¶ Holley, Charles E. *Modern Principles and the Elementary Teacher's Technique*. New York: Century Co., 1928. 431 p. ¶ Hoscic, James F., and Chase, S. E. *A Brief Guide to the Project Method*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1924. 243 p. ¶ Kilpatrick, William H. *Foundations of Method*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1925. 383 p. ¶ Minor, Ruby. *Principles of Teaching Practically Applied*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1924. 281 p. ¶ Monroe, W. S. *Directing Learning in the High School*. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Page and Co., 1927. 577 p. ¶ Morrison, Henry C. *The Practise of Teaching in the Secondary School*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1931. 688 p. ¶ Parker, Samuel C. *General Methods of Teaching in Elementary Schools*. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1922. 330 p. ¶ Reagan, G. W. *Fundamentals of Teaching*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1932. 554 p. ¶ Strebel, Ralph F., and Morehart, Grover C. *The Nature and Meaning of Teaching*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1929. 273 p. ¶ Thayer, V. T. *The Passing of the Recitation*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1928. 331 p. ¶ Thomas, Frank W. *Principles and Technique of Teaching*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1927. 410 p. ¶ Waples, Douglas. *Procedures in High School Teaching*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1925. 346 p. ¶ Wilson, H. B.; Kyte, G. C.; and Lull, H. G. *Modern Methods in Teaching*. New York: Silver, Burdett and Co., 1924. 286 p.

⁷ Bobbitt, Franklin. *How to Make a Curriculum*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1924. p. 45-59.

to the other extreme, advocating the elimination of subjects—even the so-called tool subjects—as separate categories of knowledge to be studied systematically. These workers would substitute an organization of activities around major problems or “centers of interest,” contending that the skills and knowledges necessary for the exploration and solution of these problems may be acquired as needed from many fields of subjectmatter. On the other hand, the available evidence indicates that the learning of important facts and skills is facilitated by some systematic instruction in reading, spelling, writing, and arithmetic, and probably in such fields as literature, natural science, and social science as well. The problem approach is unquestionably valuable in building good character, but its value probably does not warrant the wholesale scrapping of school subjects as such. The extent to which different kinds of subjectmatter should be integrated instead of being taught separately is still an open question.

Teaching by projects—The project method has been hailed as a significant contribution to teaching technic because it tends to identify the work of the school with activities and problems outside the school. The good project requires the solution of problems, and in addition often involves physical activity to the extent of doing or producing something worthwhile, such as constructing a miniature city in the kindergarten, caring for the needs of a poor family at Christmas in the elementary school, and furnishing a house or apartment in the high school. A project may be undertaken either by a group or by an individual pupil. For the purpose of socializing children the group project is generally superior to the individual project, because the former requires a certain amount of cooperative endeavor. Either type may help to build good character by giving pupils a significant purpose, stimulating initiative, placing responsibility, requiring genuine thinking, and giving the pupils a sense of worthwhile achievement.

There are, however, certain dangers in the method, which if not guarded against, may make its influence on character not merely ineffective but positively harmful: (1) the project selected may be artificial, having no significant relation to life and descending to the level of mere busy work; (2) even if genuine, it

may require no real initiative or constructive thinking; (3) if a group project, it may be so poorly planned that some or all of the pupils have no definite responsibilities; and (4) it may yield unsatisfactory results because of its excessive difficulty, inadequate materials, poor supervision, or all of these handicaps.

Some workers advocate the construction of the curriculum around projects instead of around subjects as the basic units. A more common practise, however, is to use the project as one means of giving pupils significant experiences in a curriculum organized in part on a subject basis.

The socialized discussion—This procedure, if wisely used, appears to be among the most promising for character development. At its best, it is not merely an opportunity for debate among members of the class, but rather a situation in which each member makes his own contribution to the understanding or solution of a problem. Each pupil should be given some special responsibility. He must then be given sufficient guidance and have access to sufficient sources of information so that he will be able to discharge his responsibility to the group. The method provides for the expression of individual opinion on controversial issues, but it also requires that opinions be based upon facts wherever possible, and that an accurate, unbiased report of pertinent facts be presented by each member of the group.

The socialized discussion has certain obvious advantages over the traditional type of recitation: (1) its purpose and procedure are fundamentally social; (2) it stimulates interest by giving each pupil an opportunity to contribute to, as well as to learn from, the remainder of the group; and (3) it places a premium upon the understanding, interpretation, and organization of facts, rather than upon mere rote learning and mechanical repetition of unrelated facts.

As in the case of the project, the success of the socialized discussion depends upon several factors: (1) the selection of a suitable topic or problem for discussion, (2) careful planning and the assignment of suitable responsibilities to various members of the group, (3) the teacher's ability to guide the discussion wisely, without domination, and (4) availability of adequate source materials aside from the regular textbook.

Developing appreciations—Certain elements of the curriculum, to be most effective in building desirable character, need to be approached not with a problem-solving attitude, but rather in a mood of pure enjoyment. Among such elements are music, graphic and plastic arts, and certain types of literature. This viewpoint does not imply that there is no place for critical analysis in these fields, but that for most children such analysis is of secondary importance. Appreciation of a beautiful piece of literature, for example, is usually lessened rather than increased by requiring pupils to analyze its basic structure or the details of its author's style. Pupils who are interested in the production or performance of artistic works should have an opportunity to obtain the necessary technical training, but the latter does not belong in the true appreciation lesson. Character values in art are produced by stimulating the feelings and emotions, rather than by teaching form and technic.

Repetition and drill—As intimated above, there has been a reaction in some schools recently against formal drill. It is asserted that children do not normally learn by such a method outside of school, that it tends to kill interest and initiative, and that it has a generally unwholesome effect on character and personality. Such assertions may apply to school situations in which pupil activity is limited to monotonous repetition of textbook materials without adequate motivation. There seems to be no good reason, however, why schools should go to either one extreme or the other. When drill is properly motivated and guided, it is probably the most economical way of acquiring certain knowledges and skills, whether inside or outside the school. Children, like adults, can be interested in using the most effective methods in order to accomplish results which seem worthwhile to them. If they are shown that the most economical method is that of formal drill, most of them will use it and like it, even tho it is intrinsically less interesting than a project or other activity in which there is more opportunity for initiative and thinking.

Not to require formal drill when needed is to deprive pupils of a valuable character-building experience. Good character is not produced by always doing the thing which seems easiest or most interesting at the moment. It is developed by practise in doing things which are

likely to yield the most generally satisfying results over the longest period of time.

Assignments and directed study—In those learning activities which involve the mastery of facts, the acquisition of skills, or the solution of problems, pupils need to know four things in advance: (1) what they are attempting to do, (2) why they are doing it, (3) how they may do it most economically, and (4) how they are to know when they have done it successfully. To acquaint pupils with these points is the function of the lesson assignment. No longer is it considered sufficient merely to assign so many pages or chapters in a book, or even to ask pupils to solve a certain problem. They are entitled to know the significance of the topic or problem under consideration, ways in which they may investigate or study it most profitably, and methods of determining the extent of their accomplishment. The specific nature of the assignment will vary, of course, according to the purpose of the lesson and the nature of the material involved.

After an assignment has been given, it is usually advisable for the teacher to exercise some supervision over the activity of the pupils, so as to make sure that the assignment has been well understood. No constructive development of character can be expected if pupils are permitted to work without knowing the purposes and best methods of accomplishing their tasks. The necessity of proceeding in the dark generates indifference, fear, or rebellion, and encourages slipshod work.

Content and Method in Specific School Subjects

As indicated earlier in this chapter, there is some question as to whether the school curriculum should be organized primarily in terms of subjectmatter fields or in terms of problems and projects which are significant in daily life. However this question may eventually be decided, most teachers at present are called upon to use the subject organization, and are therefore interested in improving the character-building values of specific subjects as such. The scope of this bulletin does not permit a systematic review of ways and means of effecting such improvement in each subject now taught in the schools. Suggestions concerning content, organization, and method in general have already been given. For more specific suggestions

and illustrations in the various subjects, the reader is referred to a number of helpful books, bulletins, and courses of study.⁸

In addition to the publications just mentioned, attention should be called to the large amount of research which has been done in specific school subjects. Most of this research, it is true, has not undertaken to evaluate materials and methods with reference to their influence upon the motives and conduct of children in everyday life. Nevertheless, many studies have definite significance for character building because they help to show what subjectmatter is needed in everyday life and what methods of teaching will enable children to master this material most economically. Such studies have been well summarized elsewhere,⁹ and the educator is advised to consult these summaries as well as the individual studies if he is not already familiar with them.

Class Participation in Special Character-Building Activities

The preceding chapter has shown that some school systems provide for class participation in special character-building activities.¹⁰ There is, however, a difference of opinion among educators as to the wisdom of such a provision. Its opponents contend that the separate consideration of morals is at best ineffective, and is likely to be positively harmful. It is often assumed that special character-education activities inevitably involve preaching by the teacher and meaningless verbalizing or unwholesome introspection by the pupils. A further objection sometimes raised is that a definite time allotment for character education is likely to be looked upon as a satisfactory substitute for efforts to improve character thru other subjects and classes. On the other hand, the proponents

⁸ Books containing suggestions for making various school subjects contribute to good character are: Almack, John C. *Education for Citizenship*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1924. p. 79-95, 113-32. ¶ Heaton, Kenneth L. *The Character Emphasis in Education*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933. p. 25-79. ¶ National Education Association, Department of Classroom Teachers. *The Classroom Teacher and Character Education*. Seventh Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1932. p. 71-72, 75-99. ¶ Neumann, Henry. *Education for Moral Growth*. New York: D. Appleton and Co., 1923. p. 247-97.

Some school bulletins or courses of study suggesting ways of obtaining character values from various subjects are: Boston. *Character Education in Secondary Schools*. Boston: Headmasters Association, 1928. p. 59-68. ¶ Denver Public Schools. *Character Education in the Denver Public Schools*. Monograph No. 14. Denver, Colo.: Public Schools, 1929. p. 17-25. ¶ Los Angeles, California. *Character and Conduct: High School Course of Study*. School Publication No. 60. Los Angeles, Calif.: Board of Education, 1923. (Reprinted 1926.) p. 16-51. ¶ Maryland. *The Teaching of Citizenship in the Elementary School*. Maryland School Bulletin, Vol. 8. Baltimore, Md.: State Department of Education, 1926. p. 96-178. ¶ New Hampshire. *Character Education: An Outline Recommended for the Public Schools of New Hampshire*. Concord, N. H.: State Board of Education, 1927. p. 21-27, 70-73. ¶ Oklahoma. *Character Education: A Handbook for Teachers*. Bulletin No. 131. Oklahoma City, Okla.: State Department of Education, 1931. p. 29-38. ¶ Utah. *Character Education: Supplement to the Utah State Course of Study for Elementary and High Schools*. rev. ed. Salt Lake City: Department of Public Instruction, 1929. p. 139-70.

⁹ For summaries of research dealing with the content of various school subjects, see: National Education Association, American Educational Research Association. "The Curriculum." *Review of Educational Research* 4: 121-252; April, 1934. Chapter 2, "Curriculum Investigations at the Elementary and Secondary School Levels," p. 135-93. ¶ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. *Research in Constructing the Elementary School Curriculum*. Third Yearbook, 1925. p. 31-366; *The Nation at Work on the Public School Curriculum*. Fourth Yearbook, 1926. p. 57-378; *The Junior High School Curriculum*. Fifth Yearbook, 1927. p. 85-454; *The Development of the High School Curriculum*. Sixth Yearbook, 1928. p. 288-486. Washington, D. C.: the Association. ¶ National Education Association, Research Division. "Keeping Pace with the Advancing Curriculum." *Research Bulletin* 3: 107-94; September and November, 1925. See p. 125-61. ¶ National Education Association, Research Division. "Creating a Curriculum for Adolescent Youth." *Research Bulletin* 6: 2-79; January, 1928. "Contributions of Research to Junior High School Curriculum Building," p. 29-53.

For summaries of research dealing with special methods of teaching in various subjects, see: National Education Association, American Educational Research Association. "Special Methods in the Elementary School," "Psychology of the School Subjects," and "Special Methods on High-School Level." *Review of Educational Research* 1: 245-323, October 1931; 1: 325-440, December 1931; and 2: 1-94, February 1932.

¹⁰ School bulletins or courses of study which describe provisions for class participation in special character-education activities are: Boston. *Course in Citizenship Through Character Development*. School Document No. 10. Boston: School Committee, 1924. "Grades I to VIII," p. 24, 33-96. ¶ Chicago Principals' Club. *Character Education*. Sixth Yearbook. Chicago: the Club, 1931. p. 76-82, 145-51. ¶ Detroit Teachers College. *Development of Character Through Community Problem Solving*. Detroit, Mich.: Detroit Teachers College, 1929. p. 35-47. ¶ Iowa. *Course of Study for Elementary Schools*. Des Moines, Iowa: State Department of Public Instruction, 1928. p. 102-12. ¶ Kansas City, Mo. *Character Building: Elementary School Procedures*. Kansas City School Service Bulletin, Vol. 4, No. 3. Character Building Series No. 2. Kansas City, Mo.: Department of Education, 1931. p. 10-23, 26-40, 59-72. ¶ Lakewood, Ohio. *Character Education for Elementary Schools*. Lakewood, Ohio: Superintendent of Schools, 1927. p. 3. *Syllabus for Character Education for Lakewood Junior High Schools*. Lakewood, Ohio: Superintendent of Schools, 1927 (mimeographed, pages not numbered). ¶ Long Beach, Calif. *Character Education Course of Study, Grades One, Two, Three, Four, Five and Six*. Long Beach, Calif.: City Schools, 1929. p. 17-160. ¶ Los Angeles, Calif. *Citizenship*. School Publication No. 92. Los Angeles, Calif.: City Schools, 1927. p. 37-124. ¶ Minneapolis. *Citizenship Training in the Minneapolis Public Schools: Elementary Grades*. Educational Bulletin No. 13. Minneapolis: Superintendent of Schools, 1928. p. 6-8, 9-12. ¶ Oklahoma. *Character Education: A Handbook for Teachers*. Bulletin No. 131. Oklahoma City, Okla.: State Department of Public Instruction, 1931. p. 43-52, 68-71. ¶ Oregon. *Character Education*. Salem, Oregon: State Department of Public Instruction, 1930. p. 42-48. ¶ West Waterloo, Iowa. *Course of Study in Character Education*. West Waterloo, Iowa: Public Schools, 1930. Four mimeographed volumes, p. 14, each volume.

of special class work in character building believe that there should be some time during each day or week when pupils are given an opportunity to concentrate on matters which are most important in truly successful living. Moreover, they assert that the objections commonly raised against such provisions are not necessarily valid. They point out that group study and discussion of genuine problems in conduct and other realistic activities may be used instead of lecturing, rote-learning, and similarly dogmatic types of instruction. Finally, they see no sound reason for excessive reliance upon special character-building periods, recognizing that such periods, if they are to be successful, must be considered as a supplement to, rather than as a substitute for, the systematic efforts to build desirable character thru all other phases of school life.

Types of Special Activity

A review of school bulletins and other literature on special character-education activities reveals a variety of materials and methods which are used or recommended. Some of these are similar to procedures utilized in teaching the regular subjects and in certain out-of-class activities. There are points of difference, however, which make it worthwhile to discuss special character-education procedures separately.

The following paragraphs describe briefly several general types of activity, and review the results of certain pertinent research studies. The activities mentioned do not exhaust the possibilities in this field, nor are they entirely distinct from one another. Many variations and combinations of them may be found in school practise. The pertinent research is fragmentary, somewhat conflicting, and insufficient to warrant definite conclusions as to the merits of specific procedures. Such tentative conclusions as seem justified at present are given on page 109.

*Class discussion and illustration of a trait*¹¹

—This type of procedure usually begins with a generalization and proceeds to give it meaning

by specific illustrations, perhaps making provision also for application and practise of trait actions by the pupils. For example, the teacher brings up the subject of honesty and asks why it is the best policy. The children are encouraged to give examples of honest or dishonest acts which they have seen, heard about, or read about, and to state why these acts were desirable or undesirable. The teacher may then suggest or ask for illustrations of ways in which the children themselves can practise honesty both in and out of school. She may even ask the children to keep records and make reports of honest acts which they perform.

Sometimes the foregoing activities are introduced or supplemented by means of moral codes, memory gems, slogans, or mottoes. A code often used for this purpose is the *Children's Morality Code for Elementary Schools*,¹² from which the following is a condensed excerpt:

IV. The Law of Reliability

The Good American is Reliable

Our country grows great and good as her citizens are able more fully to trust each other. Therefore:

1. I will be honest in word and in act.
2. I will not do wrong in the hope of not being found out.
3. I will not take without permission what does not belong to me.
4. I will do promptly what I have promised to do.

The following are typical of the memory gems used in some schools:

Kind hearts are the gardens,
Kind thoughts are the roots,
Kind words are the blossoms,
Kind deeds are the fruits.

Politeness is to do or say
The kindest thing in the kindest way.

Hartshorne and May¹³ reported an experiment in the use of short general statements concerning the importance of honesty. The study included one group of public-school children and two groups of children in Hebrew schools. After being given preliminary tests of deceptiveness, each group was confronted with

¹¹ This general type of activity is suggested or illustrated in the following: Oklahoma. *Character Education: A Handbook for Teachers*. Oklahoma City, Oklahoma: State Department of Education, 1931. p. 45, 47-48, 51-52. ¶ Reynolds, Mary I. "A Direct Plan Based on the Teaching of Traits and Rating Cards." *Character Education*. Sixth Yearbook, Chicago Principals' Club, Chicago: the Club, 1931. p. 115-28. ¶ Stover, John H. *The Four-Square Course of Study: Good Workmanship*. (Teachers' Guide) Oklahoma City, Oklahoma: Four-Square Character Institute, 1931. p. 89-111. ¶ Wilkinson, Gilbert H. "A Direct Plan for Teaching Character Through Precept and Discussion." Sixth Yearbook, Chicago Principals' Club, p. 76-82.

¹² Hutchins, William J. *Children's Morality Code for Elementary Schools*. Washington, D. C.: National Capital Press (Florida Ave., Third and N Streets, N. W.).

¹³ Hartshorne, Hugh, and May, Mark A. *Studies in Deceit*, Book I, p. 371-75.

the phrase, "Honesty is the best policy," and then was given additional tests. Following these, each group was confronted with the phrase, "God loves an honest man," and was then given further tests. Of the public-school pupils, those who attended a religious school during the week became progressively more honest on each series of tests, while those not attending religious school became progressively less honest. The children attending the Hebrew school which gave only mild religious instruction showed no significant change, on the average, from one series of tests to the next. The second Hebrew class, from a school giving more careful religious instruction, responded to the first phrase with little decrease in deceptiveness, but responded to the second phrase with a very marked decrease. These results, altho not in any sense conclusive, suggest that the effect of certain procedures for improving character in public schools may depend in part upon the nature of instruction received elsewhere or upon other miscellaneous factors apart from the school procedures in question.

*Class discussion of a moral situation or conduct problem*¹⁴—In this type of lesson the discussion begins with a specific situation or problem of conduct. It may proceed eventually to the formulation of a general principle, but only after consideration of many similar situations or problems. The situations used may include those arising in the everyday lives of the pupils, those arising in the lives of other people whom the pupils have heard or read about, and those which are purely imaginary but within the experience of the pupils. For example:

1. The teacher calls attention to a situation in which one or more of the pupils have made undesirable responses, such as making fun of someone's infirmity, or leaving play apparatus out of place.

The pupils are led to consider what was wrong with these responses, and to decide on better ways of reacting to similar situations in the future.

2. The teacher presents an imaginary problem as follows: "Your mother tells you to come right home after school, but your teacher tells you to remain and finish some work. What should you do?" The children consider all possible solutions, discuss their respective merits, and are led to realize that one solution might be most satisfactory under certain circumstances, while another might be best under different circumstances.

3. The teacher raises a question as to how the children are meeting certain responsibilities, such as helping in the home. The children discuss the extent of their responsibility for helping their parents, and suggest specific ways in which they can discharge this obligation more fully and effectively. They may also consider the question of whether they should be paid for work which they do about the home.

4. Attention is called to some rule or procedure of the school which is not working satisfactorily. The children discuss the possible reasons for this failure, and suggest remedial measures.

5. The children take stock of what they have been accomplishing in certain of their regular school activities, particularly those requiring cooperative group effort. They discuss the strong and weak points of the group procedure, and suggest ways of improving in the future.

Several published collections of conduct problems and situations are available for school use.¹⁵ There is, however, a need for more objective evidence concerning the frequency and difficulty of various kinds of situations among children at different age levels. Carmichael¹⁶ made a contribution in this field with his study of the moral situations faced by six-year-old children. He collected 1256 usable descriptions of good and bad behavior on the part of 326 children, as reported by parents, teachers, special observers, and other relatives and friends. These 1256 descriptions were analyzed into 3065 specific situation-responses, which were

¹⁴ The socialized discussion or case-conference method has already been referred to in the section on general methods of teaching and learning, p. 100 of this bulletin. Illustrations of this technic as applied in special units for character development may be found in the following: Heaton, Kenneth L. *The Character Emphasis in Education*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933. p. 145-50, 162-67. ¶ Iowa. *Course of Study for Elementary Schools*. Des Moines, Iowa: State Department of Public Instruction, 1928. p. 103-10. ¶ National Education Association, Department of Classroom Teachers. *Seventh Yearbook*, p. 50-53.

¹⁵ See: Allen, Richard D. *Case-Conference Problems in Group Guidance*. New York: Inor Publishing Co., 1933. 151 p. ¶ Charters, W. W., Rice, M. F., and Beck, E. W. *Conduct Problems*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1931. 5 vols., 71 p. each. A series for grades 4-8 inclusive. ¶ Chave, E. J. *The Junior: Life Situations of Children Nine to Eleven Years of Age*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1925. 174 p. ¶ Detroit. *Detroit Program of Character Education: Second Report of the Detroit Committee on Character Education*. Detroit: Detroit Board of Education, 1931. 191 p. ¶ Evans, Evan E., and Hallman, M. S. *Home Rooms*. New York: A. S. Barnes and Co., 1930. p. 43-146. ¶ Germane, Charles E., and Germane, Edith G. *Character Education*. New York: Silver, Burdett, 1929. Part I, p. 192-207, 210-11. ¶ Hague, E. F.; Chalmers, Mary; and Kelly, M. A. *Studies in Conduct*. Lincoln, Nebraska: University Publishing Co., 1928-31. 3 vols. Book I, 340 p.; Book II, 404 p.; Book III, 500 p. A series for grades 3-8 inclusive. ¶ Long Beach, Calif. *Character Education: Course of Study for Grades One, Two, Three, Four, Five, and Six*. Long Beach, Calif.: Long Beach City Schools, 1929. 162 p. ¶ Neuberger, M. J. *Right Living*. Series 2. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1927. 150 p. *Teacher's Manual*, 120 p.

¹⁶ Carmichael, Albert Maxwell. *The Moral Situations of Six-Year-Old Children as a Basis for Curriculum Construction*. University of Iowa Studies in Education, Vol. IV, No. 6. Iowa City, Iowa: the University, 1927. 104 p.

in turn tabulated according to both the broad and narrow moral issues involved. The relative frequency of the ten large issues discovered in these situation-responses is shown in Table 8.

TABLE 8.—RELATIVE FREQUENCY OF LARGE ISSUES IN THE MORAL SITUATIONS FACED BY SIX-YEAR-OLD CHILDREN

Moral issues involved	Percent of 3065 situation-responses
1	2
1. Mental and emotional states of individuals. . .	61
2. Enjoyment of property by individuals	32
3. Relationship of individuals to constituted authority	27
4. Intellectual integrity and growth of individuals	24
5. Working efficiency of individuals	14
6. Social efficiency of individuals	11
7. Physical health and growth of individuals	11
8. Bodily freedom and integrity of individuals	8
9. Sexual integrity of individuals	^a
10. Observance of religious rites and duties	^a

Read table thus: Of the 3065 specific situation-responses studies, 61 percent involved the mental and emotional states of individuals, 32 percent involved the enjoyment of property by individuals, 27 percent involved the relationship of individuals with constituted authority, etc. Some situation-responses involved more than one of these issues.

Source: Carmichael, Albert Maxwell. *The Moral Situations of Six-Year-Old Children as a Basis for Curriculum Construction*. University of Iowa Studies in Education, Vol. IV, No. 6. Iowa City, Iowa: the University, 1927. Table 5, p. 61.

^a Less than 0.5 percent.

The same investigator¹⁷ made a somewhat different analysis in 289 situations resulting in intentional misrepresentation of fact by six-year-old children, emphasizing the possibly influential factors in the situations themselves. Table 9 shows the percent of situations in which each main element occurred. Of special interest, altho not apparent in the table, is the fact that the five elements occurring most frequently appeared in 97 percent of all the situations observed.

Dearborn¹⁸ studied the ideas of honesty held by children in the third and fourth grades. She concluded that such children seem best able to recognize the significance of situations involving lying, and that they are more confused by situations involving stealing, cheating,

and withholding confession. Whereas lying appears to the child as a serious fault, the other offenses mentioned do not seem nearly as serious to him as to adults.

Studies of the effectiveness of group discussion of social problems or moral situations are few and not very convincing. Hartshorne and May¹⁹ reported an experiment in which a group of pupils in grades seven to nine spent fifteen minutes per day for three weeks discussing problem situations with *The Honesty Book*²⁰ as a guide, while a control group received no such instruction. Tests of deception given at the end of the work, as compared with similar measures at the beginning, showed the experimental group to be superior in three comparisons, inferior in two, and equivalent to the control group in one.

TABLE 9.—RELATIVE FREQUENCY OF ELEMENTS IN SITUATIONS LEADING TO INTENTIONAL MISREPRESENTATION OF FACT BY SIX-YEAR-OLD CHILDREN

Elements involved	Percent of 289 situations
1	2
1. Irregularity committed, which the child was called upon to explain	57
2. Obtaining, keeping, or caring for property frustrated	18
3. Competitive activity	18
4. Unpleasant experience imposed	13
5. Pleasant experience frustrated	12
6. Person available to help	4
7. Others enjoying with the child the activity frustrated	4
8. Other person angry	2
9. Others urging child	2
10. Attention to be obtained	1
11. Opportunity to amuse others	1
12. Obligations conflicting	1
13. Other circumstances abetting	11

Read table thus: Of the 289 situations studied, 57 percent involved the commission of an irregularity which the child was called upon to explain; 18 percent involved the frustration of the child's efforts to obtain, keep, or care for property; 18 percent involved competitive activity; etc. Some situations involved more than one of these elements.

Source: Carmichael, Albert Maxwell. "To What Objective Stimuli Do Six-Year-Old Children Respond with Intentional Misrepresentation of Facts?" *Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology* 35: 73-83; March, 1928.

¹⁷Carmichael, Albert Maxwell. "To What Objective Stimuli Do Six-Year-Old Children Respond with Intentional Misrepresentation of Facts?" *Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology* 35: 73-83; March, 1928.

¹⁸Dearborn, Frances R. "What Does Honesty Mean to Third and Fourth Grade Children?" *Journal of Educational Method* 6: 205-12; January, 1927.

¹⁹Hartshorne, Hugh, and May, Mark A. *Studies in Deceit*. Book I, p. 368-71.

²⁰Forbush, W. B. *The Honesty Book: A Handbook for Teachers, Parents, and Other Friends of Children*. New York: National Honesty Bureau, 1923. 56 p.

Robb and Faust²¹ reported an experiment involving two small groups of high-school seniors, matched according to intelligence and socio-economic status. The control group followed the regular course of study in problems of democracy, while in the experimental group the same course was supplemented for eight weeks by instruction and discussion in regard to ethical problems as presented in a special textbook.²² At the beginning and at the end of the term both groups were measured by means of an ethical discrimination test, and by teacher and student ratings on various aspects of conduct. The differences in gains were all small and not very significant statistically, but they were uniformly in favor of the group receiving the ethical instruction. The apparent superiority of the latter group was greatest on the test of ethical discrimination, and least on the ratings given to one another by the students themselves.

Cressman²³ studied two types of class work involving the consideration of life-like problems of conduct. The experiment included three groups of seventh-grade pupils in a large junior high school. The first experimental group studied a series of conduct situations, using a published workbook²⁴ which calls for written reactions as well as discussion by the pupils. The second experimental group discussed the same conduct situations as presented orally by the teacher, without using the workbook. Both of these groups devoted one forty-minute period per week to this work for seventeen weeks, while a third group did not study the problems at all. A comparison of mean gains on two different tests of moral knowledge and judgment showed no significant differences between the group which had

discussed the problems after oral presentation by the teacher, and the control group which had not studied the problems. The group which had used the workbook showed no significant superiority on the test covering the specific problems studied, but was definitely superior to both the other groups on the more comprehensive test. The author concluded that the workbook method may be somewhat more effective than the oral-presentation method in securing transfer of moral principles to situations other than those studied.

*Using appropriate selections from literature*²⁵—In this type of lesson a story, biographical sketch, or some other selection having implications for character, is presented by the teacher or by the pupils. The selection may be permitted to teach its own moral lesson, or the children may be led to discuss its implications with respect to their own lives, and to search for other stories illustrating the same principles. Such lessons usually aim to encourage wholesome and profitable reading outside the class, as well as to emphasize character values during the class period.

Collections of stories having potential value for character development are numerous and familiar to most teachers. Some of these collections have been prepared especially for use with children in groups.²⁶ Probably the most comprehensive guide to children's literature from the viewpoint of character building is the one by Starbuck, Shuttleworth, and others.²⁷ These investigators selected and classified such literature according to grade level, literary merit, type of situation presented, and the trait or general attitude exhibited.

When stories are presented orally, the technique of story-telling deserves careful considera-

²¹ Robb, E. K., and Faust, J. F. "The Effect of Direct Instruction." *Journal of Educational Sociology* 7: 237-40; December, 1933.

²² Peters, C. C. *Human Conduct*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1918. 427 p.

²³ Cressman, Elmer W. "Workbook Versus Oral Instruction." *Journal of Educational Sociology* 7: 250-53; December, 1933.

²⁴ Charters, W. W.; Rice, M. F.; and Beck, E. W. *Conduct Problems*. Grade 7, "What's the Right Thing To Do?" New York: Macmillan Co., 1931. 71 p.

²⁵ The use of literature as a special tool for character building is discussed and illustrated in: Heaton, Kenneth L. *The Character Emphasis in Education*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933. p. 25-36, 222-33. ¶ Glendale, Calif. *Moral Education*. Glendale, Calif.: Committee on Moral Education, Glendale City Schools, 1927 (mimeographed). 20 p. ¶ Lakewood, Ohio. *Character Education for Elementary Grades*, and *Syllabus for Character Education for Lakewood, Ohio, Junior High Schools*. Lakewood, Ohio: Superintendent of Schools, 1927 (mimeographed). 67 and 31 p.

²⁶ Among such collections are the following: Pitkin, Walter B., and Hughes, Harold F. *The Young Citizen at Work and at Play*. New York: D. Appleton and Co., 1929. 209 p. ¶ Perkins, Jeanette E. *The Knights of Anytown*. Boston: Pilgrim Press, 1923. 159 p.

²⁷ Starbuck, E. D.; Shuttleworth, F. K., and others. *A Guide to Literature for Character Training*. Vol. 1, "Fairy Tale, Myth, and Legend"; Vol. 2, "Fiction." New York: Macmillan Co., 1928 and 1930. 389 and 579 p.

tion. In this field also a number of helpful references are available.²⁸

The objective evidence concerning the effect upon character of procedures utilizing literary materials is very meager. Hartshorne, May, and Maller²⁹ reported a small experiment in which a story was used to encourage cooperation among children. Studying the story of the strands of string which could be broken separately but not when bound together, followed by examples given by the pupils of other situations in which working together is valuable, produced a large immediate improvement on certain tests of cooperative behavior. The permanence of this change was not measured, however.

Dearborn³⁰ concluded from her survey of teaching honesty among third- and fourth-grade children, that the stories most useful in clarifying this concept are those dealing with experiences which the children can readily understand, and which they can match with experiences of their own.

*Planning and executing a class project*³¹—Another special type of activity often recommended is the group project in which the children accomplish something of direct social value either to the class itself or to persons outside the class. Such projects may be initiated by the teacher, but are usually planned and executed by the pupils with the teacher as guide. Typical activities of this kind are: purchasing and caring for school play equipment; drawing up a set of rules to govern the use of school equipment or playground space;

formulating and executing plans for keeping rooms, desks, and lockers neat and convenient for work; planning a personal or family budget; caring for the needs of a destitute family at Thanksgiving or Christmas; giving a program for the amusement of unfortunate children in a hospital or orphans' home; and taking steps to make a new child feel at home in the school or classroom. Altho there is a lack of experimental evidence as to the influence of such activities upon the character of children, they seem promising in the light of present knowledge about learning in general.

*Informal dramatization of desirable habits and attitudes*³²—This procedure provides for appreciation and practise of desirable reactions thru informal dramatization in the classroom. Activities which may be readily adapted to this purpose, especially among younger children, include asking a favor in a pleasing way, closing a door without annoying the group, interrupting a conference courteously in order to deliver an important message, disagreeing in an argument without being dogmatic and unpleasant, and answering the telephone courteously when the wrong number has been called. Such activities may be woven together in short sequences prepared by the children themselves. Older children usually prefer to dramatize stories rather than everyday incidents in their own lives. The relative value of informal dramatization has not been measured.

*Preparing compositions on topics related to personal or group welfare*³³—Oral and written compositions are used in some schools as a

²⁸ See: Bone, W. A. *Children's Stories and How to Tell Them*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1924. 200 p. ¶ Bryant, S. C. *How to Tell Stories to Children*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1924. 260 p. ¶ Cather, K. D. *Educating by Story-Telling*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1918. 442 p. ¶ Shedlock, M. L. *The Art of the Story-Teller*. New York: D. Appleton and Co., 1915. 287 p.

²⁹ Hartshorne, Hugh; May, Mark A.; and Maller, Julius B. *Studies in Service and Self-Control*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1929. p. 248-51.

³⁰ Dearborn, Frances R. "What Does Honesty Mean to Third and Fourth Grade Children?" *Journal of Educational Method* 6: 205-12; January, 1927.

³¹ The project technic has already been described briefly in the discussion of general methods of learning and teaching, p. 100 of this bulletin. Illustrations and suggestions for the use of projects as special character-building units are available in: Heaton, Kenneth L. *The Character Emphasis in Education*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933. p. 45, 192-205, 272-80. ¶ Kansas City, Mo. *Character Building: Elementary School Procedures*. Kansas City School Service Bulletin, Vol. 1, No. 2. Kansas City, Mo.: Public Schools, 1931. p. 98-99. ¶ National Education Association, Department of Classroom Teachers. *Seventh Yearbook*, p. 56-57. ¶ Norfolk, Va.: *Character Education in Norfolk Elementary Schools*. Bulletin No. 1. Norfolk, Va.: City School Board, 1928. p. 102-03.

³² Further discussion and illustration of informal dramatization are given in the following: Barnes, Emily Ann, and Young, Bess M. *Plays: Dramatizations by Sixth Grade Children*. New York: Lincoln School of Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932. 218 p. ¶ Heaton, Kenneth L. *The Character Emphasis in Education*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933. p. 206-21. ¶ Hague, E. F.; Chalmers, Mary; and Kelly, M. A. *Studies in Conduct*. Lincoln, Nebr.: University Publishing Co., 1932. Book 2, p. 259-68. ¶ Ward, Winifred. *Creative Dramatics*. New York: D. Appleton and Co., 1930. 304 p. See also the statement on dramatics as an out-of-class activity, p. 114 of this bulletin.

³³ Lists of composition topics in the field of personal and social adjustment, together with references for use of pupils in preparing such compositions, are available in: Heaton, Kenneth L. *The Character Emphasis in Education*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933. p. 47-55, 375-80.

means of clarifying pupils' thinking, and of bringing constructive criticisms or suggested solutions of problems to the attention of the class, the school, or the community. Informal talks for delivery in class or in a school assembly may be prepared on such subjects as "The protection of our newly cleaned walls—whose business?" or "Men who have contributed most to the world's welfare." Articles on similar subjects may be written as a basis for class discussion, or as editorial contributions to the school newspaper or magazine. No studies seem to have been made as to the effectiveness of such activities.

Talks or informal lectures by the teacher—This procedure, altho seldom mentioned in character-education programs or courses of study, is doubtless used to some extent by many teachers.³⁴ Its effectiveness probably depends a great deal upon the content of the talks and the manner in which they are delivered. Preaching is likely to be fruitless, but information on various aspects of social problems may be helpful.

Eichler and Merrill³⁵ reported a rather limited study involving lectures on leadership given to high-school pupils. One experimental group was given six forty-five-minute lectures on leadership qualities and technics, while a second experimental group had eleven thirty-minute conferences on the same topics. The differences in gains between these groups and comparable control groups, as measured by student ratings on leadership, were very small but they were all in favor of the experimental groups. The investigators concluded that qualities of leadership can be measurably improved by these types of instruction.

*Using character tests and ratings for self-analysis or group discussion*³⁶—In this type of procedure, the pupils undertake to evaluate certain aspects of their own behavior, under the guidance of the teacher, by marking them-

selves on citizenship sheets or rating scales. This usually requires some discussion of what specific kinds of action are included in the various items listed in the scale. Occasionally each pupil is asked to compare his own estimate of himself with estimates of him which are made by the teacher or by other pupils. Formal tests of attitudes and opinions may also be used as a basis for teaching thru class discussion of the answers given. There seems to be no objective evidence concerning the merit of this type of lesson.

A combination of many activities—While a few school systems may confine their character-building efforts to one particular type of activity, the more common practise probably is to use several of the procedures reviewed above. Robb and Faust³⁷ experimented with a combination approach, using two home-room groups in the ninth grade. These groups were matched on a variety of factors, and were measured by several tests of moral judgment and by self-ratings both before and after the experimental procedure was introduced. The experimental group devoted a home-room period of one hour each week for eighteen weeks to various activities focused on attributes of character, including debates, discussions, dramatizations, reports, notebook projects, storytelling, and talks by teacher and principal. The control group had only the usual type of home-room programs, in which character was considered only incidentally. The experimental group made slightly greater gains on two moral-judgment tests, while the control group did slightly better on a third test. On a home-made rating scale the control group made a greater gain, but on a more formal rating scale the experimental group showed a greater improvement. Altho none of the differences could be considered significant statistically, the authors concluded that the ethical development of early adolescents may be at least slightly ac-

³⁴ National Education Association, Department of Classroom Teachers. Seventh Yearbook, p. 50.

³⁵ Eichler, George A., and Merrill, Robert R. "Can Social Leadership be Improved by Instruction in Its Technique?" *Journal of Educational Sociology* 7: 233-36; December, 1933.

³⁶ Character tests and rating scales as teaching devices are discussed or illustrated in the following: Heaton, Kenneth L. *The Character Emphasis in Education*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933. p. 180-82. ¶ Price, Frederick E. "A Direct Plan Based on Self Rating." *Character Education*. Sixth Yearbook, Chicago Principals' Club. Chicago: the Club, 1931. p. 108-10. ¶ Armstrong, James E. "A Group Method for Pupils to Use in Rating Themselves on Character Traits." Sixth Yearbook, Chicago Principals' Club, p. 154-55. ¶ Smith, Virginia B. "Character in the Making." *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House* 7: 490-92; April, 1933. ¶ Reed, Frank K. "Citizenship Rating in the Junior High School." *Bulletin* 2: 122-24; November, 1933. New York: Department of Secondary Education, National Education Association. (Room 1901, 130 West 42nd Street.)

³⁷ Robb, E. K., and Faust, J. F. "The Effect of Direct Instruction." *Journal of Educational Sociology* 7: 237-40; December, 1933. See p. 239-40.

celerated thru direct and systematic procedures such as those used in this experiment.

Conclusions Regarding Special Character-Building Activities

Research has not yet furnished a clear-cut answer concerning the use of special materials and methods in character building. The studies mentioned above did not reveal a marked advantage in using any of the procedures tested. Such results do not indicate, however, that none of these activities are worthwhile. The technics of research in this field must be improved, and experiments must be extended over much longer periods of time, before conclusive evidence can be obtained. Moreover, since special activities of these types constitute so small a part of the child's total experience, it would not be surprising to find that they have little effect unless accompanied by appropriate activities thruout the life of the school and the community.

In spite of the lack of evidence concerning specific procedures, teachers need not feel hopelessly in the dark with respect to them. Present psychological and educational theory tends, in general, to favor procedures which focus the attention of children (1) upon relatively specific responses rather than general traits, (2) upon the requirements of particular situations rather than arbitrary rules, (3) upon situations and experiences occurring in, or closely related to, the lives of the children, rather than those which are unrelated to child life, and (4) upon practise in meeting problems of conduct rather than mere theoretical talk about conduct. The effectiveness of most procedures will doubtless depend somewhat upon the maturity and previous experience of the children as well as upon the insight and skill of the teacher. The discussion of a trait, for example, may be a very unwise procedure to use in the primary grades, but may be less objectionable for high-school pupils who are eager to know what characteristics are important in obtaining and holding a job. Again, one teacher may be able to lead a group discussion without forcing her opinions on the pupils, while another may destroy the value of the discussion by preaching or by unduly criticizing the opinions of the pupils.

Out-of-Class School Activities

As stated earlier, it is impossible to distinguish clearly between curriculum activities and extracurriculum activities. There is a gradually increasing tendency to consider clubs, dramatics, publications, and similar activities as integral parts of the school program. In many schools such activities are not relegated to after-school hours, but are carried on during the school day in practically the same way as are the "regular" school subjects. Such differences as appear between the conduct of these activities and the conduct of regular classes may, therefore, be best considered as differences in method of approach, and the activities themselves should be conceived as important parts of the curriculum for character building. The reason for segregating certain types of activity for discussion here is threefold: (1) some of them have a scope extending considerably beyond that of the usual classroom organization; (2) most schools still administer them as "extra" activities; and (3) such activities, as at present administered, are often accompanied by special difficulties which may interfere with the development of good character.

Special Problems and Principles

Special problems associated with out-of-class activities—From an analysis of forty outstanding publications in this field the Twenty-fifth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education lists nine types of difficulty which interfere with the success of out-of-class activities:

1. Extent of participation: Individual students participate too little or too much.
2. Anti-social practises: Secret societies and cliques have sometimes developed.
3. Supervision: Teachers are unwilling to sponsor activities, are unconvinced of their value, or attempt to dominate them.
4. Economic considerations: The activities are too costly, or there is waste and inadequate accounting of funds.
5. Outside interference: Outside interests, like those of spectators and alumni, sometimes demand anti-educational lines of emphasis.
6. Duplicating activities.
7. Central control: Lack of centralized policy and control.
8. Conflicting schedules.
9. Unsatisfactory facilities.³⁸

³⁸ National Society for the Study of Education. *Extra-Curricular Activities*. Twenty-fifth Yearbook, Part II. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1926. p. 12-13.

Data are not available with regard to the relative frequency of these problems or the degree of their influence upon pupil personality. Most of them, however, are probably sufficiently frequent and crucial to warrant careful attention by administrators and teachers. One obviously important problem is to obtain the proper amount of pupil participation in out-of-class activities. Several studies have shown the wide variation in the extent to which different pupils take part.³⁹ Table 10 presents data on this point from a survey in a large city high school, the results of which led to the following conclusions:

1. That there is a wide variation in the number of activities in which different individuals participate.

2. That there is a difference in the number of activities carried on by sophomores, juniors, and seniors, with a wider variation in the upper grades than in the lower grades.

3. That some students belong only to organizations which do not provide a small social grouping or a significant amount of participation for each member.

4. That among students participating in several activities there is a tendency to specialize in those which are similar rather than in those which would give a more varied experience.⁴⁰

These results suggest that, whatever the character values of out-of-class activities may be, some students do not participate enough to obtain these values, while others scatter their energies over so many activities that undesirable tendencies are likely to result. Some variation is to be expected, of course, because of individual differences in the abilities and interests of students, in the amount of time required by various activities, and in the extent of students' activity in enterprises outside the school. A survey of student participation in the high schools of Everett and Seattle, Washington, revealed that students who worked for pay during out-of-school hours joined considerably fewer than the average number of school organizations.⁴¹ Heaton's

data, on the other hand, indicated that students who were most active in organizations outside the school also participated most in the school activities.

TABLE 10.—NUMBER OF ORGANIZATIONS TO WHICH HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATES HAD BELONGED DURING FOUR YEARS IN HIGH SCHOOL

Number of organizations	Boys		Girls	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5
0	8	4.7	4	1.8
1	3	1.8	2	0.9
2	10	5.8	5	2.3
3	14	8.2	9	4.1
4	19	11.1	18	8.1
5	20	11.7	27	12.2
6	20	11.7	27	12.2
7	18	10.5	37	16.7
8	20	11.7	26	11.8
9	14	8.2	24	10.8
10	10	5.8	12	5.4
11	4	2.3	12	5.4
12	3	1.8	9	4.1
13	4	2.3	5	2.3
14	3	1.8	1	0.5
15	1	0.6	2	0.9
16	..	..	1	0.5
Total	171	100.0	221	100.0
Average	6.2	..	7.1	..

Read table thus: Of the 171 boys studied, 8 or 4.7 percent had belonged to no organization, 3 or 1.8 percent had belonged to one organization, 10 or 5.8 percent had belonged to two organizations, etc., while the average number of organizations was 6.2. Similarly read figures for the 221 girls.

Source of data: Heaton, Kenneth L. *A Study of the Recreational Life of High School Students*. Unpublished doctor's thesis. University of Chicago, 1931. Chapter 2, Charts I and II.

Special principles for administering out-of-class activities—The principles underlying the utilization of out-of-class activities for character building are essentially the same as those which apply to other parts of the curriculum.⁴² There are, however, a number of special principles which will be helpful in overcoming the difficulties outlined above. Discussions of these may be found in any of the standard publications on extracurriculum activities. Following is a classified list of such principles from the Twenty-fifth Yearbook of the National Society

³⁹ Ayer, Fred C. "Pupil Participation in Extra-Curricular Activities." Twenty-fifth Yearbook, Part II, National Society for the Study of Education, p. 67-80. ¶ Heaton, Kenneth L. *A Study of the Recreational Life of High School Students*. Unpublished doctor's thesis. University of Chicago, 1931. p. 18-31. ¶ Woody, Clifford, and Chapelle, E. H. "Pupil Participation in the Extra-Curricular Activities in the Smaller High Schools." Twenty-fifth Yearbook, Part II, National Society for the Study of Education, p. 81-96.

⁴⁰ Heaton, Kenneth L. *A Study of the Recreational Life of High School Students*. Unpublished doctor's thesis. University of Chicago, 1931. p. 30.

⁴¹ National Society for the Study of Education, Twenty-fifth Yearbook, Part II, p. 80.

⁴² See pages 96-98 of this bulletin.

for the Study of Education, with numbers in parentheses to indicate their frequency of mention among forty outstanding publications in the field:

- I. Centralization of organization and administration:
 1. Under school direction and control (16)
 2. Some plan of unification and centralization (6)
 3. Authoritative sanction for new organizations (8)
 4. Veto power of principal on all actions (3)
- II. Supervision:
 5. Supervision for all activities (11)
 6. Guidance and cooperative leadership rather than complete direction (20)
 7. Appreciation of value by teachers (4)
 8. Responsibilities for all teachers (3)
 9. Expert knowledge of all sponsors (5)
 10. Selection and promotion of teachers in part for extracurriculum efficiency (3)
 11. Adjustment of teaching schedules for heavy extracurriculum loads (4)
- III. Scope and participation:
 12. Adaptation of organization to school (5)
 13. Gradual, not sudden development (10)
 14. Source in curriculum life of school (6)
 15. Higher aim than sociability only (9)
 16. Wide variety of activities (13)
 17. Leeway for individual student choice (13)
 18. Participation by all students (17)
 19. Membership equally open to all (20)
 20. Limitation of number to which any student may belong (4)
- IV. Other administrative problems:
 21. Definite scheduling of organizations (6)
 22. Part of regular program (10)
 23. Few if any evening meetings (4)
 24. High school the meeting place (7)
 25. Students the only members (5)
 26. Expenses moderate (5)
 27. Cooperation of homes (4).⁴³

The only one of these principles which seems unnecessary and perhaps inadvisable is number 14, which suggests that out-of-class activities should always have their source in other parts of the curriculum. Such a relationship may be desirable under some conditions, but it is more

important that the activities have genuine personal and social value for the pupil in his everyday life.

Character Values in Specific Types of Activity

There are three ways in which out-of-class activities may yield values for character: (1) thru the activity program of the group, (2) thru the social experience which the activity provides with other members of the group, and (3) thru the opportunity for close friendship between the pupils and the sponsor of the activity.⁴⁴ These sources, however, do not yield their values automatically. Much depends on how the activities are selected and carried on. Programs conducted in the traditional academic fashion can hardly produce better results for character than do the regular classes when materials and methods are poorly chosen. Generally speaking, out-of-class programs which provide for group solution of real life-problems under capable guidance, and for actual practise in socially useful conduct, seem most likely to contribute to good character development. Social experience within the group will be enriched if projects are undertaken on a cooperative rather than an individual basis. The influence of the sponsor will be stronger and more wholesome if he can create an atmosphere of informality without license, and if he can guide the group without dominating it.

The remainder of this section discusses briefly seven major types of activities with reference to their character-building possibilities: (1) clubs, (2) assemblies, (3) dramatics, (4) athletics, (5) publications, (6) student participation in school government, and (7) social activities. There is relatively little objective evidence as to the character influences, either actual or potential, of these types.⁴⁵ The suggestions presented here are based largely upon what seem to be sound educational theory and successful school practise. Further discussion and illustration of various points are available in numerous books on extracurriculum activi-

⁴³ National Society for the Study of Education. Twenty-fifth Yearbook, Part II, p. 15. See also p. 14-18 for discussion of the principles.

⁴⁴ See: Heaton, Kenneth L. *The Character Emphasis in Education*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933. p. 238-41.

⁴⁵ Heaton, Kenneth L. *Character Building Through Recreation*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1929. p. 9-38, 157-85.

⁴⁶ In this connection see the section on "Organized recreational facilities" in the *Research Bulletin* for March, 1934, p. 71-72.

ties⁴⁶ and in school bulletins and courses of study.⁴⁷

Clubs—Several types of clubs may contribute to good character: (1) subject-matter clubs, if related closely to life interests and needs; (2) fine-arts clubs, such as orchestra, glee club, dramatic, and poster clubs; and (3) social service clubs, either strictly local or affiliated with outside organizations such as the Boy Scouts of America, Girl Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, Junior Red Cross, Hi-Y, Girl Reserves, and 4-H Clubs. Here are a few general suggestions for making school clubs function in character building:

1. Necessary expenses of club operation should be met by the general school program and not by individual assessments.
2. The club should be a cooperative enterprise based upon definite and worthy objectives.
3. The program of the club should be determined by the age, experience, purposes, and general outlook of its members.
4. Clubs should grow out of the life of the school.
5. Club membership should be kept small enough to permit the maximum individual participation.

6. Club membership should be voluntary. To require membership of all pupils in clubs is to create an artificial situation which defeats the purpose for which clubs are designed. Special clubs should be provided for backward children.⁴⁸

In the traditional school most clubs were organized without reference to membership in the regular classes. Recently, however, many schools have found the classroom club useful in making the transition from a formal type of class work to a more lifelike and highly socialized type. Such a club may help to introduce an atmosphere of freedom without endangering the systematic progress of regular class work. It may also provide a favorable setting for class discussion of situations and problems arising in the school or classroom, for the formulation of plans for improving school conditions, and for the assignment of responsibility for such classroom duties and projects as the teacher and pupils may decide upon.⁴⁹

In developing club programs of maximum value for character, care should be taken to avoid materials and methods which are likely to be more harmful than helpful. Hartshorne

⁴⁶ See such books as the following: Blackburn, Lura and others. *Our High School Clubs*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1928. 253 p. ¶ Borgeson, F. C. *All-School Activities*, Vol. I. New York: A. S. Barnes and Co., 1931. 143 p. ¶ Borgeson, F. C. *Group Interest Activities*. New York: A. S. Barnes and Co., 1931. 135 p. ¶ Coe, George A. *Law and Freedom in the School*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1924. 134 p. ¶ Cox, Philip W. L. *Creative School Control*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1927. 320 p. ¶ Deam, Thomas M., and Bear, Olive M. *Socializing the Pupil Through Extra-Curricular Activities*. Chicago: Benjamin H. Sanborn and Co., 1928. 324 p. ¶ Foster, C. R. *Extra-Curricular Activities in the High School*. Richmond, Va.: Johnson Publishing Co., 1925. 222 p. ¶ Fretwell, Elbert K. *Extra-Curricular Activities in Secondary Schools*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1931. 552 p. ¶ Heaton, Kenneth L. *The Character Emphasis in Education*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933. p. 252-80. ¶ Huff, Bessie M. *How To Publish a School Newspaper*. New York: Mentzer, Bush and Co., 1924. 325 p. ¶ Jordan, Riverda Harding. *Extra-Classroom Activities in Elementary and Secondary Schools*. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1928. 302 p. ¶ LeCompte, Pearl. *Dramatics*. New York: A. S. Barnes and Co., 1931. 163 p. ¶ McKown, Harry C. *Extra-Curricular Activities*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1927. 617 p. ¶ McKown, Harry C. *School Clubs, Their Organization, Administration, Supervision, and Activities*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1929. 498 p. ¶ Meyer, Harold D. *A Handbook of Extra-Curricular Activities in the High School*. New York: A. S. Barnes and Co., 1926. 402 p. ¶ Meyer, Harold D. *The School Club Program*. New York: A. S. Barnes and Co., 1931. 178 p. ¶ National Education Association, Department of Classroom Teachers. *The Classroom Teacher and Character Education*. Seventh Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Association. p. 115-32. ¶ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. *Character Education*. Tenth Yearbook. p. 227-33. ¶ National Society for the Study of Education. *Extra-Curricular Activities*. Twenty-fifth Yearbook, Part II. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1926. p. 181-224. ¶ Roberts, Alexander C., and Draper, Edgar M. *Extra-Class and Intra-Mural Activities in High Schools*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1928. 529 p. ¶ Roemer, Joseph, and Allen, Charles F. *Extra-Curricular Activities in Junior and Senior High Schools*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1926. 333 p. Thomas-Tindal, E. V., and Myers, J. D. *Junior High School Life*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1925. p. 92-109. ¶ Wagner, M. Channing. *Assembly Programs*. New York: A. S. Barnes and Co., 1930. 142 p. ¶ Wells, George C., and McAllister, Wayne H. *Student Publications*. New York: A. S. Barnes and Co., 1930. 180 p.

⁴⁷ Some school bulletins or courses of study emphasizing one or more of these types of out-of-class activities as means of character development are: Kansas City, Mo. *Character Building: Elementary School Procedures*. Kansas City School Service Bulletin Vol. 4 No. 3. Character Building Series No. 2. Kansas City, Mo.: Department of Education, 1931. p. 72-86. ¶ Los Angeles, Calif.: *Character and Conduct: High School Course of Study*. School Publication No. 60. Los Angeles, Calif.: Board of Education, 1923. (Reprinted 1926.) p. 14-15. ¶ Maryland. *The Teaching of Citizenship in the Elementary School*. Maryland School Bulletin, Vol. 8. Baltimore, Md.: State Department of Education, 1926. p. 72-82. ¶ Oklahoma. *Character Education: A Handbook for Teachers*. Bulletin No. 131. Oklahoma City, Okla.: State Department of Public Instruction, 1931. p. 40-42. ¶ St. Louis, Mo. *Socializing-Integrating Activities for the High School*. Curriculum Bulletin No. 38. St. Louis, Mo.: Board of Education, 1926. p. 29-53, 61-65. ¶ Utah. *Character Education: Supplement to the Utah State Course of Study for Elementary and High Schools*. rev. ed. Salt Lake City, Utah: Department of Public Instruction, 1929. p. 125-36.

⁴⁸ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. Tenth Yearbook. p. 235-36.

⁴⁹ Operation of a class club or council as a character-building device is discussed or illustrated in the following: Beck, Paul H. "Character Education Through the Civic Club." *Character Education*. Sixth Yearbook, Chicago Principals' Club. Chicago: the Club, 1931. p. 97-100. ¶ Buffalo, N. Y. *Character Building*. Buffalo, N. Y.: Department of Education, 1927. p. 31. ¶ Norfolk, Va. *Character Education in Norfolk Elementary Schools*. Norfolk, Va.: City School Board, 1928. p. 90-92.

and May⁵⁰ reported a study of the influence, with respect to certain phases of honesty, of an organization designed to interest children in the acquisition of desirable traits. Various traits were listed and described, historic and legendary characters possessing them were discussed, and each child was expected to keep a daily record of his good deeds, including truth-telling. If the child made a good record he was advanced from rank to rank within the organization. The results of the study indicated that boys who were members of the organization were no less deceptive than boys who were not members, either on the test taken at home or on those taken at school. The girl members, altho no less deceptive on the home test, were somewhat less deceptive on the school tests than were non-member girls. In one elementary school, which strongly emphasized character education and in which the organization in question had been operating in grades four to eight for several years, the pupils were less deceptive on all the tests than were the pupils of two other schools where extracurriculum activities in general, and this organization in particular, were frowned upon by school officials. However, the longer the children had been in the organization, the more deceptive they tended to be. Moreover, increased deception was associated with both rise in rank and rate of advancement in the organization. The investigators concluded (1) that the superior showing of the school in which the organization operated was not due to the influence of the organization but to other factors; (2) that the increase in deception accompanying longer experience and higher rank in the organization was due partly to a tendency to select the more deceptive children for advancement, and partly to the encouragement and practise in deception which the program of the organization provided; and (3) that the unwholesome influence of the program was probably a greater factor in this increase than was the selection of the more deceptive children for advancement. It is possible, of course, that programs of this kind have had a better influence in other localities, and that they have produced desirable results in aspects of character other than those measured in this study. Such hy-

potheses, however, remain to be verified by further investigation.

In this connection a warning may well be sounded against ready-made club programs or plans for character education which have been prepared with little understanding of personality development or of local school needs. Occasionally these plans contain useful suggestions, but usually they cannot be applied safely without considerable modification. Teachers and administrators will do well to examine such schemes critically before incorporating them in the school program.

Assemblies—Carefully prepared assembly programs tend to integrate the life of the school, developing large-group consciousness and worthy school spirit. They may give children training in regard to proper conduct in crowds, provide them with a common body of knowledge about the school and its problems, build up an intelligent public opinion among them, and encourage successful achievement in a wide variety of school and out-of-school activities. Certain programs may also help to raise the children's standards with respect to music, drama, and public performances generally. The following types of program have been suggested as most likely to yield these values:

1. Programs showing the life of the school: dramatizing the meeting of the school paper staff, the work of the Junior Red Cross Club, the student council at work, school "sings" led by the glee clubs.
2. Musical programs, poetry contests, etc., given by a representative from each home-room group.
3. An assembly at the beginning of the semester participated in by representatives from each home-room group in which the school sets up the goals for the semester.
4. An assembly at the close of each semester participated in by representatives from each home-room group in which the school recounts its achievements for the semester and awards honors.
5. Programs given by a home-room group with the rest of the school as audience. Such a program usually includes the dramatization of a play and the singing of the class song.
6. Programs given by special departments to interest the rest of the school in their work. Demonstrations by the physical training department, style shows by the sewing classes, and science talks are illustrations of this type of assembly.
7. Programs given by talent outside the school. A speaker, a concert, or an illustrated talk occasionally helps to raise the standards for school per-

⁵⁰ Hartshorne, Hugh, and May, Mark A., *Studies in Deceit*, p. 339-55.

formances or to focus the attention of the school upon some particular ideal.

8. "Pep meetings" under the direction of the student council conducted by the school cheer leaders are valuable for crystallizing school spirit. These meetings should be separate from the regular school assembly.

9. Programs with a definite ethical purpose and plan.⁵¹

Dramatics—Dramatization may profitably be used both as a method of teaching applicable to all pupils, and as a separate out-of-class activity for those who have special interests and talents in this field. As a method of teaching it has an important place in regular class work, especially in literature and the social studies. As an out-of-class activity it may be carried on by a club, used in assembly programs, and presented during out-of-school hours for the benefit of parents and other citizens. Properly conducted, it enriches the curriculum for bright pupils and helps to stimulate the duller ones by making important aspects of human nature more vivid. Perhaps the most significant contribution of the good drama from the viewpoint of character is its solution of conflicts vividly in accordance with the human qualities and the social conditions involved. Both formal and informal dramatics should have a place in the out-of-class program.⁵²

The following principles have been suggested as essential to the greatest success of dramatics in character development:

1. In general, dramatic activity should not be carried on for the purpose of raising money for a school fund.

2. As many children as possible should have an opportunity to participate in a play sometime during the year, either as a part of regular class work or as a member of a dramatic club.

3. Each child, so far as possible, should be assigned the part which it will benefit him most to play.⁵³

Athletics—Much has been written about the character values of athletic games. It is, how-

ever, a matter of common observation as well as of carefully collected evidence, that in many high schools and colleges certain practises have arisen which tend to nullify the desirable character influences of athletics.⁵⁴

Among these undesirable practises are the following:

1. The employment of coaches because of their athletic record rather than for their educational fitness.

2. The domination of the school program by alumni associations or the sporting crowd in the community.

3. The over-emphasis placed upon athletics.

4. The "lionizing" of athletes.

5. Keeping pupils in school because of their values to the team.

6. Newspaper publicity.

7. Exploitation of school athletics by commercial agencies.⁵⁵

If athletic contests are to yield their maximum values for character, major emphasis must be placed upon such outcomes as the following:

1. A player tries to make good team plays, rather than attempting to "star."

2. A player recognizes a good play regardless of team membership.

3. A player takes the bumps and hard knocks incidental to the game with fortitude.

4. A timid player gradually overcomes his awe of mass play.

5. A player assumes the responsibility of trying to live up to the school code of sportsmanship.

6. A player tries to develop an interest in many kinds of games, rather than limiting his interest to one or two which he already knows he enjoys.

7. A player subordinates self to the team, yet with utmost self-development for the sake of the team.⁵⁶

There is a definite tendency to make participation in athletic games an integral part of school programs of physical education. Among the important trends in such programs are these:

⁵¹ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. Tenth Yearbook, p. 228-29.

⁵² See also "Informal dramatization of desirable habits and attitudes," p. 107 of this bulletin.

⁵³ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. Tenth Yearbook, p. 233-34.

⁵⁴ See: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. *American College Athletics*. Bulletin No. 23. New York: the Foundation, 1929. 383 p. ¶ Morley, E. E., and others. "Report of the Committee on Athletics in Secondary Schools." *North Central Association Quarterly* 5: 332-39; December, 1930. 6: 21-30; June, 1931. ¶ Fretwell, Elbert K. *Extra-Curricular Activities in Secondary Schools*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1931. p. 420-27.

⁵⁵ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. Tenth Yearbook, p. 235.

⁵⁶ Denver, Colorado. *Physical Education Course of Study*, as quoted in the Tenth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence, p. 234.

1. Formal gymnasium exercises are giving place to organized games and rhythmic dancing.

2. An increasing emphasis is being given to intramural games and tournaments as opposed to inter-school contests.

3. The play life of the school is being organized to include all pupils.

4. Student spectators at athletic games are less prejudiced in their attitudes.⁵⁷

School publications—School publications, like the school assembly, are valuable as integrating influences. They may unite the entire student body thru a common understanding of school activities and problems, shape and utilize group opinion for the improvement of school conditions, and generally foster a sense of loyalty to the school. Good publications help to set standards and stimulate effort in all lines of school work. They may promote drives and campaigns for the good of the school. They may reflect and interpret a variety of student activities both in school and out. The value of publications is by no means limited to the students who participate directly in their production, but such students should profit even more than do the readers. Staff members and contributors are engaged in a significant cooperative enterprise. They have an unusual incentive to show initiative and to do constructive thinking for the common welfare. They may learn the value of alertness and accuracy of observation. Some of them may find their future vocations in this field.

Certain prerequisites for the success of student publications have been stated as follows:

1. The need for a school publication should be canvassed and the character of the publication to be attempted should be determined in accordance with the school's needs.

2. Some person of the adult personnel of the school, capable and willing to assume the responsibility of directing the project, must be secured for sponsor.

3. Competent students must be secured for the positions of responsibility on the publication staff.

4. Before undertaking the publication of a regular school paper, the ability of the student body and the school faculty to maintain the degree of sustained effort required to carry the project thru to a successful finish must be determined.

5. The major problems which relate to the business management of publications . . . must be considered *in toto* and properly arranged for.⁵⁸

Student participation in school government

—The general objective of student participation in school government is to provide practice in the duties of citizenship. Altho this phase of the school program is still in the experimental stage, the important character values which it apparently offers have led schools thruout the country to try it in some form. A survey reported in the Twenty-fifth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education⁵⁹ revealed that of 191 schools selected at random, 90 percent provided some type of student government. Among the other results of this study were the following:

1. Most schools utilize a student council as the chief agency of administration. Other units, such as home-room organizations, also are used as means for student participation.

2. Student participation is usually a cooperative enterprise requiring sympathetic support and control by both students and faculty.

3. Most of the schools have written constitutions, developed according to local needs, as a basis for the machinery of school government.

4. Usually the members of the governing body are chosen from the school at large or from home-room organizations.

5. In only one-half the schools is high scholarship a requisite for eligibility to the governing body. In less than half the schools a candidate must receive the approval of the principal or the faculty.

6. The governing body as a rule is concerned primarily with general problems of the school, assuming the function of disciplining students in less than one-half the schools.

7. When discipline is made an activity of the governing body, the latter almost invariably acts in cooperation with the faculty.

8. One of the greatest problems is how to make effective the decisions reached by the student governing body. This seems to be accomplished best by building up group opinion and school spirit thru home-room or class meetings.

There is not, of course, complete agreement as to the desirability of student participation in school government. Some school principals, as well as some pupils, believe that student participation can be nothing but a pretense of real school government, and that schools are better managed without it. In spite of the numerous difficulties, however, the belief is rather general that under careful planning and wise admin-

⁵⁷ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, Tenth Yearbook, p. 235.

⁵⁸ National Society for the Study of Education. Twenty-fifth Yearbook, Part II, p. 141-32.

⁵⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 133-38.

istration, student participation in government is an important means of educating children in the principles and practises of good citizenship.

From the study referred to above, the following general suggestions are offered for making this phase of school life successful:

1. Student participation should be introduced gradually.
2. The machinery for its administration should be simple.
3. The students themselves must desire in a genuine way to participate in the government of the school.
4. The faculty must be sympathetic, patient, and willing in every way to make the movement a success. Student participation is necessarily a cooperative matter.
5. The plan must provide for means by which *all* students are given opportunities to participate in the government of the school.⁶⁰

Social activities—In addition to activities which involve a more or less definite program of work, there are those which consist almost wholly of social play. These also may have character-building values if properly planned and supervised. Social parties of various kinds may be held by the members of individual grades, classes, and clubs, or by the entire student body under the sponsorship of the student council or a special committee. Such affairs provide opportunity for the development of friendships in an atmosphere even more informal than that of the regular club or class meetings. They also provide a real-life setting for the practise and appreciation of good manners in social intercourse. Dancing, playing games, attending good movies, group singing, and even the serving of refreshments may all contribute to the process of refinement and socialization.

It is important, of course, that such activities be planned carefully in advance, that students be made to feel responsibility for suitable

conduct, and that adequate supervision be exercised by both student leaders and faculty sponsors. The Seventh Yearbook of the Department of Classroom Teachers gives the following list of safeguards which some schools have found successful in preventing undesirable consequences and in bringing out the finer values in evening dances:

1. Every phase of the dance is carefully planned. Committees are made responsible for program, invitations, floor and arrangements, music, decorations, refreshments, transportation, parking, etc.
2. A sufficient number of faculty sponsors are responsible for general supervision.
3. Special police are present to guard grounds and machines.
4. Definite times are set for starting and closing the dance.
5. A number of parents help to sponsor the party.
6. The students know and understand such policies as these:
 - a. No student is to leave the hall until the close of the dance.
 - b. Students are requested to return home immediately after the dance unless permission of parents has been given to do otherwise.
 - c. School standards as to types of dancing should be maintained.
 - d. Lights and furniture must remain as arranged.
7. The selections played by the orchestra are carefully chosen, with special attention to rhythm. The orchestra is instructed to change selections if conduct is not up to standard.
8. A master of ceremonies is made responsible for student conduct in general.⁶¹

A few high schools are still troubled by the problem of secret fraternities and sororities. The chief objections to such groups are that they are not under school supervision, have no real relation to the program of the school, and tend to keep school life from being truly democratic. Fraternities and sororities are seldom found in high schools which provide a well-conceived program of social activities.⁶²

⁶⁰ National Society for the Study of Education. Twenty-fifth Yearbook, Part II, p. 139-40.

⁶¹ National Education Association, Department of Classroom Teachers. Seventh Yearbook, p. 113.

⁶² For a discussion of this problem see: McKown, Harry C. *Extra-Curricular Activities*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1927. p. 169-80.

THE GROUNDS for assigning to play and active work a definite place in the curriculum are intellectual and social, not matters of temporary expediency and momentary agreeableness: without something of the kind it is not possible to secure the normal estate of effective learning; namely, that knowledge-getting to be an outgrowth of activities having their own, instead of a school task.—John Dewey in *Democracy and Education* p. 228.

III. Building Character thru Individual Guidance

Guidance in meeting the situations of life may be given to pupils both in groups and as individuals. The preceding chapter has touched upon various phases of group guidance. This one deals with certain aspects of individual guidance which seem especially significant for character building.

The guidance program in many schools has been limited largely to educational and vocational counseling. There is a growing tendency, however, to include other equally important aspects of pupil adjustment. This broader type of program involves educational and vocational guidance, but is focused upon the adjustment of the individual's whole personality in accordance with desirable standards.¹

In most classrooms there are pupils with problems of behavior which do not respond satisfactorily to group treatment. Such pupils need individual attention with respect to all factors which are seriously affecting their adjustments to life. Difficulty in school work may be an underlying cause of maladjustment, or it may be merely a manifestation of causes which lie deeper. Individual guidance needs to consider all aspects of adjustment and all possible causes of maladjustment, rather than concentrating on relatively limited aspects such as academic progress or vocational preparation. The many case studies² which have been made in recent years show that most maladjustments are caused by a combination of factors,³ that these factors are often not revealed by outward symptoms, and that successful readjustment of the individual usually involves a modification of these factors.

The scope of individual guidance is not limited to the solution of behavior problems which

have developed to the acute stage. The purpose of all guidance is preventive as well as curative. Close observation and wise handling of every child is necessary to keep serious maladjustments from developing. However, since the most distinctive contribution of individual guidance lies in the discovery, diagnosis, and treatment of behavior difficulties, this section of the bulletin emphasizes these phases of the work.

Discovering Pupils with Behavior Problems

Symptoms of maladjustment—Some maladjustments are readily detected because they have very obvious and disturbing symptoms. Others often pass unnoticed because their symptoms, altho evident, are not generally recognized as significant. Wickman's study⁴ indicated that teachers are most perturbed by the "attacking" types of conduct, and least perturbed by such unwholesome tendencies as shyness, sensitiveness, suspiciousness, unsocial withdrawing, being over-critical of others, and being unduly dependent upon the guidance of others. These latter tendencies do not usually interfere with the smooth operation of the school, but psychiatrists believe that they often reflect more serious underlying problems than do the aggressive and positively annoying activities. Of great importance also is the fact that many maladjustments in their early stages seem to have no outward manifestations. A child may struggle unsuccessfully with an important problem for a considerable time before betraying his inner conflict thru overt behavior. The sooner such conflicts are discovered, the

¹ School bulletins reflecting this broader view of guidance tend to make no sharp distinction between individual and group guidance. For example, see: California, *Guide for Counseling in the Secondary School*. Bulletin No. C-9. Sacramento, Calif.: State Department of Education, 1931. 61 p. ¶ Dallas, Texas, *Pupil Guidance Manual*. Dallas, Texas: Board of Education, 1931. 137 p. ¶ La Salle, Ill. *History and Description of a Personnel Program*. La Salle, Ill.: Bureau of Educational Counsel, 1923-1926. 52 p. ¶ Ohio, *Guidance in Ohio Schools, Its Needs and the Program of the State Department of Education*. Columbus, Ohio: State Department of Education, 1930. 31 p. ¶ Pennsylvania, *General Bulletin on Guidance*. Bulletin No. 13. Harrisburg, Pa.: State Department of Public Instruction, 1927. 127 p.

² For samples of case studies, see such references as the following: Healy, William, and Bronner, A. F. *Case Studies*. Boston: Judge Baker Foundation, 1922. 630 p. ¶ Mateer, Florence. *Just Normal Children*. New York: D. Appleton and Co., 1929. 294 p. ¶ Ralph, Georgia. *Case Studies*. New York: Child Welfare League of America, 1923. ¶ Reavis, W. C. *Pupil Adjustment in Junior and Senior High Schools*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1926. 348 p. ¶ Sapir, Jean. *A Morning in the Clinic*. Reprinted from *Welfare Magazine*. Springfield, Ill.: State Department of Public Welfare, 1928. 14 p. ¶ Sayles, M. B. *The Problem Child at Home*. New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1928. 342 p. ¶ Sayles, M. B. *The Problem Child in School*. New York: Joint Committee on Methods of Preventing Delinquency (now Commonwealth Fund), 1925. 287 p. ¶ Sayles, M. B. *Three Problem Children*. New York: Joint Committee on Methods of Preventing Delinquency (now Commonwealth Fund), 1924. 146 p. ¶ Van Waters, Miriam. *Youth in Conflict*. New York: Republic Publishing Co. (now New Republic, Inc.), 1925. 293 p. ¶ Watson, M. E. *Children and Their Parents*. New York: F. S. Crofts and Co., 1932. 362 p.

³ See also the section on "Factors in Character Formation" in the *Research Bulletin* for March, 1934. p. 51-77.

⁴ Wickman, E. K. *Children's Behavior and Teachers' Attitudes*. New York: Division of Publications, Commonwealth Fund, 1928. 247 p.

easier it will be to prevent more serious maladjustments.

Status and possibilities of testing—The ideal way to discover pupils' needs in the realm of personality adjustment would be to administer to all pupils periodically a battery of tests and other devices for measurement in this field. Tests of physical condition, intelligence, and subjectmatter achievement are now given rather generally, but few schools are using objective measures of other phases of personality. Hundreds of tests have been devised, but nothing approaching a comprehensive and thoro survey of personality has yet been made possible. The tremendous complexity and continuous modification of character are serious obstacles to valid measurement. Altho progress is being made, it seems unlikely that the status and needs of the whole personality can ever be discovered with the precision and economy of time now possible in the measurement of general intelligence and subjectmatter learning.⁵

The foregoing statement does not imply that available testing procedures have little value in uncovering personality difficulties. Much that is suggestive may be revealed by well-selected tests, as numerous studies show. Elonen and Woodrow,⁶ for example, compared the scores of sixth-grade children on the Woodworth psychoneurotic questionnaire and the Kent-Rosanoff free association test with ratings of the same pupils by teachers and principals on a scale of "normality of behavior." They obtained a fair correlation (+.48) between the pathological-test scores and the ratings, when the factor of intelligence was held constant. The best possible combination of pathological-test scores and intelligence-test scores yielded a considerably higher correlation (+.73) with the ratings.

Cushing and Ruch⁷ compared a group of girls adjudged delinquent by the courts with a group of non-delinquent girls of similar age,

mentality, and social status. Of the eight tests used, six appeared to be worthy of further experimentation. The delinquents were best distinguished from the non-delinquents by their greater suggestibility, a greater number of symptoms indicated on the Woodworth questionnaire, a greater number of false book titles which they claimed to have read, and the inferior attitudes which they revealed on a moral-opinion test.

Symonds and Jackson⁸ reported a survey in several high schools near New York City to discover the need of individual guidance among the pupils. Two instruments were used: (1) a questionnaire designed to reveal the degree of each pupil's individual adjustment to the school curriculum, the social life of the school, the school administration, the teachers, other pupils, home and family, and personal affairs; and (2) a device for identifying more obvious behavior difficulties, patterned after the "Guess Who" test used by Hartshorne and May in the Character Education Inquiry.⁹ These instruments revealed two phases of adjustment: (1) personal adjustment as shown by the pupil's expressions of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with reference to various items in his environment, and (2) social adjustment as evidenced by the pupil's reputation among his fellows. Low scores on the questionnaire were most frequently made by seclusive, introverted pupils who felt unsuccessful and unappreciated. On the other hand, the pupils mentioned most frequently by their fellows as being queer or maladjusted were the boisterous, obstreperous, extroverted individuals.

Symonds used the same two instruments in surveying ninth-grade pupils in another high school.¹⁰ He also made detailed case studies of some of these pupils by means of interviews, autobiographical statements, teachers' judgments, and other devices. Using the results of the case studies as criteria, he concluded that both the adjustment questionnaire and the identification sheet were of real value in indi-

⁵ See also the statement under "Testing the effectiveness of learning," p. 136 of this bulletin.

⁶ Elonen, Anna S., and Woodrow, Herbert. "Group Tests of Psychopathic Tendencies in Children." *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology* 23: 315-27; October, 1928.

⁷ Cushing, Hazel M., and Ruch, G. M. "An Investigation of Character Traits in Delinquent Girls." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 11: 1-7; February, 1927.

⁸ Symonds, P. M., and Jackson, C. E. "An Adjustment Survey." *Journal of Educational Research* 21: 321-30; May, 1930.

⁹ See: Hartshorne, Hugh; May, Mark A.; and Maller, Julius B. *Studies in Service and Self-Control*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1929. p. 87-91.

¹⁰ Symonds, Percival M. "Group Methods for Conducting a Mental Hygiene Survey of High School Pupils." *School and Society* 32: 501-6; October 11, 1930.

ating, at the beginning of the year, pupils who would later be recognized by teachers as being maladjusted in some way.

Many tests other than those mentioned above may, under favorable conditions, contribute to the discovery of maladjustments in children.¹¹ It is essential, however, that teachers and other school workers recognize the limitations of these instruments, and that they refrain from drawing definite conclusions concerning any individual child from the results of only one or even several such tests. The present status of these measures is well summarized in the following statement:

To speak of them as tests of "emotional maladjustment" is justified only with the proviso that certain forms of maladjustment may be indicated by the test, but that certain others almost certainly are not. Moreover each measure seems, as yet, to be made up of many portions of error with relatively small portions of "pure" emotional-difficulty-intensity. The practical consequence is that until some more inclusive and less bulky battery is created, the study of individual or group adjustment can best proceed with a combination of many of these measures.¹²

In case of doubt as to the significance of a pupil's responses on a test or series of tests, it is wise to make a more complete study of his case, using a variety of procedures and sources of information. Such a study should be made also in all cases where maladjustments have been rather clearly indicated, either by formal tests or by ordinary observation.

The Case Method of Studying the Maladjusted Pupil

The case-study method, as usually defined, is a strictly individual approach to behavior problems. It is often difficult and time-con-

suming because of the importance, variety, and complexity of the underlying causes of maladjustment which must be discovered and treated if a cure is to be effected. There are three important steps in making a thoro case study: (1) collection and systematic organization of all pertinent facts; (2) careful diagnosis on the basis of these facts; and (3) appropriate treatment, utilizing all possible factors in the individual and in his environment.

Collection of Pertinent Facts

The kind and amount of information needed in a case study depend upon the nature of the case. Usually a variety of specific facts is essential to an accurate interpretation of a child's behavior. A number of outlines of factors to be investigated are available.¹³ As a rule these are designed for full-time counselors, but may be adapted to the requirements of busy teachers and principals by omitting some of the details. The following condensed outline indicates the scope of inquiry necessary in many cases of maladjustment:

1. *The school history of the child:* General school achievement, retardation or advancement—**High and low points in academic work**—Apparent causes for failures and successes—Peculiarities of action in academic work, interests, degree of concentration, ability to work alone, emotional disturbances, etc.—Out-of-class interests—Reaction to success and failure—Conduct problems during previous semesters—Relations with other pupils, recognition among others, nature of conflicts, apparent causes for conflicts.

2. *Measures of intelligence and achievement:* The results of objective tests of achievement and intelligence should be obtained whenever possible. If such scores are not available, the teacher should evaluate the intelligence and achievement of the child

¹¹ Tests of personality and character are listed and described in the following: Hartshorne, Hugh, and May, M. A. *Studies in Deceit*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1928. Book I, 414 p.; Book II, 306 p. ¶ Hartshorne, Hugh; May, M. A.; and Maller, J. B. *Studies in Service and Self-Control*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1929. 559 p. ¶ Hartshorne, Hugh; May, M. A.; and Shuttleworth, F. K. *Studies in the Organization of Character*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1930. 503 p. ¶ Hildreth, G. H. *Psychological Service for School Problems*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1930. 317 p. ¶ National Education Association, American Educational Research Association. "Tests of Personality and Character." *Review of Educational Research* 2: 183-270; June, 1932. Especially p. 186-93. ¶ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. *Character Education*. Tenth Yearbook, Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1932. p. 345-404. ¶ Watson, G. B. *Experimentation and Measurement in Religious Education*. New York: Association Press, 1927. 295 p.

¹² National Education Association, American Educational Research Association. "Tests of Personality and Character." *Review of Educational Research* 2: 183-270; June, 1932. p. 193.

¹³ See: Clark, M. A. *Recording and Reporting for Child Guidance Clinics*. New York: Division of Publications, Commonwealth Fund, 1930. 151 p. ¶ Culbert, J. F. *The Visiting Teacher at Work*. New York: Division of Publications, Commonwealth Fund, 1929. 235 p. ¶ Lee, Porter R.; Kenworthy, Marion E.; and others. *Mental Hygiene and Social Work*. New York: Division of Publications, Commonwealth Fund, 1929. p. 290-309. ¶ Mink, M. S., and Adler, H. M. *Suggested Outline for History Taking in Cases of Behavior Disorders in Children*. Springfield, Ill.: State Department of Public Welfare, 1926. 21 p. ¶ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. *Character Education*. Tenth Yearbook, p. 269-75. ¶ *Psychiatric Examination of a Child*. New York: National Committee for Mental Hygiene, 1926. 7 p. ¶ Sayles, M. B. *Three Problem Children*. New York: Joint Committee on Methods of Preventing Delinquency (now Commonwealth Fund), 1924. 146 p. ¶ Watson, M. E. *Children and Their Parents*. New York: F. S. Crofts and Co., 1932. 362 p. ¶ See also the psychiatric and social-history forms used by various clinics and psychopathic hospitals.

upon the basis of his retardation or acceleration in school, his record of grades in previous years, and the present quality of his work.

3. *Home conditions and influences:* Economic, social, and educational status of the home—Membership of the home, parents or foster-parents, brothers and sisters, other relatives or boarders in the home—Position of child in the family group; Is he the only child, the youngest, the lowest in mentality, the least attractive?—Type of family life, cooperativeness, conflicts, common interests, family recreations, etc.—Adjustment between father and mother—Emotional characteristics of the parents—Responsibilities of the child in the home—Conduct of child in the home—Attitude of parents toward misconduct of children—Forms of discipline and the reaction of child to various forms of discipline—Attitude of adults (other than parents) toward the misconduct and disciplining of the child; possible conflicts between relatives or boarders and parental authority.

4. *Other environmental factors:* Recreational interests of the child, types of games, reading, motion pictures, imaginative play, etc.—Friends and associates, difficulties with them, friendships with the opposite sex, affiliations with groups, church-school classes, gangs, etc.—Employment, type of work, associations, attitude toward work.

5. *Physical factors:* Results of examination by a physician—Health habits, eating, sleeping, elimination, bathing, etc.—Unusual physical conditions, chronic ill health, recent illness or physical weakness which makes it impossible to compete with others in play, enuresis (bed-wetting), etc.—Sex habits, unsatisfied curiosity on sex matters, masturbation, heterosexual interests.

6. *Personal interests and peculiarities of the child:* Interests and hobbies—Attitude toward other children and toward society in general—Ambitions and plans for his life—Emotional characteristics, temper outbreaks, day-dreams, fears, reaction to disappointment and mistreatment, predominant moods.¹⁴

In collecting such facts, the case-worker needs to build up a cooperative attitude on the part of the child and others who are in regular contact with the child. Many helpful suggestions on this and other matters of method in

obtaining information for case studies are available in other publications.¹⁵

Suggestions for Diagnosis and Treatment

General principles—It is impossible to give specific suggestions which will apply to all cases of maladjustment, because each case must be handled individually. There are, however, a number of general principles of individual guidance which are rather widely accepted by specialists in child psychology and mental hygiene. Among these are the following, which represent a combination and adaptation of those listed in two recent publications:¹⁶

1. A well-adjusted adult is likely to be more successful in guiding children than one who is poorly adjusted.
2. The guidance worker should maintain a cheerful, objective attitude, avoiding sentimentality, condemnation, and a false show of optimism.
3. Diagnosis of a behavior difficulty should take into consideration all available data concerning the child and his environment.
4. Generalizations concerning a child's difficulties should be based upon habitual and recurring behavior, rather than upon occasional occurrences.
5. Remedial treatment should be directed toward basic causes rather than toward external symptoms of maladjustment.
6. Remedial measures should aim to readjust the child as a whole; care must be taken not to create a new behavior problem while solving an old one.
7. The child's intelligence should be given due consideration, along with other factors, in determining the proper treatment of his difficulties.
8. Successful readjustment usually requires a change both in the child's own attitudes and in certain aspects of his environment.
9. The cooperation of other persons associated with the child must be obtained, especially in the home.
10. The cooperation of the child is essential, and the desired conduct must be made attractive to him.
11. The child should be informed of the counselor's specific purposes in his case insofar as such knowledge will help to enlist his cooperation.

¹⁴ Adapted from: National Education Association, Department of Classroom Teachers. *The Classroom Teacher and Character Education*. Seventh Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1932. p. 139-43.

¹⁵ See: American Association of Social Workers. *Interviews*. Studies in the Practice of Social Work, No. 1. New York: the Association, 1928-29. ¶ American Association of Social Workers. *Social Case Work, Generic and Specific*. Studies in the Practice of Social Work, No. 2. New York: the Association, 1929. ¶ DeSchweinitz, Karl. *Art of Helping People Out of Trouble*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1924. 231 p. ¶ Lee, Porter R.; Kenworthy, Marion E.; and others. *Mental Hygiene and Social Work*. New York: Division of Publications, Commonwealth Fund, 1929. 309 p. ¶ Richmond, Mary E. *What Is Social Case Work?* New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1922. 268 p. ¶ Robinson, Virginia P. *A Changing Psychology in Social Case Work*. Chapel Hill, N. C.: University of North Carolina Press, 1930. 204 p. ¶ Sheffield, Ada E. *The Social Case History*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1920. 227 p.

See also "Pupil accounting," p. 137 of this bulletin.

¹⁶ National Education Association, Department of Classroom Teachers. Seventh Yearbook, p. 144-54. ¶ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. Tenth Yearbook, p. 251-52.

12. Guidance should aim to develop greater independence or self-guidance on the part of the child.

13. The child should not be given authoritative explanations of his behavior, but should be led to form his own reasonable interpretation of it.

14. The child may be told how other people have met similar problems, but ordinarily he should not be given a ready-made solution of his own problem.

15. The child's successes should be emphasized rather than his failures, and situations should be arranged so as to give him a taste of success.

16. Much undesirable behavior may be eliminated by providing opportunity for substitute forms of behavior.

17. The counselor should concentrate on essential matters and overlook trivialities in the child's behavior.

18. The child's difficulties should not be called to the attention of other children unless he himself is likely to benefit from group interest and discussion.

19. Confidences should be kept inviolate.

20. Plans for readjustment should emphasize immediate practical steps as well as ultimate goals.

21. Teachers and other non-professional counselors should learn to identify early the cases which require specialized service, and should refer such cases to the appropriate agency.

Solution of specific behavior problems—The literature of child psychology and mental hygiene offers many helpful suggestions for solving specific types of behavior problems. Such books as those listed below¹⁷ and on page 117¹⁸ will be especially useful to teachers and others who have not had special training in personality adjustment. The busy teacher will find it most profitable, however, to consult one of the special bibliographies which give page references to these and other volumes under various types of problems. Such a bibliography appears in Heaton's *The Character Emphasis in Education*,¹⁹ and another almost as comprehensive is found in the Seventh Yearbook of the Department of Classroom Teachers.²⁰ The former classifies material under forty-three different problems of elementary-school chil-

dren and under thirty-eight problems of high-school pupils. These problems were selected by a group of classroom teachers as the ones most frequently encountered in their own school experience.

Authorities do not agree unanimously as to the best methods of handling certain types of cases. Several different theories may offer something of value for the treatment of a particular maladjustment. It is advisable, therefore, to learn the views of several specialists rather than to limit one's reading to a single author.

Counseling by Teachers and Principals

Value of counseling by teachers and principals—In many school systems, classroom teachers and principals are the only workers available for carrying on individual guidance. Even where specialists are employed, the teacher especially is an indispensable part of the guidance program. It is impractical to provide enough specialists to care for all cases of pupil maladjustment. Moreover, the teacher is so closely and so regularly associated with pupils that his opportunity for observing their behavior and for helping in the readjustment process is not exceeded by that of any other employee in the school system.

Some evidence as to the effectiveness of individual counseling by classroom teachers was obtained by Germane and Germane.²¹ In this study 915 teachers in nine school systems reported methods and results of treatment in 2672 cases involving 84 different kinds of disciplinary problems among pupils. After working with the pupils for one semester, the teachers felt that they had attained complete success in 511 cases, partial success in 2150 cases, and absolute failure in 11 cases. The investigators tabulated the reasons discovered for the eight most frequent types of misbehavior, the procedures found most useful in

¹⁷ Adler, Alfred, ed. *Guiding the Child on the Principles of Individual Psychology*. New York: Greenberg, Publisher, 1930. 268 p. ¶ Blanton, Smiley, and Blanton, Margaret Gray. *Child Guidance*. New York: Century Co., 1927. 301 p. ¶ Burnham, William H. *The Wholesome Personality*. New York: D. Appleton and Co., 1932. 713 p. ¶ Gruenberg, Benjamin C., ed. *Guidance of Childhood and Youth*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1926. 324 p. ¶ Morgan, John J. B. *The Psychology of the Unadjusted School Child*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1924. 300 p. ¶ Sadler, William S., and Sadler, Lena K. *Piloting Modern Youth*. New York: Funk and Wagnalls Co., 1931. 370 p. ¶ Thom, Douglas A. *Normal Youth and Its Everyday Problems*. New York: D. Appleton and Co., 1932. 368 p. ¶ Zachry, Caroline B. *Personality Adjustments of School Children*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1929. 306 p.

¹⁸ See footnote 2 on p. 117 of this bulletin and footnote 27 on page 123.

¹⁹ Heaton, Kenneth L. *The Character Emphasis in Education*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933. p. 381-405.

²⁰ National Education Association, Department of Classroom Teachers. Seventh Yearbook, p. 154-65.

²¹ Germane, Charles E., and Germane, Edith G. *Character Education*. New York: Silver, Burdett and Co., 1929. Part I, p. 112-57.

correcting these maladjustments, and the teachers' suggestions for the general improvement of conditions which influence pupil behavior. In spite of their limitations, these results indicate that the study and treatment of individual cases by classroom teachers can be a worthwhile undertaking.

Limitations of counseling by teachers and principals—Generally speaking, two difficulties at present prevent teachers and principals from doing more than a minor fraction of the work that needs to be done in this field: (1) lack of time, and (2) lack of adequate preparation. The first of these impediments is perhaps the most difficult to remedy, but apparently, it must be remedied if schools are to make their maximum contribution to character development. The only hope of significantly increasing the amount of time which teachers can give to individual guidance lies in reducing the number of children for whom each one is responsible.²² A supplementary remedy is to relieve teachers of clerical labor in connection with scoring tests, marking papers, and submitting reports to administrative officers. Such remedies are expensive but give promise of being worth their cost. The need for individual counseling is one of the principal reasons for believing that the price of real education for character will be greater than that paid for public schooling at any time in the past.²³

The second difficulty, lack of adequate preparation, can be decreased by reading, by participating in group conferences, and by taking special courses in teachers colleges and schools of education. The suggestions and references given in this section of the bulletin provide a basis for beginning such study.

Even with increased time and improved preparation for individual guidance, however, teachers and principals cannot be expected to treat adequately every case of maladjustment

among their pupils. Some cases require such skill, insight, and expenditure of time that they can be handled wisely and economically only by specialists, or by specialists working in cooperation with teachers and principals. As suggested earlier, one of the important functions of non-professional counselors is to refer behavior problems to available experts as soon as it becomes evident that specialized service is needed.

Specialists as Counselors

A review of guidance programs in school systems reveals a variety of specialists engaged in this work. These include psychiatric social workers, visiting teachers, attendance officers, psychiatrists, psychologists, educational and vocational counselors, deans, and health officers. Relatively few systems provide all of these types. Their duties are not uniformly defined, and there is considerable overlapping among them. The next few paragraphs summarize the functions of such specialists, pointing out similarities as well as differences in the services which they perform.

Social workers, visiting teachers, and attendance officers—These three types of workers have many duties in common. Their chief function is to bring about a more satisfactory social adjustment of pupils thru the cooperation of the school and other community agencies, especially the home. They should be able to assist classroom teachers in solving many problems of maladjustment which do not require major attention by a psychiatrist. They are also expected to cooperate with other specialists in the treatment of the more complex and difficult cases.

The psychiatric social worker is usually associated with a clinic or with some central or district office in a large school system. The visiting teacher is more often found in a smaller system or attached to a particular school in a larger system.²⁴ The attendance officer, altho

²² See also "Class size and teaching load," p. 133 of this bulletin.

²³ See also "Public Support of the Program for Character Building," p. 139 of this bulletin.

²⁴ For detailed discussion of the work of visiting teachers and psychiatric social workers, see: Culbert, Jane F. *The Visiting Teacher at Work*. New York: Division of Publications, Commonwealth Fund, 1929. 235 p. ¶ Ellis, Mabel B. *The Visiting Teacher in Rochester*. New York: Joint Committee on Methods of Preventing Delinquency (now Commonwealth Fund), 1925. 205 p. ¶ Lee, Porter R., Kenworthy, Marion E., and others. *Mental Hygiene and Social Work*. New York: Division of Publications, Commonwealth Fund, 1929. 309 p. ¶ Nudd, Howard W. *The Purpose and Scope of Visiting Teacher Work* [in Sayles, Mary B. *The Problem Child in School*. New York: Joint Committee on Methods of Preventing Delinquency (now Commonwealth Fund), 1925. 287 p.] Also published separately by the Joint Committee. ¶ Robinson, Virginia P. *A Changing Psychology in Social Case Work*. Chapel Hill, N. C.: University of North Carolina Press, 1930. 204 p.

originally a sort of policeman who forced truants to return to school, is finding that irregular attendance is usually a symptom of more fundamental maladjustments, and is modifying his methods of treatment accordingly.²⁵ To function most effectively, each of these workers should have considerable knowledge of psychology, mental hygiene, and social case work.

Psychiatrists and psychologists—In school practise the psychiatrist and the psychologist often perform similar functions. The psychiatrist, however, is a physician who specializes in mental and emotional disorders, while the psychologist is an expert in methods of learning and in mental and educational measurement. The psychiatrist is principally concerned with the more extreme and difficult cases of personality adjustment, which are referred to him by visiting teachers or social workers. After diagnosing a case and prescribing treatment, he usually leaves the work of social readjustment to these other workers. Often, however, he holds conferences with the maladjusted individual in an effort to secure the latter's cooperation and to help him build up a better attitude toward himself and his environment.²⁶

The psychologist, altho often responsible for the complete study and treatment of difficult cases, is especially prepared to discover the learning capacities or disabilities of pupils. He attempts to determine the causes of academic weakness or failure, and makes suggestions for remedial treatment to be carried out by principals, teachers, and social workers.²⁷ Where the psychologist and psychiatrist are working together, as in a guidance clinic, their func-

tions are more clearly differentiated than where only one or the other is available.

Educational-vocational counselors and deans—The work of educational and vocational counselors tends to be more specialized than that of deans, but their duties are often quite similar. Usually no sharp distinction is drawn between educational and vocational counseling, and the same counselor gives both kinds of guidance. He studies the interests, capacities, and achievements of pupils and helps them to make wise choices among educational and vocational opportunities. He sometimes makes surveys of occupational opportunities, helps pupils to obtain jobs, and makes follow-up studies of success and failure among graduates and others who have left school. If no deans are employed in the school system, the educational-vocational counselor is often concerned also with other phases of the pupils' personal adjustment.²⁸

The dean of boys or of girls has perhaps a wider range of duties than any other counselor. He is usually responsible for the general welfare of all pupils of the same sex in a particular school. He supervises social activities and often helps to plan and coordinate the entire extracurriculum program. He also assists in the adjustment of individual behavior problems, and spends much time interviewing pupils, parents, and teachers. Like the visiting teacher or social worker, he refers the more difficult problems to specialists who are better equipped to deal with them. In systems which have no special educational or vocational counselors, the dean's work includes these types of guidance also. In short, he must be ready to assist with any personal problem which may arise among the pupils of his school, whether

²⁵ For further information concerning the work of attendance officers see: Detroit, Department of Attendance, Census and Employment Permits. *Reference and Procedure*. Detroit: Board of Education, 1929. 72 p. ¶ National League of Compulsory Education Officials. *Proceedings of annual conventions*. New York: Bureau of Compulsory Education, School Census, and Child Welfare. *Manual of Instructions for Attendance Officers*. New York: Board of Education, 1927. 76 p.

²⁶ For a relatively non-technical discussion of the work of psychiatrists, see: *Psychiatric Examination of a Child*. New York: National Committee for Mental Hygiene, 1926. 7 p. Also consult issues of the periodical, *Mental Hygiene*.

²⁷ For further information on the work of psychologists, see: Hildreth, Gertrude H. *Psychological Service for School Problems*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1930. 317 p. ¶ Hull, Clark L. *Aptitude Testing*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1928. 536 p. ¶ Pintner, Rudolf. *Intelligence Testing: Methods and Results*. New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1931. 555 p. ¶ Watson, Goodwin, and Spence, R. B. *Educational Problems for Psychological Study*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1930. 352 p. ¶ Wells, F. L. *Mental Tests in Clinical Practice*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1930. 317 p.

²⁸ Useful references on the work of educational and vocational counselors are: Edgerton, A. H. *Vocational Guidance and Counseling*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1926. 213 p. ¶ Jones, Arthur J. *Principles of Guidance*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1930. 385 p. ¶ Myers, George E. *The Problem of Vocational Guidance*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1927. 311 p. ¶ Proctor, William Martin. *Educational and Vocational Guidance*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1925. 352 p. ¶ Reavis, William Claude. *Pupil Adjustment In Junior and Senior High Schools*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1926. 348 p. ¶ See also files of *Vocational Guidance Magazine*.

it be social, educational, or vocational in nature.²⁹

Health officers—The school health department, in addition to caring for the general health of pupils, may play an important part in the program of individual guidance. Problems of behavior are not infrequently due in part to physical disorders which can be corrected by proper medical treatment. In such cases the school nurse serves as liaison officer between the school, the home, and the physician in charge. She confers with all persons concerned regarding the condition and needs of the child, and recommends readjustments in the child's environment which will help to correct his disability or to mitigate its unwholesome influence upon his attitude and conduct.³⁰

Achievements and limitations of specialists—There is no doubt that well-trained specialists can help a great deal in the diagnosis and treatment of behavior problems. On the other hand, present knowledge is not sufficient to assure complete success in all cases. Some forms of maladjustment continue to baffle even the most capable experts, while other forms yield only partially to treatment. Much depends upon how complex and deep-seated the maladjustment is, and upon the extent to which all persons concerned cooperate to modify the factors which have caused it.

Greene³¹ obtained reports as to the subsequent adjustment of 110 high-school girls in New York City who had received psychiatric treatment. Of this group, 68 percent were reported as readjusted with respect to the problem or combination of problems for which they had received treatment, whereas 32 percent were not so readjusted.

Lee and others³² made an appraisal of results in 196 cases selected at random from the 591 children who had received clinical treatment at the Bureau of Children's Guidance, a division of the Commonwealth Fund. The general results were as follows:

	Number	Percent
Success	93	48
Partial success	61	31
Failure	42	21

In view of the limitations of even the best specialists, it is important to guard against the employment of poorly trained workers who claim to be specialists. Superficial methods in child guidance are a waste of time, and incompetent counselors may do real harm both to the child in need of guidance and to the whole guidance movement. One specialist writes:

... the mere establishment of a clinic does not guarantee adequate service. In fact, there is a very real danger that with untrained people, the treatment may descend unwittingly to the level of pernicious meddling, which is already sufficiently widespread and has produced entirely justifiable adverse criticism. It is to be hoped that as time goes on, there will be available more and more adequately trained people and that the information at their disposal will be more and more scientifically grounded.³³

Organization of the School Guidance Program

The school organization for providing individual guidance varies widely in different systems and in different individual schools. Many, of course, have no clear-cut guidance program. Some provide only for certain phases of guidance. Others provide for all phases but lack effective coordination of the persons and agen-

²⁹ Further information on the work of deans is available in: Johnson, Mary H. *The Dean in the High School*. New York: Professional and Technical Press, 1929. 366 p. ¶ Merrill, Ruth A., and Bragdon, Helen D. *The Vocation of Dean*. Washington, D. C.: National Association of Deans of Women, 1926. 48 p. ¶ Sturtevant, Sarah M. "The Dean of Girls in the Secondary School." *School and Society* 27: 62-67; January 21, 1928. ¶ Sturtevant, Sarah M., and Hayes, Harriet. *Deans at Work*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1930. 295 p. ¶ Sturtevant, Sarah M., and Strang, Ruth. *A Personnel Study of Deans of Girls in High Schools*. Contributions to Education, No. 393. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929. 150 p. ¶ See also, *Yearbooks of the National Association of Deans of Women*, Washington, D. C.

³⁰ For additional information bearing on the work of school health officers, see: Chayer, Mary Ella. *School Nursing*. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1931. 292 p. ¶ National Organization for Public Health Nursing. *Manual of Public Health Nursing*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1930. 127 p. ¶ U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education. *Health for School Children*. (School Health Studies 1.) Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1927. 74 p. ¶ Wood, Thomas D., and Rowell, H. G. *Health Supervision and Medical Inspection of Schools*. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Co., 1927. 637 p.

³¹ Greene, Elizabeth. "Results of Five Years' Psychiatric Work in New York City High Schools." *Mental Hygiene* 11: 542-57; July, 1927.

³² Lee, Porter R.; Kenworthy, Marion E.; and others. *Mental Hygiene and Social Work*. New York: Division of Publications, Commonwealth Fund, 1929. p. 140-54.

³³ Tiebout, Harry M. "Danger Points in Child Guidance Clinic Work." *Journal of Educational Sociology* 4: 508-16; April, 1931.

cies involved. A few systems have carefully planned and coordinated programs, but the general tendency has been to develop various branches of guidance service separately as the need for them was recognized. The result has often been a lack of centralized control, and considerable duplication of effort among the several types of guidance workers.

Principles of organization—The Tenth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence suggests seven tentative principles for the organization of counseling service, as follows:

1. In a good counseling program, the primary consideration is the greatest present and future good of the counsellee which is consistent with the welfare of the school and society as a whole. Every other factor in the situation, including the observance of mass standards and requirements, the desire of a particular agent or agency for prestige, and the comfort and convenience of the worker, should be subordinated to the welfare of the child.

2. In a good counseling program, the basis of action in any individual case is all the facts of every type bearing on the case, or at least as many of them as can be secured.

3. A good counseling program, regardless of the size of the school or city, provides for all phases of individual study and adjustment—including physical, mental, emotional, social, educational, and vocational analysis and treatment.

4. A good counseling program provides for using every classroom teacher, as far as may be, as a student of the needs and problems of the individual pupils under his care.

5. A good counseling program provides for some specialization on the part of the professional counselors concerned, in order that diagnoses and treatments may be founded most surely upon unquestioned facts and upon theories of child study accepted by the leaders in each field.

6. A good counseling program utilizes as many sources of information about each case as are needed, but, in order to integrate the program around the child, employs only one or at most very few agents in the actual conduct of the treatment of any one child.

7. A good counseling program is unified and coordinated under one person. In the small system, this may be the superintendent himself. In the medium-sized system, an assistant superintendent or supervisor may be assigned this task in addition to his other duties. In the large system, the importance of the activity of individual counseling warrants the assignment of a staff officer to this function as his sole responsibility.³⁴

Types of organization—The National Survey of Secondary Education revealed four general types of guidance organization in school systems: (1) a centralized guidance bureau in a city system, without any special organization for guidance in individual schools; (2) a central guidance bureau for the system as a whole, with each school having its own organization for guidance; (3) a centralized guidance department, composed largely of trained specialists, within the individual school; and (4) a guidance organization within the individual school utilizing regular school officers and teachers as functionaries.³⁵ The form of organization best suited to a particular school system will depend considerably upon the size and financial resources of the system. In general, however, there should probably be some organization for guidance in each school, and if the system is large enough and can afford it, a central bureau whose function is to supervise the guidance activities in the several schools and to provide certain specialized services not available within each individual school.

Guidance in the individual school—The small school may have to depend almost entirely upon the teachers and principal for carrying on its program of guidance. Larger schools vary somewhat in the use which they make of teachers and administrative assistants. Figure I (p. 126) shows a scheme in which such workers are integral parts. Figure II represents the guidance program of a school in which a central bureau of trained specialists is given primary responsibility for guidance, altho teachers, parents, and pupils are also encouraged to exercise initiative.

If a school can have only one full-time counselor, he will need to combine the functions of visiting teacher, educational and vocational counselor, dean, and psychologist. If there can be several full-time workers, however, a question arises as to the degree of specialization which should be provided. Each worker may be made responsible for all phases of counseling with a limited group of pupils, or for only one phase of counseling with all pupils. Each of these plans has advantages. The former assures a unified approach to each case of maladjustment, and guards against confusing the pupil

³⁴ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. Tenth Yearbook, p. 246-47.

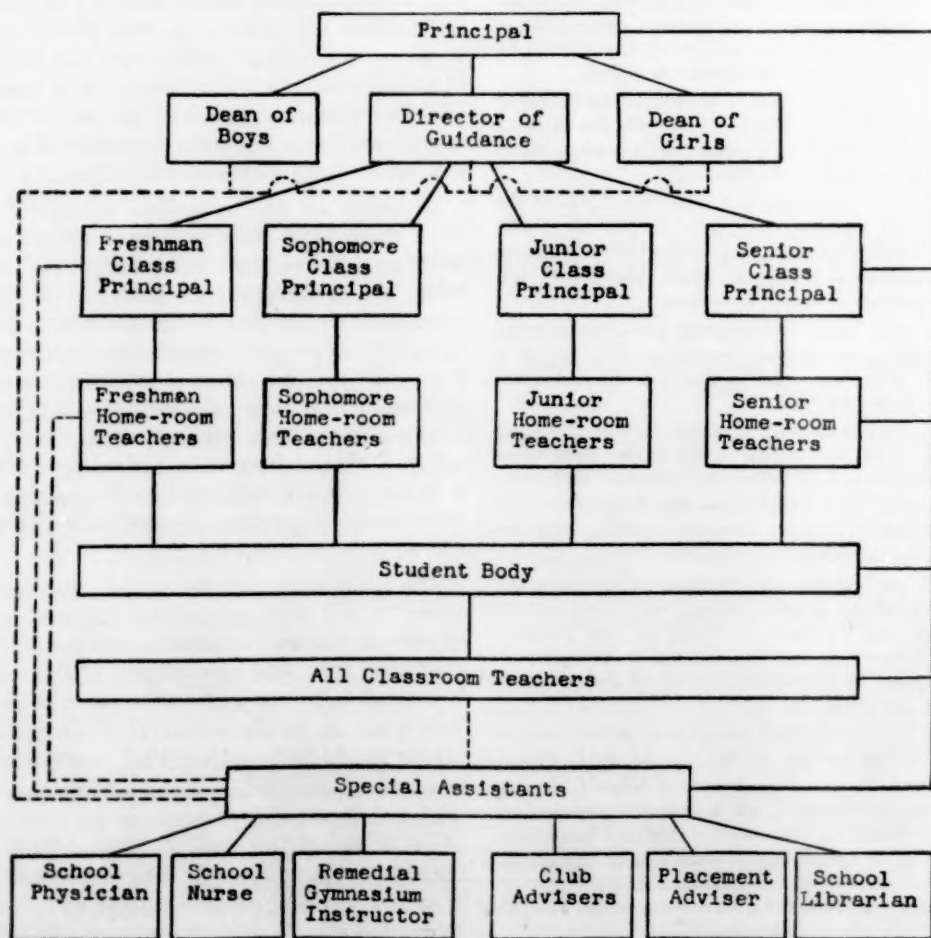
³⁵ Reavis, William C. *Programs of Guidance*. U. S. Department of Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin, 1932, No. 17. (National Survey of Secondary Education, Monograph No. 14.) Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1933, 144 p.

by having too many different persons deal with him directly. The latter plan makes possible a higher degree of specialized knowledge and skill on the part of each counselor. If the first plan is used, the school counselors may need to obtain assistance frequently from the central guidance department of the school system. If the second plan is followed, care must be taken to coordinate the work of the several specialists within the school. Every pupil should have one person to whom he can always go when in trouble, and to whom he will invari-

ably be referred first if his regular teachers are unable to handle his problems.

The central guidance bureau of the school system—Many school systems cannot provide more than one trained counselor, with perhaps one or two assistants, for the entire system. In larger cities where the central guidance bureau can be more adequately staffed, the problem of organization becomes important. While no single form of organization can be said to be definitely superior for all such systems, Figure III shows a proposed plan which would pro-

FIGURE I.—ORGANIZATION OF PERSONNEL FOR GUIDANCE IN THORNTON TOWNSHIP HIGH SCHOOL, HARVEY, ILL.



Source: Reavis, William C. *Programs of Guidance*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin, 1932. No. 17. (National Survey of Secondary Education, Monograph No. 14). Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1933. p. 121.

vide both a high degree of specialization and progressive centralization of responsibility.

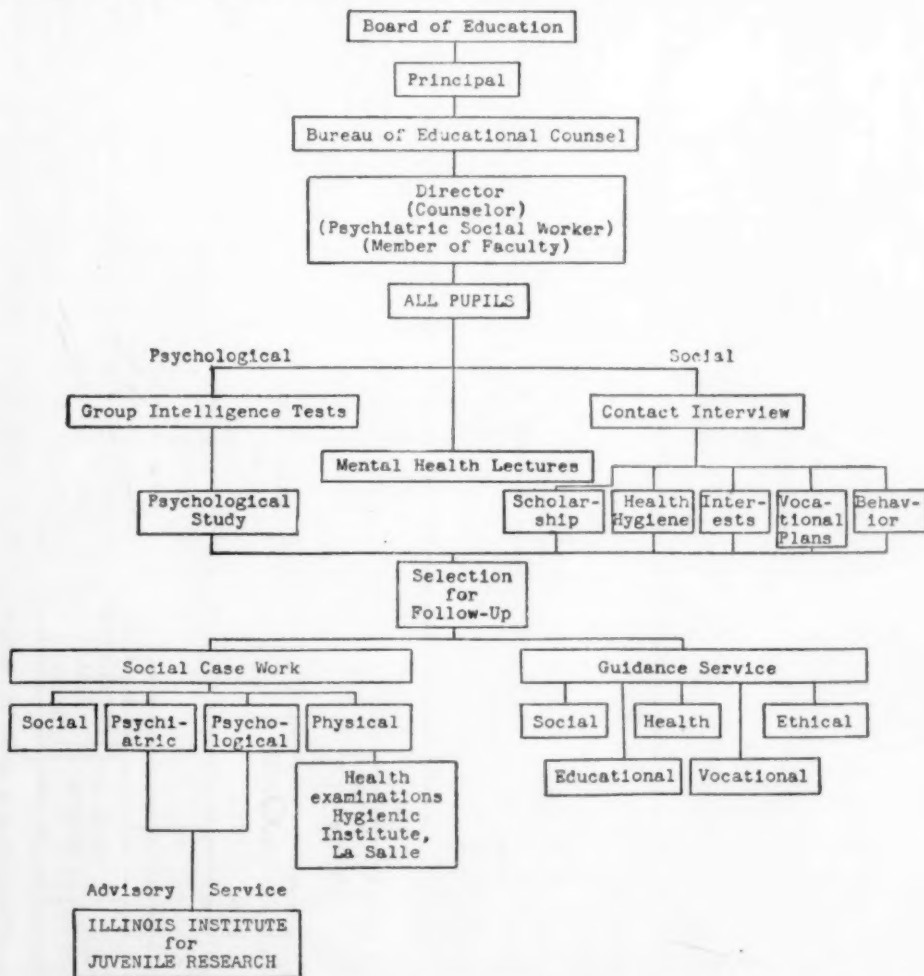
Specialized Service Outside the Schools

Altho a number of school systems now provide some kind of specialized service in connection with their programs of individual guidance, relatively few are adequately staffed for such work. Where the system itself lacks ade-

quate service, it may be able to obtain expert assistance from child-guidance agencies outside the system. Teachers and administrators who are unfamiliar with the types of service available in their own states and communities may obtain such information from local welfare agencies, juvenile court authorities, state departments of education, state welfare boards, or the national organizations³⁶ which are helping to promote the child-guidance movement.

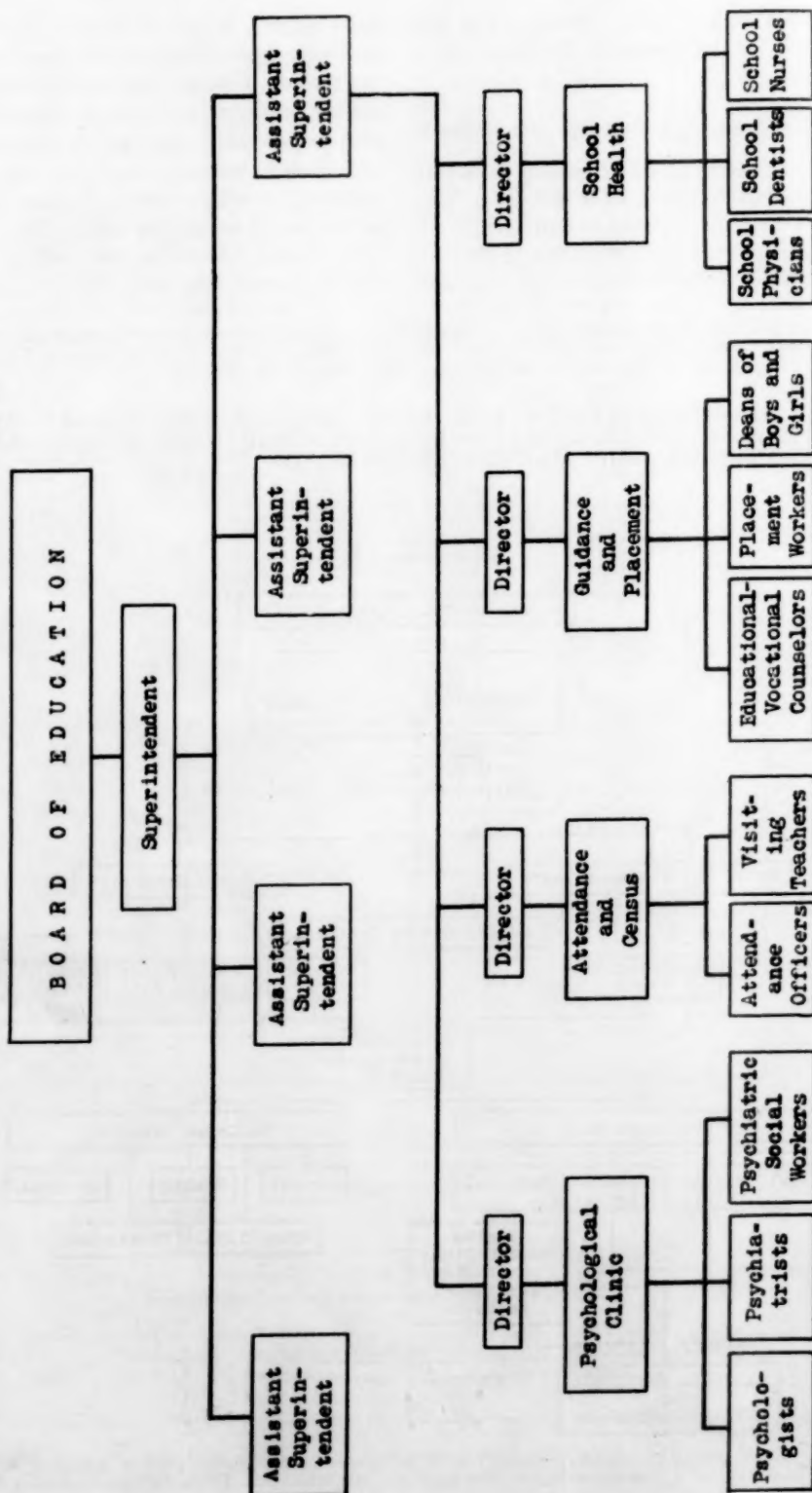
³⁶ Names and addresses of these national groups are as follows: American Psychiatric Association (Austin M. Davies, Executive Assistant) 450 Seventh Avenue, New York, N. Y. ¶ Commonwealth Fund, Division of Publications, 41 East 57th Street, New York, N. Y. ¶ National Committee for Mental Hygiene, 450 Seventh Avenue, New York, N. Y.

FIGURE II.—ORGANIZATION AND FUNCTIONS OF THE BUREAU OF EDUCATIONAL COUNSEL, LASALLE-PERU TOWNSHIP HIGH SCHOOL AND LASALLE-PERU-OGLESBY JUNIOR COLLEGE, ILL.



Source: Reavis, William C. *Programs of Guidance*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education. Bulletin, 1932, No. 17. (National Survey of Secondary Education, Monograph No. 14). Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1933, p. 128.

FIGURE III.—PROPOSED ORGANIZATION OF A CENTRAL BUREAU OR DEPARTMENT OF GUIDANCE FOR A LARGE SCHOOL SYSTEM



Source: National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, *Character Education*, Tenth Yearbook: Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1932, p. 248.

Public
ported ps
scribed br
Clinics in
the latest
there wer
fifty of
for child
siderable
ity of ser
than two
psychiat
social w
Comm
mon. A
150,000
in 193
with o
or rec
one ca
Haver
ing th
while
giene
In B
under
natin
or
wealth
ss
others
A Mo
March
(now
May,
memb

Public clinics—Municipal and state-supported psychiatric clinics are listed and described briefly in the *Directory of Psychiatric Clinics in the United States*.³⁷ In July, 1931, the latest date for which figures are available, there were 674 such clinics, and all but about fifty of them were providing guidance service for children. Altho there is undoubtedly considerable variation in the size of staff and quality of service maintained by these clinics, more than two hundred of them employ at least a psychiatrist, a psychologist, and a psychiatric social worker.³⁸

Community clinics are by far the most common. Approximately 60 percent of all cities of 150,000 population or over had such clinics in 1931.³⁹ Smaller cities sometimes cooperate with one another in the organization of clinics, or receive assistance from outside sources. In one case Waterbury, Bridgeport, and New Haven, Connecticut, are reported as furnishing their own psychological and social service, while the Connecticut Society for Mental Hygiene supplies them with psychiatric service.⁴⁰ In Berkeley, California, the clinic operates under the auspices of the Berkeley Coordinating Council for Child Welfare, which con-

sists of representatives of the police, health, and welfare departments, and of the public school system. Each of these agencies contributes to the financial support of the clinical staff, which works under the direct supervision of the school authorities.⁴¹

The service of state-supported clinics varies in different states. In some states it consists of out-patient service in connection with institutions for mental illness. In others the state universities or special state bureaus provide facilities for examination and treatment. In California, Colorado, Connecticut, Delaware, Illinois, and Massachusetts, traveling clinics visit communities in various parts of the state at intervals during the year.

Private service—In addition to the publicly supported agencies, there are numerous private clinics and individual practitioners in the field of child guidance. The range in ability and training among such workers is probably even greater than among those in public agencies. It is usually advisable to obtain information as to the standing of private organizations or individuals from a reliable source, such as the American Psychiatric Association or the National Committee for Mental Hygiene.⁴²

³⁷ Commonwealth Fund. *Directory of Psychiatric Clinics in the United States*. New York: Division of Publications, Commonwealth Fund, 1932. 160 p.

³⁸ For further discussion of the work and organization of psychiatric clinics, see: Lee, Porter R.; Kenworthy, Marion E.; and others. *Mental Hygiene and Social Work*. New York: Division of Publications, Commonwealth Fund, 1929. 309 p. ¶ Sapir, Jean. *A Morning in the Clinic*. Springfield, Ill.: State Department of Public Welfare, 1928. 14 p. Reprinted from *Welfare Magazine*, March, 1927. ¶ Sayles, Mary B. *Three Problem Children*. New York: Joint Committee on Methods of Preventing Delinquency (now Commonwealth Fund), 1924. 146 p. ¶ Tiebout, Harry M. "Child Guidance Clinics." *Religious Education* 25: 401-06; May, 1930.

³⁹ Shultz, G. D. "Your Community Can Have a Child-Guidance Clinic." *Better Homes and Gardens* 10: 20, 50, 52; November, 1931.

⁴⁰ Shultz, G. D., *op. cit.*

⁴¹ Dickson, Virgil E. "Berkeley Coordinating Council." *Mental Hygiene* 13: 514-19; July, 1929.

⁴² For addresses see footnote 36 on page 127.

EDUCATION does not mean teaching people what they do not know. It means teaching them to behave as they do not behave. It is not teaching the youth the shapes of letters and the tricks of numbers and then leaving them to turn their arithmetic to roguery, and their literature to lust. It means, on the contrary, training them into the perfect exercise and kindly continence of their bodies and souls. It is a painful, continual, and difficult work, to be done by kindness, by watching, by warning, by precept, and by praise, but above all—by example.—John Ruskin.

IV. Building Character thru School and Classroom Administration

Earlier sections of this bulletin have dealt with various principles and procedures for increasing the contribution of the school to the development of good character and wholesome personality in children. Principles of curriculum building, general methods of teaching, special periods for emphasizing character, out-of-class activities, and individual guidance and counseling have been discussed in some detail. Several other important factors have thus far been omitted or mentioned only incidentally. Some of these are matters of organizing and administering the school system as a whole. Some are largely matters of administration within the individual school. Others, altho subject to regulation by the school administration, are primarily matters of classroom management. This section deals briefly with some of the most important of these factors. Its major emphasis is upon the administrative aspects of education for character, but wherever these affect classroom procedure directly they are considered from the teacher's as well as the administrator's point of view.

The Function of School Administration in Character Building

The fact that administrative officers have less direct contact with the pupils than do teachers does not mean that they exert less influence. An administrative policy may affect profoundly the lives of many pupils whom the schoolboard or superintendent has never seen. The effectiveness of the school system in building desirable character depends not only upon the right kind of pupil-teacher relationships, but also upon the wise planning and harmonious adjustment of all parts of the system. This is the function and the responsibility of school administration. The way in which the administration meets this responsibility determines in large measure the success or failure of the school as a character-building institution.¹

¹ Other concise discussions of school organization and administration in relation to character education are found in the following: Heaton, Kenneth L. *The Character Emphasis in Education*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933. p. 339-57. ¶ National Education Association, Department of Classroom Teachers, *The Classroom Teacher and Character Education*. Seventh Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1932. p. 200-18. ¶ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, *Character Education*. Tenth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1932. p. 291-314.

² For discussion and additional references on the qualifications and responsibilities of schoolboard members, see: Almack, John C. *The School Board Member*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1927. 281 p. ¶ National Education Association, Research Division. "The School Board Member." *Research Bulletin* 11: 1-40; January, 1933. ¶ Also consult the files of such periodicals as the *American School Board Journal*, *Nation's Schools*, and *School Executives Magazine*.

Influence of the Schoolboard

The influence of school administration begins with the board of education. The policies of the board are the foundation stones of the school program. In the last analysis they determine whether or not character building is the dominant aim of the school, and whether the total school environment is favorable or unfavorable to the achievement of this aim. The kind of personnel employed, the general organization of the school system, the administration of the school plant, and the school's relation to outside agencies are all conditioned by the viewpoint and ability of schoolboard members. However earnest and intelligent the efforts of the superintendent and his staff may be, they are like a house built upon sand without wise supporting policies laid down by the board. Thus a school program of education for character rests ultimately upon the selection of competent and conscientious board members—persons who have a sound philosophy of education, the ability to translate this philosophy into wise policies, and the courage to support these policies in the face of opposition.²

Board members, of course, are at once the representatives and the leaders of the people who select them. As representatives they are expected to reflect the ideals and aspirations of the community. As leaders they are expected to interpret these ideals in terms of general policies and plans for the operation of the school system. A schoolboard cannot afford to adopt policies, no matter how desirable these may be educationally, which a majority of its constituents do not want or cannot understand. It can and should, however, take steps to educate the people in regard to all progressive measures which it proposes to adopt.

Character of the School Personnel

Administrative and supervisory officers—

Students of school administration agree that the welfare of the school system is best served when the board of education confines itself to the performance of legislative and judicial functions, and delegates the actual administration of schools to officers appointed for that purpose. Chief among such officers is the superintendent of schools.³ Upon him rests the responsibility of translating the board's policies into effective action, and of professionally advising the board in the formulation of its policies. The effectiveness and value of the entire school program depend so much upon the superintendent that his appointment is considered by some authorities as the most important personnel function of the board.⁴ The board can contribute most to a program of education for character by appointing a competent superintendent who believes in such a program, and by giving him authority and responsibility for obtaining good results.

School principals and other supervisory officers influence the character development of pupils in three important ways: (1) they aid the superintendent in developing appropriate plans of administration and instruction; (2) they interpret these plans to the teachers and help to put them into practice in the schools; and (3) they impress pupils to some extent directly thru personal contact with them. By selecting principals and supervisors of first-rate ability and character, the superintendent makes a contribution to character education which is second in importance only to the selection of good teachers.⁵

*Classroom teachers—*The teacher's direct and continuous contact with pupils makes him the most important member of the school staff from the viewpoint of character building.⁶ Not merely what the teacher says, but principally what he does and what he is, may influence immeasurably the pupils' ideals and modes of conduct. Most children, especially at the younger ages, do not think of good conduct in abstract terms so much as in terms of certain individuals who act in this or that manner under given conditions. Such generalizations as "honesty," "helpfulness," and "self-control" are more significant and stimulating to a child when he sees them illustrated in the lives of persons whom he respects and admires. Thus the appointment and retention of teachers who are strong in the fundamental aspects of character, as well as skilled in the technics of teaching, are among the most important functions of the school administration.⁷

The administration, however, is not wholly responsible for the character and success of the teaching staff. To be most effective as builders of character, teachers must constantly strive to improve their work thru careful study of educational theory and of practical school problems. They must keep in close touch with community life and develop a broad understanding of the changing social scene.

Unfortunately, there are not yet enough teachers with all of these qualifications to meet the needs of our schools. Nor are there likely to be enough until standards for admission to the profession are considerably raised, until institutions for the preparation of teachers discover how to do their work still better, and

³ Among recent publications dealing with the qualifications and functions of the superintendent of schools are the following: National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. *Educational Leadership*. Eleventh Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1933. 528 p. ¶ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. *Critical Problems in School Administration*. Twelfth Yearbook. Washington, D. C., the Association, 1934. 383 p.

⁴ See: National Education Association, Research Division. "The School Board Member," *Research Bulletin* 11: 27-29; January, 1933.

⁵ For further discussion of the qualifications and responsibilities of school principals, see such references as: National Education Association, Department of Elementary School Principals. *The Elementary School Principalship*. Seventh Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1928. 638 p. ¶ National Education Association, Research Division. "The Principal and Progressive Movements in Education," and "The Principal at Work on His Problems," *Research Bulletin* 7: 47-102, March, 1929; and 9: 95-158, March, 1931.

⁶ See: National Education Association, Department of Classroom Teachers. Seventh Yearbook, p. 65-67. ¶ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. Tenth Yearbook, p. 277-90.

⁷ For discussion and additional references on the selection, retention, and improvement of teachers, see: National Education Association, Research Division. "Administrative Practices Affecting Classroom Teachers. Part I: The Selection and Appointment of Teachers; Part II: The Retention, Promotion, and Improvement of Teachers," *Research Bulletin* 10: 1-32, 33-76; January and March, 1932.

until the economic status of teaching is raised to a level similar to those enjoyed by other important professions.

Non-professional employees—Since pupils often come in contact with certain non-professional employees of the school, it is essential that the character of such workers be above reproach. Their language and personal habits should be such as to supplement rather than to counteract the character-building efforts of the professional staff. The appointment of clerks and custodians on a political or other basis unrelated to merit is to be condemned as a serious handicap to a program of education for character.

Contribution of School Organization

General aspects of organization—The influence upon pupil character of different types of school organization is not definitely known. Possibly no single comprehensive plan will prove to be the most satisfactory for all school systems. It seems clear, nevertheless, that the traditional types of organization have certain inherent weaknesses which need to be overcome. Recognition of this fact has brought forth the nursery school and the kindergarten,⁸ the junior high school,⁹ and the junior college.¹⁰ The tendency of the old elementary-school organization to perpetuate formalism and lock-step procedures has led to such experiments as the Dalton plan,¹¹ the Winnetka system,¹² the platoon organization,¹³ and the child-centered school.¹⁴ All of these newer arrangements are intended to develop more socially effective personalities in children, as well

as to achieve greater efficiency in teaching necessary knowledge and skills. Some of them have had wider acceptance than others, but all of them have something of value to offer and deserve careful study by administrators and teachers. It is usually unnecessary and sometimes unwise to adopt a new plan in its entirety. It is often possible, however, to modify the existing organization in ways that are both beneficial to children and in harmony with local conditions.

A school organization which contributes significantly to the development of good character must provide children with a large number and variety of life-like experiences. It must also be sufficiently flexible to permit the introduction of new kinds of experience whenever conditions demand it. No form of organization should be thought of as a fixed and unchangeable thing. As life outside the school changes, and as more becomes known about the formation of personality, the school organization will need to change correspondingly.

The ultimate success of any plan depends upon the administrative and teaching personnel thru whom it operates. Without an intelligent, sincere, and energetic staff, no scheme of organization can make much contribution to education for character.

Size of school—The problem of providing conditions favorable to character growth varies somewhat according to the size of the school. In the small school it is often too expensive to organize special classes or to section pupils within each grade. Sometimes the curriculum must be unduly limited, or each teacher must handle too many different classes or subjects. In the large school, on the other hand, the

⁸ See: Hahn, Julia L. *A Critical Evaluation of a Supervisory Program in Kindergarten-Primary Grades*. Contributions to Education, No. 495. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931. p. 1-72. ¶ Hill, Patty Smith, editor, *The Practical Value of Early Childhood Education*. Washington, D. C.: Association for Childhood Education, 1934. 31 p. ¶ National Society for the Study of Education. *Preschool and Parental Education*. Twenty-Eighth Yearbook. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1929. 875 p.

⁹ See: Cox, Philip W. L. *The Junior High School and Its Curriculum*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1929. 474 p. ¶ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. *The Junior High School Curriculum*. Fifth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1927. 562 p. ¶ Proctor, William M., and Ricciardi, Nicholas, editors, *The Junior High School: Its Organization and Administration*. Stanford University, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1930. 324 p.

¹⁰ See: Eells, Walter C. *The Junior College*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1931. 833 p. ¶ Koos, Leonard V. *The Junior College Movement*. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1925. 436 p.

¹¹ See: Parkhurst, Helen. *Education on the Dalton Plan*. New York: E. P. Dutton and Co., 1922. 278 p. ¶ Philadelphia. South Philadelphia High School for Girls. *Educating for Responsibility: The Dalton Laboratory Plan in a Secondary School*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1926. 310 p.

¹² See: Washburne, Carleton. *Adjusting the School to the Child*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1932. 189 p. ¶ Washburne, Carleton. "The Responsibility of the School in a Program of Character Building." *Religious Education* 26: 61-70; January, 1931.

¹³ See: Case, Roscoe D. *The Platoon School in America*. Stanford University, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1931. 283 p. ¶ Spain, Charles L. *The Platoon School*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1924. 262 p.

¹⁴ See: Rugg, Harold, and Shumaker, Ann. *The Child-Centered School*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1928. 359 p.

individual pupil may find adjustment difficult unless special provisions are made for individual guidance and counseling. While no particular size of school can be specified as most favorable to all-round pupil growth, every school should have sufficient enrolment to obtain the highest possible degree of specialization in the school staff and the broadest possible program of pupil activities for the amount of money available.

Class size and teaching load—While the school should be large enough to provide needed facilities economically, the class units within the school should be small enough to permit careful attention to the interests and problems of each individual pupil. When classes are too large, pupil achievement and classroom discipline suffer. The pupils may grow indifferent and lazy, or dissatisfied and discouraged, because the teacher does not have time to help them with their own peculiar difficulties. No teacher can perform the important functions of counselor and guide if he does not know each of his pupils intimately. Many behavior problems as well as many cases of academic deficiency can be prevented or overcome if the teacher is able to study and treat each case individually.¹⁵

The maximum size of class which will permit such study and treatment cannot be stated definitely for all classroom situations. It depends upon a number of factors, such as the personality and skill of the teacher, the nature of the subjectmatter, the methods employed, the size of the room, and the total load of the teacher. All such factors must be considered in determining the size of each class if good character development is to be facilitated. Much harm may result from fixing class size arbitrarily, or on the basis of so-called scientific evidence which is concerned only with efficiency in teaching simple facts and routine skills.¹⁶

One of the contributing factors just mentioned, the total load of the teacher, is far more significant than class size itself. Teaching load includes, in addition to the size and number of classes, the amount and nature of clerical work, the extent of supervision of out-of-class activities, the amount of home visitation, and

other duties which may be required. The school administration is responsible for distributing such work fairly, and for supplying enough teachers so that none will be overburdened. The teacher who has too much to do may become a liability rather than an asset in a program of education for character.

Classification and promotion of pupils—The placement of pupils so that each can work most effectively and achieve the best social adjustment is essential for good character development. Poor classification not only retards the growth of desirable character; it often leads to serious problems of misbehavior which require much time and skill to solve.

The traditional organization, in which all pupils who were not promoted to the next higher grade had to repeat all the work of the same grade, is clearly out of place in a character-building program. Semi-annual promotions, special rooms and classes, and sectioning within grades on the basis of ability are some of the means devised for improving the classification of pupils. No one has measured the total influence of such schemes upon pupil personality, and there is some disagreement as to their merits.¹⁷ Before adopting any such plan, administrators will do well to study it carefully, and perhaps to modify it somewhat in the light of local needs and conditions. In any event, it should be recognized that no plan of classification and promotion will be wholly successful if administered arbitrarily or permitted to operate automatically.

The following suggestions may be useful in re-formulating and administering policies of classification in the light of character objectives:

1. Pupil needs should take precedence over administrative convenience.
2. The system should be flexible enough to permit needed readjustments.
3. Classification should be based upon a combination of several factors, rather than upon a single factor such as intelligence.
4. Classification should not emphasize individual differences to the embarrassment of the less capable children.
5. No plan of classification can take the place of expert individual guidance and counseling.

¹⁵ See "Counseling by Teachers and Principals," p. 121 of this bulletin.

¹⁶ Carr, William G. "New Angle of Attack Needed in Class Size Research." *Nation's Schools* 10: 27-30; November, 1932.

¹⁷ Ability grouping and other methods of providing for individual differences are discussed from the viewpoint of character development in the *Seventh Yearbook of the Department of Classroom Teachers*, p. 181-99.

Special schools and departments—In addition to special classes for children who are mentally or physically atypical, some school systems provide special agencies for handling children who have especially difficult behavior problems. An earlier section of this bulletin has reviewed the work of attendance officers, visiting teachers, deans, educational and vocational counselors, psychological clinics, and health departments.¹⁸ Occasionally these specialized workers or departments find it desirable to remove delinquent or incorrigible children from the regular classrooms and to place them in special schools for observation and treatment. Examples of such schools are the Montefiore and Moseley special schools in Chicago,¹⁹ and the Thomas A. Edison School in Cleveland.²⁰ Ungraded classes for character deviates, such as those in Detroit,²¹ are also being tried out.

These special schools and classes are not institutions for the punishment of offenders. They have the dual purpose of relieving regular schools and classrooms of pupils whose influence upon others is especially detrimental, and of re-educating such pupils under the continuous guidance of experts in personality adjustment.

Organization of the teaching staff—Another factor which may significantly affect pupil personality is the superintendent's policy in organizing his teaching staff. The first requirement of good staff organization is the proper placement of teachers. So far as possible, each teacher should be assigned the type of work which he likes to do and can do best. The second requirement is that the teachers be made responsible for constructively criticizing administrative plans which directly affect their work. If teachers are misplaced in their positions, or if they are subjected to an autocratic type of administration in which they have no voice, inward discontent or rebellion may eventually find an outlet in the classroom. On the other hand, if the staff is organized upon the principles of appropriate specialization and co-operation, the foundation is laid for the best

kind of teacher-pupil relationship and the highest type of character influence in the classroom.

Significance of School Plant Administration

Location of buildings—Education for character in the school is more likely to succeed when conditions outside the school are also favorable. For this reason the location of new school buildings should be given careful consideration. A building should not needlessly be located in the midst of ugly or vicious surroundings. The school's work is impeded if the immediate neighborhood constantly permits or encourages pupils to practise undesirable habits.

It is especially important to locate a school building where plenty of play space is available. Freedom to play out-of-doors without undue crowding is essential to the all-round development of children. The necessary space cannot always be obtained economically unless the school administration develops a comprehensive building program many years in advance of actual needs.

Design of buildings—The contribution of building design lies in the utility, comfort, and beauty which it provides. A building whose design bears little relation to the aims and activities of the school program necessarily hampers pupil achievement. Children who must work in rooms which are too small or poorly lighted, heated, and ventilated, are handicapped morally as well as physically and mentally. Ugliness in a building may have undesirable effects upon pupil morale and esthetic taste. School-building design is a problem requiring the attention of both the educational expert and the architectural artist. Its influence upon character has never been measured, but there is reason to believe that this influence is considerable.

Appearance of buildings and grounds—The appearance of classrooms, offices, corridors, and school grounds undoubtedly helps to form children's standards of neatness and beauty. Sharing responsibility for keeping the school

¹⁸ See "Specialists as Counselors," p. 122 of this bulletin.

¹⁹ See: Stullken, Edward H. "Character Education in Special Schools." *Character Education*. Sixth Yearbook, Chicago Principals' Club. Chicago: the Club, 1931. p. 205-11.

²⁰ See: Cleveland, Ohio. *The Special Schools and Curriculum Centers*. Report of the Superintendent of Schools to the Board of Education, 1929-30. Cleveland: Board of Education, 1931. p. 71-85.

²¹ See: Detroit, Michigan. *Eighty-Seventh Annual Report of the Detroit Public Schools*. Detroit: Board of Education, 1930. p. 76-77.

plant clean and in good condition may contribute to children's respect for public property. If this procedure is to be useful, however, it must be accompanied by proportionate responsibility on the part of teachers and custodians.²²

Management of School and Classroom

Pupil control and discipline—To some teachers and principals the term "discipline" still means merely keeping order among the pupils by almost any convenient method. Arbitrary rules are made, and punishments are administered for all infractions of these rules, without regard to the underlying causes of the infractions or the ultimate effect of the punishment upon the pupil. Such a conception of school discipline is definitely inimical to desirable character growth. Most cases of misbehavior are matters for individual guidance and counseling, and should be treated in the light of all related factors. The aim of such treatment is the improvement rather than the repression of the guilty child. A number of general principles for handling persistent behavior problems have been reviewed in an earlier section.²³

This viewpoint does not imply that there is no place for rules of conduct or for punishment in a well-managed school or classroom. Such methods are necessary and helpful under certain conditions. In general, however, they may best be considered as relatively minor phases of the school's total program for maintaining good discipline. Certain general suggestions for the maintenance of pupil control are as follows:²⁴

1. The best method of developing responsibility in children is to give them responsibility.
2. The major emphasis should be placed on *doing* good rather than on *being* good.
3. It is only fair to assume that the pupil is honest and truthful until it is proved otherwise.

4. Success and achievement should be the keynote in all pupil activities.

5. Teachers and administrators should respect the individuality of pupils, extending to them the same courtesy and thoughtfulness that is expected in return.

School administrators generally have been experimenting with plans for giving pupils practise in self-control and self-government under wise guidance. The general conviction is that such a plan, if wisely conceived and intelligently operated as a joint enterprise of pupils and faculty, can make a significant contribution to constructive school control. Pupil participation in school government has already been discussed in this bulletin as a type of out-of-class activity.²⁵

Among the disciplinary practises which are likely to hinder good character development are the excessive use of threats, a militaristic type of control, the assignment of low marks in academic subjects as punishment for undesirable conduct, partiality or inconsistency in handling problems of conduct, an excessive number of rules and laxity in their enforcement, the encouragement of tale-bearing, low standards of conduct, and punishment which is out of proportion to the offense or which ignores the temperament of the pupil.

In deciding when and how to punish a pupil, the teacher or principal should consider primarily the probable effect of the punishment upon the future behavior of that pupil, and only secondarily its probable effect upon the conduct of the rest of the class. Every effort should be made to apply disciplinary measures without producing feelings of bitterness and injustice, which so often form the basis for more serious misconduct in the future. Teachers and administrators should have a few definite but flexible policies with regard to discipline, and should make sure that pupils and parents alike understand these policies.²⁶

²² For further discussion of the various problems of administering the school plant, see: Donovan, John J., and others. *School Architecture*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1921. 724 p. ¶ Engelhardt, N. L. *Standards for Junior High School Buildings*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University 1932. 161 p. ¶ Engelhardt, N. L., and Engelhardt, Fred. *Planning School Building Programs*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930. 574 p. ¶ Reeves, Charles E., and Ganders, Harry S. *School Building Management*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928. 395 p. ¶ Spain, Charles L., Moehlman, Arthur B., and Frostic, Fred W. *The Public Elementary School Plant*. New York: Rand McNally and Co., 1930. 602 p. ¶ Strayer, George D., and Engelhardt, N. L. *Standards for Elementary School Buildings*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933. 181 p.

²³ See "Suggestions for Diagnosis and Treatment," p. 120 of this bulletin.

²⁴ National Education Association, Department of Classroom Teachers. Seventh Yearbook, p. 210.

²⁵ See p. 115 of this bulletin.

²⁶ For further discussion of school and classroom discipline, see: Mary Jutta, Sister. *School Discipline and Character*. Milwaukee, Wis.: Bruce Publishing Co., 1930. 324 p. ¶ Sears, Jesse B. *Classroom Organization and Control*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1928. p. 66-98.

School marks, contests, and awards—One of the school's most difficult problems, from the viewpoint of character development, is that of motivating school work by means of marks and other awards. The difficulty lies in the fact that excessive competition for individual honors works in direct opposition to the objective of developing cooperation and mutual helpfulness among children. In many schools it is still considered a disgrace to receive low marks, while the recipients of high marks are lauded for their superior ability or effort. This attitude naturally causes many pupils to attach undue importance to the marks themselves, and to strive for high ones by fair or unfair means. Even if dishonest practises are not resorted to, self-centeredness is often encouraged by undue effort to achieve superiority over others. The same dangers are present in most contests in which awards are given for individual superiority.

The foregoing is not intended as a sweeping indictment of all contests and awards in the schools. The desire to excel one's fellows is natural, and within reasonable limits it may be a wholesome source of motivation for school achievement. When used as the chief means of motivation, however, it is likely to produce undesirable qualities of character along with desirable qualities. Some schools are attempting to solve this problem by marking pupils according to only two or three general levels of achievement, by encouraging them to surpass their own previous records rather than the records of their classmates, and by giving marks in school citizenship or in various attributes of character²⁷ as well as in school subjects. Very few schools have eliminated school marks entirely.

In awarding honors or prizes, care should be taken to emphasize service to the school and community as well as individual accomplishment. If tangible prizes are given, they should be mere symbols of accomplishment and should have little, if any, intrinsic value.²⁸

Testing the effectiveness of learning—The dangers involved in the use of school marks and other awards do not imply that no special effort need be made to measure accurately the results of teaching. Measurement of achievement and reward for achievement are essentially different things. Measurement is necessary to inform teachers and pupils of the extent to which the objectives of school work have been attained, and to reveal the specific weaknesses which need remedial attention. A knowledge of where one is succeeding and where one is failing is a prime requisite for economical learning and good mental health. Moreover, the failure of a school to require of pupils a high standard of achievement tends to make them satisfied with doing less than their best in the activities of life outside the school. A carefully planned program of testing, therefore, is essential to the attainment of the school's highest purposes.²⁹

Within the last twenty-five years much progress has been made in developing valid and reliable testing technics. A pupil's knowledge of mechanics in the manipulation of language and number, and his knowledge of specific facts in a wide range of subjectmatter, can now be measured satisfactorily. Tests have been devised also for measuring other and more important results of schooling, such as the power of organizing and interpreting facts, the appreciation of various forms of art, and many other aspects of personality and character. In these fields, however, testing is still largely in the experimental stage. Promising beginnings have been made, but much remains to be done before teachers in their classrooms can measure such abilities and tendencies with the same validity as in spelling, arithmetic, reading, grammar, and factual information in general. This is not to say that a test should not be used until it has passed the experimental stage. No progress is possible without experiment, and some insight into pupil personality

²⁷ See the references on informal character rating mentioned on p. 108 of this bulletin, footnote 36.

²⁸ For further discussion of school marks and other means of motivating school work, see such references as: Breed, Frederick S. *Classroom Organization and Management*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1933. p. 338-65. ¶ Douglass, Earl R. *Organization and Administration of Secondary Schools*. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1932. p. 313-40. ¶ Sears, Jesse B. *Classroom Organization and Control*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1928. p. 99-120.

²⁹ For further general discussion of the purposes and technics of measurement, see such references as: Holley, Charles E. *Modern Principles and the Elementary Teacher's Technique*. New York: Century Co., 1928. p. 216-38. ¶ Monroe, Walter S. *Directing Learning in the High School*. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Page and Co., 1927. p. 473-538. ¶ Morrison, Henry C. *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1931. p. 63-80. ¶ Parker, Samuel C. *Methods of Teaching in High Schools*. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1920. p. 492-511. ¶ Reagan, G. W. *Fundamentals of Teaching*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1932. p. 215-58.

may be obtained from relatively imperfect measures. On the other hand, great caution must be exercised in the interpretation of test results, and the results should not be given to persons who are likely to misinterpret them. To permit test results to stamp a child's capacities as poor beyond hope of improvement or superior beyond the possibility of failure may cause serious maladjustments of personality and subsequent behavior problems. It is likewise dangerous to assume that a given test measures a certain kind of ability or achievement when there is little or no scientific evidence to support such an assumption.⁸⁰

Pupil accounting—Pupil accounting in a program of education for character includes much more than keeping records of each child's name, address, age, attendance, and school marks. Important as these items are, they constitute only a small part of an adequate system of records. An earlier section of this bulletin has outlined the types of information which should be considered in the study and treatment of individual behavior problems.⁸¹ Much of this information is useful also in preventing maladjustments and in helping all pupils to make the most of their school opportunities. A good system of child accounting, therefore, will provide for specific records with regard to a variety of factors in the child's school experience, measures of his capacity and achievement, the status of his home and his family relationships, his physical condition and health habits, his personal interests and peculiarities, and his friends and associates. The collection of such information should be begun when the child enters school, and should be continued thruout his school career. Unless a continuing and permanent record is maintained, many items may not be available when needed, or may be obtainable only by the expenditure of undue time and effort. Without such data for each pupil, the school cannot expect to achieve

its maximum influence in the development of pupil personality.⁸²

No set of records is worth keeping, of course, unless it is used wisely. The purpose of records is to promote pupil progress. They must not be allowed to interfere with such progress by creating fixed ideas as to what a child can or cannot accomplish. All personal information concerning pupils should be kept confidential. It should be revealed to no one who is not concerned in the guidance of the pupils involved. Teachers and principals must be able to interpret such information intelligently, and to use it without prejudice for the welfare of each child.

Relation of the School to Outside Agencies

Home and school cooperation—When life in this country was largely rural and relatively unspecialized, character education was centered in the home. Today, in a complex and highly industrialized society, the home has found it necessary to delegate some of its educational responsibilities to other agencies, especially the school. In spite of this shift, the home is still one of the most important environmental influences in the formation of personality and character.⁸³ It cannot disclaim all responsibility for the training of children, and any other single agency which attempts to assume all or most of this responsibility is undertaking the impossible. It is essential, therefore, that there be close cooperation between the school and the home if the character-building efforts of either one are to be notably successful.

In this cooperative enterprise there may be a certain division of authority and responsibility, but there should be no fundamental differences of opinion between the home and the school as to what constitutes right living or as to the objectives of character education. Nor should there be any fundamental conflict be-

⁸⁰ For summaries of research studies in the field of tests and measurements, see: National Education Association, American Educational Research Association, "Tests of Personality and Character," "Tests of Intelligence and Aptitude," and "Educational Tests and Their Uses." *Review of Educational Research* 2: 183-270, June, 1932; 2: 271-342, October, 1932; 3: 1-80, February, 1933.

For a comprehensive list and description of measuring instruments in the field of character and personality adjustment, see the Tenth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence, p. 345-404, and other sources mentioned in Section II of this bulletin, p. 108, footnote 36.

⁸¹ See p. 119 of this bulletin.

⁸² For further information concerning modern systems of pupil records, see: Heck, Arch O. *Administration of Pupil Personnel*. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1929. p. 184-236.

⁸³ See: National Education Association, Research Division, "Education for Character. Part I: The Social and Psychological Background." *Research Bulletin* 12: 62-65; March, 1934.

tween the methods employed by the two agencies. To the extent that such differences and conflicts exist, the efforts of both agencies will be made less effective. Mutual understanding of sound principles and procedures is the first requisite of a successful program. The second requisite is sincere and cooperative effort to put these principles and procedures into practise.

The school may help to develop such mutual understanding and cooperative effort in a number of ways. Thru meetings of parent-teacher associations and similar groups the objectives and methods of education for character can be clarified. Teachers and principals can visit homes to obtain the viewpoints of parents and to discuss the problems of individual children. Parents can be encouraged to visit the schools frequently so as to see at first hand what the schools are doing. One of the chief functions of school specialists in individual guidance and counseling is to keep in close contact with the home. Whatever methods may be used to establish cooperative relations, the school staff should be prepared to take the initiative in establishing such relations.³⁴

Other community agencies in relation to the school—The need for mutual understanding and cooperative effort is no less between the school and other community agencies than between the school and the home. Without the support and assistance of these other agencies, the influence of both home and school may be seriously weakened or completely nullified. Some community influences, it is true, are not within the control of organized groups with which the school can deal. The number and scope of organized agencies is so great, however, that a tremendous improvement in community conditions might reasonably be expected if all of them would work together along constructive lines. One needs only to think of the potential power for good to be found in the cooperation between the school and such community agencies as parent-teacher associations, service clubs, churches, welfare societies, and

departments of the local government, e.g., police, fire, and health.³⁵

The ways in which such agencies can cooperate with the school are many and varied. Newspapers can give publicity to the aims and activities of the school. Radio stations can help to enrich pupil experience by suitable programs. Organizations working thru the schools may enlist groups of pupils in worthy community projects. A business house or a factory may occasionally be used by pupils as a laboratory for the study and practise of adult activities outside the school. Certain agencies may unite with the school in studying and treating community conditions which contribute to juvenile delinquency. Agencies which specialize in individual guidance and counseling may co-ordinate their activities with the school's program in this field. Sometimes a particular organization may be given a limited amount of time on the school program for explaining its work to the pupils, or for interesting them in matters related to character and good citizenship.³⁶ These are only a few of the possibilities for effective community cooperation.

It is essential that the school understand the purposes and methods of outside organizations, as well as that these organizations understand the functions and procedures of the school. Such understanding is needed in determining the kind and extent of cooperation which the school should give. A serious problem in some communities is the attempt of certain outside agencies to influence unduly the content of the school curriculum, or to use the time of teachers and pupils to further the purposes of these agencies primarily. There are many commendable movements and organizations which cannot reasonably be given time on the school program. All requests for cooperation of this kind need to be considered carefully and handled tactfully. Decisions should always be made in accordance with the central objective of the school program, which is, or ought to be, the finest all-round development of character and personality.³⁷

³⁴ For further discussion and illustration of home and school cooperation, see: National Congress of Parents and Teachers. *First Yearbook: Parent Education*. Washington, D. C.: the Congress, 1930. 224 p. ¶ National Education Association, Department of Elementary School Principals. *The Principal and His Community*. Eleventh Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1932. p. 227-312. ¶ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. Tenth Yearbook, p. 315-32.

³⁵ National Education Association, Department of Classroom Teachers. Seventh Yearbook, p. 235.

³⁶ Care should be taken, however, to see that the program of any organization working thru the schools is based on sound principles and administered by competent persons. See the statement on this point under "Clubs," p. 112 of this bulletin.

³⁷ For further discussion and illustration of cooperation between the school and community agencies other than the home, see: National Education Association, Department of Elementary School Principals. Eleventh Yearbook, p. 313-546. ¶ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. Tenth Yearbook, p. 333-44.

Public Support of the Program for Character Building

While it is true that the schools generally need to improve their materials and methods for character building, it is likewise true that this cannot be satisfactorily accomplished without adequate financial support. In education, as in other fields, the public usually gets no more than it pays for. An effective program of education for character requires well-trained and conscientious teachers, modern equipment, comfortable and well-designed buildings, a broad and dynamic curriculum, and special provisions for individual guidance and counseling. These essentials are almost entirely lacking in some school systems, and in most systems they are only partially provided. To provide them more completely, however, will

undoubtedly cost more money than is now available for public education.

Unless the history of the American public school no longer has any significance, and unless citizens in general remain unaware of the needs of the changing social order, the character objective in education will receive an increasing emphasis in the future, and the means of achieving this objective more effectively will somehow be found. School administrators and teachers must take the lead in discovering and developing such means, both in the field of educational practise and in the field of school finance.⁸⁸ If the people are properly acquainted with the facts, and are given reasonable assurance that a richer and more comprehensive program will eventually raise the general level of character and citizenship, it is inconceivable that they will withhold for long the needed financial support.⁸⁹

⁸⁸ For a concise statement of essential procedures in financing a modern school system, see: National Conference on the Financing of Education. *Report. Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education*, National Education Association and Department of Superintendence. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1933. 78 p.

⁸⁹ Among recent publications dealing with the interpretation of schools to the public are the following: National Education Association, Department of Classroom Teachers. *Teacher and Public: A Handbook of Interpretation for Teachers*. Eighth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1934. 240 p. ¶ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. *Critical Problems in School Administration*. Twelfth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1934. p. 211-56.

WE CANNOT make good citizens of those who cannot see their actual relation to society and cannot therefore become conscious of their actual responsibilities. We may make them obedient and law-abiding, and they may even be well-intentioned and kind. But good citizenship demands a positive, constructive attitude toward society, and an understanding of the relationships involved. We cannot develop this by telling children to be good, or even by priming them with the formulas of goodness which actually were effective and constructive in the days when human society was put together in very different ways.

What we do get from this attempt to fasten ancient formulas upon modern minds—and calling the process education—is not even the conservatism which seems to be our aim. When we try to teach people what to think, instead of how to think, we get such extremes of conduct as to threaten our social stability.—Edward A. Filene, *Official Report*, Department of Superintendence, 1934. p. 76.

V. A Few Selected Books and Periodicals on Character and Character Education

The following list includes references on the nature of personality, the meaning of good character, factors in character formation, and educational procedures for character development. Many other references bearing on these topics are mentioned in the preceding pages and in the Research Bulletin for March, 1934.

Books

1. ALMACK, JOHN C. *Education for Citizenship*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1924. 287 p.
2. BOWER, WILLIAM C. *Character Through Creative Experience*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1930. 276 p.
3. CABOT, RICHARD C. *The Meaning of Right and Wrong*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1933. 463 p.
4. CHARTERS, W. W. *The Teaching of Ideals*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1927. 372 p.
5. COE, GEORGE A. *Law and Freedom in the School*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1924. 134 p.
6. COX, PHILIP W. L. *Creative School Control*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1927. 320 p.
7. FISHBACK, ELVIN H. *Character Education in the Junior High School*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1928. 190 p.
8. GERMANE, CHARLES E. and GERMANE, EDITH GAYTON. *Character Education*. New York: Silver, Burdett and Co., 1929. Part I, 259 p. Part II, 224 p.
9. HARTSHORNE, HUGH. *Character in Human Relations*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1933. 367 p.
10. HEATON, KENNETH L. *Character Building Through Recreation*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1929. 230 p.
11. HEATON, KENNETH L. *The Character Emphasis in Education*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933. 415 p.
12. MARTIN, HERBERT. *The Formative Factors in Character*. New York: Longmans, Green and Co., 1925. 346 p.
13. MCLESTER, AMELIA. *Development of Character Traits in Young Children*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1931. 126 p.
14. MERRIAM, CHARLES EDWARD. *The Making of Citizens: A Comparative Study of Methods of Civic Training*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1931. 371 p.
15. MID-WEST CONFERENCE ON PARENT EDUCATION, 1928. *Building Character*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1928. 345 p.
16. MYERS, GARRY CLEVELAND. *Developing Personality in the Child at School*. New York: Greenberg, Publisher, Inc., 1931. 375 p.
17. MYERSON, ABRAHAM. *The Foundations of Personality*. Boston: Little, Brown and Co., 1921. 406 p.
18. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, DEPARTMENT OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS. *The Classroom Teacher and Character Education*. Seventh Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1932. 272 p.
19. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE. *Character Education*. Tenth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1932. 535 p.
20. NEUMANN, HENRY. *Education for Moral Growth*. New York: D. Appleton and Co., 1923. 383 p.
21. NEUMANN, HENRY. *Lives in the Making*. New York: D. Appleton and Co., 1932. 370 p.
22. O'SHEA, M. V. *Newer Ways with Children*. New York: Greenberg, Publisher, Inc., 1929. 419 p.
23. POWERS, F. F. *Character Training*. New York: A. S. Barnes and Co., 1932. 158 p.
24. RICHARDS, ESTHER L. *Behavior Aspects of Child Conduct*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1932. 299 p.
25. SOCKMAN, R. W. *Morals of To-Morrow*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1931. 331 p.
26. SYMONDS, P. M. *The Nature of Conduct*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1928. 346 p.
27. THOM, DOUGLAS A. *Normal Youth and its Everyday Problems*. New York: D. Appleton and Co., 1932. 368 p.
28. TUTTLE, H. S. *Character Education by State and Church*. New York: Abingdon Press, 1930. 164 p.
29. VAN WATERS, MIRIAM. *Youth in Conflict*. New York: Republic Publishing Co. (now New Republic, Inc.), 1925. 292 p.
30. WATSON, M. E. *Children and Their Parents*. New York: F. S. Crafts and Co., 1932. 362 p.
31. WICKMAN, E. K. *Children's Behavior and Teachers' Attitudes*. New York: Division of Publications, Commonwealth Fund, 1928. 247 p.
32. ZACHRY, CAROLINE B. *Personality Adjustments of School Children*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1929. 306 p.

Periodicals

1. ALLPORT, GORDON W. "The Composition of Political Attitudes." *American Journal of Sociology* 35: 220-38; September, 1929.
2. BLATZ, W. E., and BOTT, E. A. "Studies in Mental Hygiene of Children: 1. Behavior of Public School Children—A Description of Method." *Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology* 34: 552-82; December, 1927.

3. BRILL, MARION S. "Motivation of Conduct Disorders in Boys." *Journal of Delinquency* 11: 5-22; March, 1927.
4. CARMICHAEL, ALBERT M. "To What Objective Stimuli Do Six-Year-Old Children Respond with Intentional Misrepresentation of Facts?" *Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology* 35: 73-83; March, 1928.
5. CLARKE, FRANK A. "Some Character Tests." *American Educational Digest* 46: 225-26; January, 1927.
6. COLLINS, GEORGE L. "How Race Prejudice Is Overcome." *World Tomorrow* 11: 410-12; October, 1928.
7. CRESSMAN, ELMER W. "Workbook versus Oral Instruction." *Journal of Educational Sociology* 7: 250-53; December, 1933.
8. CUSHING, HAZEL M., and RUCH, G. M. "An Investigation of Character Traits in Delinquent Girls." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 11: 1-7; February, 1927.
9. DAVIS, JEROME. "Testing the Social Attitudes of Children in the Government Schools in Russia." *American Journal of Sociology* 32: 947-52; May, 1927.
10. DEARBORN, FRANCES R. "What Does Honesty Mean to Third and Fourth Grade Children?" *Journal of Educational Method* 6: 205-12; January, 1927.
11. ELONEN, ANNA S., and WOODROW, HERBERT. "Group Tests of Psychopathic Tendencies in Children." *Journal of Abnormal Psychology* 11: 1-7; February, 1927.
12. FOSTER, SYBIL. "A Study of the Personality Make-up and Social Setting of Fifty Jealous Children." *Mental Hygiene* 11: 53-77; January, 1927.
13. JONES, VERNON. "Ideas of Right and Wrong Among Teachers and Children." *Teachers College Record* 30: 529-41; March, 1929.
14. KRASNOGORSKI, N. I. "The Conditioned Reflexes and Children's Neuroses." *American Journal of Diseases of Children* 30: 753-68; December, 1925.
15. LUNDBERG, GEORGE A. "The Newspaper and Public Opinion." *Social Forces* 4: 709-15; June, 1926.
16. ORATA, PEDROS T. "Race Prejudice." *Welfare Magazine* 18: 766-75; June, 1927.
17. RICH, GILBERT J. "A Biochemical Approach to the Study of Personality." *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology* 23: 158-75; July, 1928.
18. RIDDLE, E. M. "Stealing as a Form of Aggressive Behavior." *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology* 23: 79-93; April, 1928.
19. ROBB, E. K., and FAUST, J. F. "The Effect of Direct Instruction." *Journal of Educational Sociology* 7: 237-40; December, 1933.
20. SHULTZ, G. D. "Your Community Can Have A Child Guidance Clinic." *Better Homes and Gardens* 10: 20, 50, 52; November, 1931.
21. SHUTTLEWORTH, FRANK K. "Influence of Early Religious Home Training on College Sophomore Men." *Religious Education* 22: 57-60; January, 1927.
22. STARR, ANNA SPIESMAN. "A Problem in Social Adjustment." *Psychological Clinic* 17: 85-96; May, 1928.
23. SYMONDS, PERCIVAL M. "Group Methods for Conducting a Mental Survey of High School Pupils." *School and Society* 32: 501-6; October 11, 1930.
24. TAYLOR, HOWARD R., and POWERS, FRANCIS F. "Bible Study and Character." *Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology* 35: 294-302; June, 1928.
25. TIEBOUT, HARRY M. "Danger Points in Child Guidance Clinic Work." *Journal of Educational Sociology* 4: 508-16; April, 1931.
26. WASHBURN, CARLETON. "The Responsibility of the School in A Program of Character Building." *Religious Education* 26: 61-70; January, 1931.
27. WATSON, GOODWIN. "Does World-Mindedness Depend upon Good-will or Information? Upon Character or Intelligence?" *Religious Education* 21: 188-94; April, 1926.
28. WATSON, GOODWIN. "Orient and Occident: An Opinion Study." Summary in *Religious Education* 24: 322-28; April, 1929.
29. WOOLSTON, HOWARD. "Stepbrothers: A Study of Prejudice and Convention." *Social Forces* 6: 368-75; March, 1928.

NO IDEA can be more erroneous than that children go to school to learn the rudiments of knowledge only, and not to form character. The character of children is always forming. No place, no companion, is without an influence upon it; and at school it is formed more rapidly than anywhere else. The mere fact of the presence of so many children together puts the social or dissocial nature of each into fervid action . . . Teachers take children under their care, as it were, during the first warm days of the spring of life, when more can be done towards directing their growth and modifying their dispositions, than can be done in years, at a later season of their existence.—Horace Mann, *Life and Works of Horace Mann*, Vol. 2, p. 119-20.

EDUCATION FOR CHARACTER

What is character? What are the processes and principles of character formation? What are the objectives of a school program of character building? What are the character values in the curriculum, methods, and out-of-class activities? Of what use is individual guidance in developing character? What contribution do school and class administration make to a character building program?

THESE TWO BULLETINS will help you to answer questions such as those listed above. This announcement covers both Part I and Part II in order to show the value of each bulletin in preserving the continuity of the subject.

PART I

THE SOCIAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL BACKGROUND

Vol. XII, No. 2. 40 pages March, 1934

Contents

- I. A New Interest in an Old Problem
- II. Character Building in a New Social Setting
- III. The Nature and Formation of Character

Price 25 cents

PART II

IMPROVING THE SCHOOL PROGRAM

Vol. XII, No. 3. 64 pages May, 1934

Contents

- I. Objectives and General Provisions of the Character Building Program
- II. Building Character thru the Curriculum
- III. Building Character thru Individual Guidance
- IV. Building Character thru School and Classroom Administration
- V. A Few Selected Books and Periodicals on Character and Character Education

Price 25 cents

ALL ORDERS FOR PUBLICATIONS should be accompanied by funds in payment for same and *must* be so accompanied when orders amount to \$1.00 or less. Orders not accompanied by funds are subject to transportation charges. Discount on orders for more than one copy of the same book: 2 to 9 copies, 10 percent; 10 to 99 copies, 25 percent; 100 or more copies, 33 $\frac{1}{3}$ percent.

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W.
Washington, D. C.

OTHER PUBLICATIONS ON CHARACTER EDUCATION—

Several departments of the National Education Association have published valuable materials on this subject. These yearbooks and bulletins represent the work of some of the best minds in education.

CHARACTER EDUCATION

Tenth Yearbook—1932

Department of Superintendence

535 Pages

Price \$2 each

THE CLASSROOM TEACHER AND CHARACTER EDUCATION

Seventh Yearbook—1932

Department of Classroom Teachers

272 Pages

Price \$1.50 each

CRIME PREVENTION THROUGH EDUCATION

Research Bulletin—September, 1932

National Education Association

68 Pages

Price 25¢ each

TESTS OF PERSONALITY AND CHARACTER

Review of Educational Research

June, 1932

American Educational Research Association

88 Pages

Price \$1 each

THE PRINCIPAL AND HIS COMMUNITY

Eleventh Yearbook—1932

Department of Elementary School Principals

448 Pages

Price \$2 each

SOCIAL-ECONOMIC GOALS OF AMERICA

Report—1933

Committee on Social-Economic Goals of America of the National Education Association

23 Pages

Price 15¢ each

Order the above publications from:

National Education Association

1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W.

Washington, D. C.



THE BUSINESS of the educator—whether parent or teacher—is to see to it that the greatest possible number of ideas acquired by children and youth are acquired in such a vital way that they become *moving* ideas, motive-forces in the guidance of conduct.

This demand and this opportunity make the moral purpose universal and dominant in all instruction—whatsoever the topic. Were it not for this possibility, the familiar statement that the ultimate purpose of all education is character-forming would be hypocritical pretense; for as every one knows, the direct and immediate attention of teachers and pupils must be, for the greater part of the time, upon intellectual matters. It is out of the question to keep direct moral considerations constantly uppermost. But it is not out of the question to aim at making the methods of learning, of acquiring intellectual power, and of assimilating subjectmatter, such that they will render behavior more enlightened, more consistent, more vigorous than it otherwise would be.—John Dewey, *Moral Principles in Education*, p. 2-3.
